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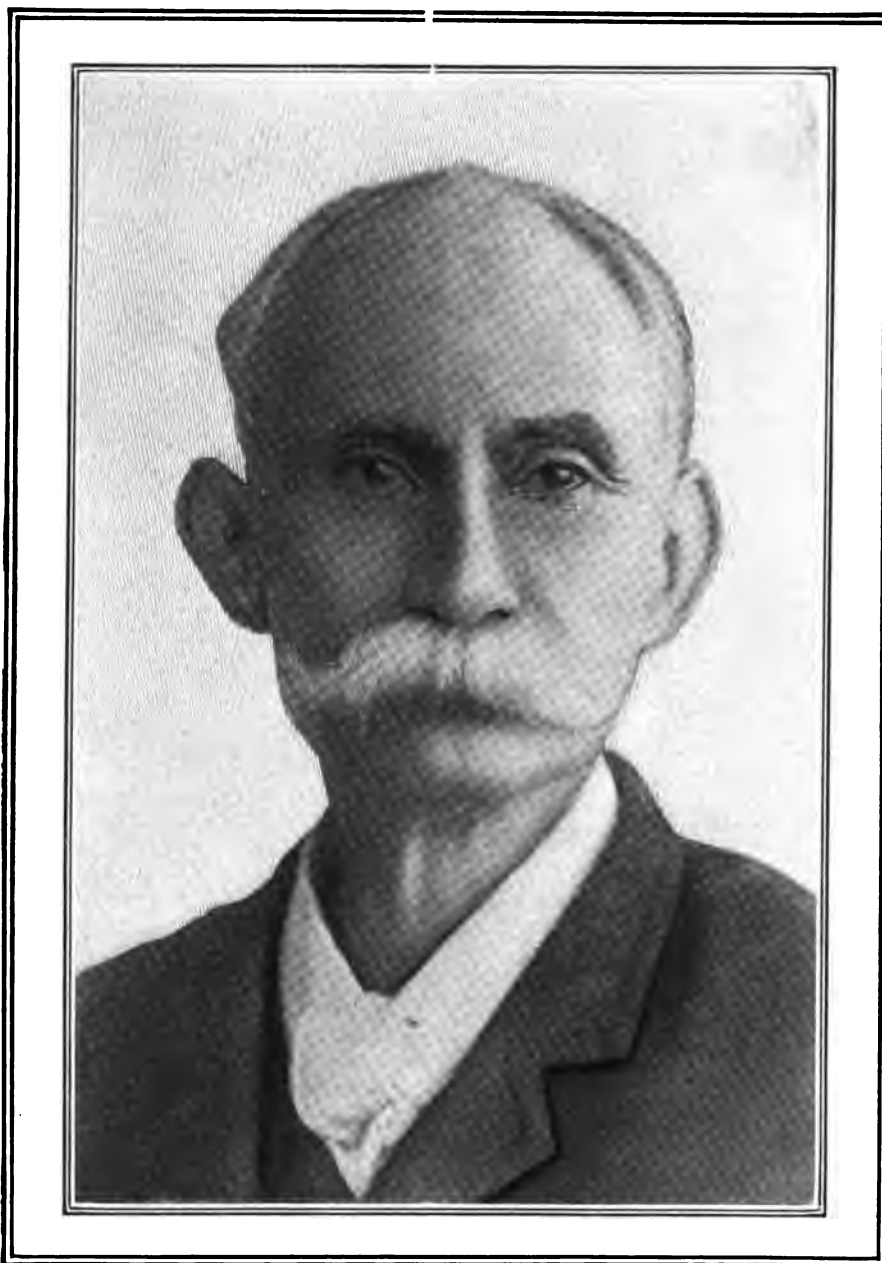
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EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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GENERAL MAXIMO GOMEZ, 1823-1905.

Maximo Gomez, commander-in-chief of the Cuban revolutionary army during the last war for independence against Spain, was born in Santo Domingo in 1823 and died at Havana on June 17, 1905. As a young man he was a lieutenant in the Spanish army, but left the service of Spain after his family emigrated to Cuba. In 1868 he joined the Cuban patriot army, and continued to serve against Spain throughout the ten years' war, reaching high commands and achieving several noteworthy victories over the Spaniards. After the signing of the treaty of Zanjón, in 1878, Gomez was proscribed, and retired to the island of Jamaica, where he continued to live as a farmer until the outbreak of the Cuban revolution in 1895 under José Martí. When Gomez landed in Cuba in the spring of 1895, he was at once made commander-in-chief of the insurgent troops, and from that time until the declaration of war between the United States and Spain, in 1898, Gomez was the chief personality in the unequal contest with Spain. His Fabian tactics were repeatedly successful in outflanking the Spanish forces, and, although vastly outnumbered, he succeeded in delivering telling blows against the Spanish army in the field. At the close of the Spanish-American War, Gomez did much to secure friendly relations with the United States, and used his influence to secure the election of President Palma. On the day before his death, the Cuban Senate passed a bill to present \$100,000 to the general.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*New Pages
of Great
History.*

There was a time when the four countries of the world most sufficient unto themselves, and seemingly farthest removed from the interaction of world-movements, were the United States, China, Japan, and Korea. Our own country in due time has grown to maturity and taken its great place in the recognition and regard of Europe and the world. China has come to be a country of intense concern to all the leading nations. Korea has ceased to be a "Hermit Kingdom" through conditions which have made it an international bone of contention; and Japan has stepped forth from a place of exclusiveness and timidity into the rank of great powers,—a mighty conqueror, henceforth the dominant and guiding influence in the destinies of Asia, and most potent of factors in the blending of old-world and new-world civilizations that must surely modify American and European life as well as the life of the ancient peoples of the Orient. It was a matter for great rejoicing as this number of the REVIEW passed from the editorial rooms to the printing-presses to feel some assurance that the end of the colossal war between Russia and Japan was near at hand. To be sure, a truce had not been declared, and a great land engagement between the forces of General Oyama and General Linevich, already begun, seemed destined to be carried to a finish with frightful loss of life. Yet the end of the war seemed clearly in sight. At the beginning of the war, our own government at Washington, with the moral influence and good-will of Germany and other European powers, had taken steps to secure a limiting of the theater of hostilities. Otherwise, the territory of China (apart from Manchuria) would surely have been invaded by both belligerents, with the danger of protracting hostilities, bringing other nations into the conflict, and most surely dismembering China amid the clashing of a number of anxious and grasping powers. A fearful danger was averted.

*America's
Influence and
Concern.*

This was a great service for our government to have rendered at the opening of the war, and it is not less gratifying to Americans that the initial steps toward a basis for bringing the war to an end were taken by the Chief Magistrate of this republic. The past month has been one of far-reaching events upon the plane of great history, and we may well turn these editorial pages away from home topics and give them more fully than usual to the things of the world beyond our gates. After all, it has come to pass for us Americans that we no longer count as alien to our interest those things that deeply affect other nations or that change the relationships of one people toward another. When this magazine, some fifteen years ago, began its monthly issues, it gave what in the United States was an unwonted and novel attention to foreign questions. In those days, only a limited public was on the one hand familiar with such matters, or was on the other hand eager to know about them. A marvelous change has come about in the range of American information and opinion. We have now a great American public caring about the concerns of mankind from Norway and Sweden to Morocco, and from Tibet to Venezuela. It has been the endeavor of the REVIEW to march steadily with this widening of American horizons. Not only have our people become better informed and more deeply interested, but our government and our diplomacy have changed in such regards until at length Washington has become a center of activity and influence in the affairs of the nations.

*Theodore
Roosevelt,
Peacemaker.*

Emperors and kings make war: it is reserved for presidents to make peace. The great historic event of the month of June, of which Americans can be justly proud, was the peace suggestion of President Roosevelt to Russia and Japan, which has been accepted by both the warring nations. The com-



ALL EYES ON AMERICA.—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

bination of decision and tact which is characteristic of the highest diplomacy was perhaps never so finely shown as in the President's remarkable note to both Russia and Japan, which was read to the Czar by Ambassador Meyer in person, on June 7, and presented to the Mikado, in Tokio, at the same time. Calling attention to the clause of the Hague convention which provides that a suggestion of intermediation shall never be considered an unfriendly act by disputing powers, our ambassadors at the Russian and Japanese capitals presented the following note :

The President feels that the time has come when in the interest of all mankind he must endeavor to see if it is not possible to bring to an end the terrible and lamentable conflict now being waged. With both Russia and Japan the United States has inherited ties of friendship and good-will. It hopes for the prosperity and welfare of each, and it feels that the progress of the world is set back by the war between these two great nations. The President accordingly urges the Russian and Japanese governments, not only for their own sakes, but in the interest of the whole civilized world, to open direct negotiations for peace with each other. The President suggests that these peace negotiations be conducted directly and exclusively between the belligerents; in other words, that there be a meeting of Russian and Japanese plenipotentiaries or delegates without any intermediary, in order to see if it is not possible for these representatives of the two powers to

agree to terms of peace. The President earnestly asks that the (Japanese) (Russian) Government do now agree to such meeting, and is now asking the (Russian) (Japanese) Government likewise to agree. While the President does not feel that any intermediary should be called in in respect to peace negotiations themselves, he is entirely willing to do what he properly can if the two powers concerned feel that his services will be of aid in arranging the preliminaries as to the time and place of meeting. But even if these preliminaries can be arranged directly between the two powers, or in any other way, the President will be glad, as his sole purpose is to bring about a meeting which the whole civilized world will pray may result in peace.

*Russia
and Japan
Respond.*

President Roosevelt's idea was that both countries could, without sacrificing their justifiable national pride, appoint representatives to consider whether peace might not be arranged without either nation first proposing terms of peace; that these representatives might meet at some neutral point, without the intervention or coöperation of any third power. In brief, he said to Russia and Japan, "Intervention is not necessary, but if I can do anything to make it possible that you meet and decide these matters yourselves, I will be more than glad to do so," and the civilized world, including the press of both belligerent powers, applauded. After considerable interchange of

opinions and views, and much diplomatic fencing, Russia's assent to the peace suggestion was delivered orally to the President by Count Cassini. The text of Russia's reply was received later by the President and communicated to Minister Takahira direct. The paragraph which caused some discussion, and suspicion on the part of Japan, read as follows :

As for an eventual meeting of Russian and Japanese plenipotentiaries charged with ascertaining how far it would be possible for the two powers to elaborate conditions of peace, the Imperial Government would have no objection in principle to such an attempt if the Japanese Government expressed a desire therefor.

The government at Tokio has been ready for peace for months, but some doubt has been felt in Japan as to the sincerity of Russia's desire, and Japan, which realizes that the diplomatic battle she is now entering upon is of greater importance to her future than the actual fighting in the far East, hesitated to commit herself to a position which might afford Russia an excuse for backing down. On June 15, the text of the Japanese reply was made public. It follows :

The Imperial Government have given to the suggestions of the President of the United States, embodied in the note handed to the minister for foreign affairs by the United States minister on the 9th inst., very serious consideration, to which, because of its source and its import, it is justly entitled. Desiring, in the interest of the world as well as in the interest of Japan, the reestablishment of peace with Russia, on terms and conditions that will fully guarantee its stability, the Imperial Government will, in response to the suggestions of the President, appoint plenipotentiaries of Japan to meet the plenipotentiaries of Russia at such time and place as may be found to be mutually agreeable and convenient for the purpose of negotiating and concluding terms of peace directly and exclusively between the two belligerent powers.

In the peace negotiations much credit must be given, of course, to Count Cassini and Minister Takahira, and to the ambassadors of France, Germany, and England, who were in constant touch with the President, assuring him of the hearty support of their governments. The Kaiser is known to have lent his most cordial support to President Roosevelt's project. It was recognized that the question of indemnity would be the point of issue. Russia, however, having virtually admitted the principle of indemnity, it was generally believed that diplomatic pressure by neutral nations would be brought to bear upon Japan to make her demands moderate.

"The Washington Conference." The next stage of the proceedings was the settlement upon place of meeting. Russia desired Paris, but Japan objected, since it is the capital of Russia's ally. Japan wished to settle upon Chefu, but

Russia objected, since the latter is supposed to have a pro-Japanese atmosphere. President Roosevelt is reported to have favored some point in Manchuria, but, later, is known to have regarded The Hague or Geneva as desirable places. Japan, however, positively refused to consider any point in Europe, and Russia would not consent to any place in the far East. Washington was therefore finally chosen, and the decision has already gone into history in the newspaper dispatches all over the world referring to the coming "Washington conference." Russia's intention to limit the powers of her representative to those of receiving Japan's terms had been objected to by the Tokio government, which insisted that the Russian envoy should be plenipotentiary, clothed with full powers to negotiate, subject, of course, in the most vital matters, to the general government at home. And Japan's wishes prevailed. The choice of representatives then became the subject of discussion, the indications being that there would be three commissioners on each side; and it was definitely announced on June 17 that M. Nelidov, at present Russian ambassador at Paris, and a statesman of long experience, had been chosen by the Czar, and that Marquis Ito, one of her leading statesmen and a man of well-tried ability, would probably represent Japan. Both governments settled upon August as the date of meeting. In case the weather conditions in Washington (which is a very hot city in summer) are such at that time to make it oppressive for the distinguished foreigners, President Roosevelt had suggested that the sessions be adjourned to some cooler northern point.

The American Idea of Neutrality.

The conviction which has taken possession of so large a portion of the civilized world that in matters of international politics the United States of America is absolutely and consistently virtuous was further strengthened immediately after the sweeping Japanese naval victory by the action of our government in compelling the internment at Manila of the three vessels of Admiral Enquist's squadron. On June 3, the *Oleg*, *Aurora*, and *Jemchug*, in a terribly battered condition, entered the harbor of Manila, having escaped from Togo's pursuit. The Russian commander at once requested from Governor-General Wright and Rear-Admiral Train, in command of the American squadron at Manila, permission to remain and repair. After consultation with the President, Secretary Taft telegraphed to Governor-General Wright that "time cannot be given for the repair of the injuries received in battle. Therefore, the vessels cannot be re-

paired unless interned until the end of hostilities." It is the firm conviction of the President and his advisers that, while repair of damages to warships by accident or stress of the elements can be permitted according to the laws of strict neutrality as well as the dictates of humanity, the practical refitting of ships of war which have received their injuries in battle is not in accordance with the duties of a neutral. This introduces a new principle into considerations of neutrality, but, with the exception of a few mild, perfunctory protests from Russian journals, its justness and correctness have been admitted by the world at large. In accordance with the President's instructions and the decision of the Russian admiral, who gave his parole, the three Russian vessels have been completely disarmed, and will remain interned at Manila until the close of the war. The strictly just and impartial attitude of the United States in this matter has retained for us the good-will of both contesting nations.

*Norway
Separates
from Sweden.*

By the most methodical and business-like of revolutions, a new nation entered the international family last month. After nearly a century of union with

Sweden, Norway has become a separate as well as an independent state. The immediate cause of disruption was the refusal of Sweden to grant a separate consular service to Norway. The real reason is found in the facts of radically opposite national temperaments and different economic and commercial interests. On May 28, King Oscar vetoed the Norwegian Storting's bill providing for separate Norwegian consulates. The entire Norwegian cabinet thereupon resigned in a body, but the King refused to receive their resignations. Regarding this as an unconstitutional act, the Norwegian ministry declared that the King had forfeited his position, and, on June 7, the Storting declared the union dissolved and King Oscar dethroned as king of Norway by passing this resolution :

Whereas, All the members of the council of state have laid down their offices; *Whereas*, His Majesty the King has declared himself unable to establish a new government for the country; and *Whereas*, The constitutional regal power thus becomes inoperative, the Storting authorizes the members of the council of state who retired to-day to exercise until further notice as the Norwegian government the power appertaining to the King in accordance with Norway's constitution and existing laws, with those changes which are necessitated by the fact that the union with Sweden under one king is dissolved in consequence of the King having ceased to act as Norwegian king.

An address from the Storting, under the guidance of Christian Michelsen, premier of the cabinet and *de facto* head of the Norwegian government, in which the disruption of the union is referred to as "the course of developments which have proved more powerful than the desire and will of individuals," was sent to King Oscar. It was a temperate, respectful, and dignified address, calling attention to the irritation caused by the misunderstanding between the two nations, and declaring that the union had become a danger to the feeling of solidarity between the Norwegian and Swedish peoples. The address emphasized the good feeling toward the Swedish people and King Oscar's family by requesting his majesty to select a prince of his own house as



FREE AGAIN!—From the *World* (New York).



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KING OSCAR OF SWEDEN.

(Until June 7, ruler of Sweden and Norway. He resumed his duties as monarch late in May, after several months' regency by the Crown Prince Gustav.)

king of Norway, of course relinquishing his right of succession to the throne of Sweden. In reply, King Oscar declared that his veto of the consular bill was within his constitutional rights, and declined to abdicate the Norwegian throne, because, as he asserted, Sweden's consent is necessary to a dissolution of the union. The official action of Sweden will be taken by the Riksdag, which begins its regular session July 1.

While the government and the people of Sweden are standing loyally by King Oscar, it is not conceivable that any forcible means will be used to keep Norway in the union against her will. Indeed, many of Sweden's leaders have publicly announced that Sweden's stake in the matter is

International Aspects.

not of sufficient importance to justify this, even were combined Europe to permit it. Moreover, the very powerful Swedish Socialist party, which is very strong in the army, as well as almost all the labor unions of Sweden, have announced, in letters addressed to Norwegian socialistic bodies, that Swedish Socialists will refuse to march against their brethren in Norway. The actual separation was consummated by the lowering of the union flag from the tower of the government fort in Christiania, where it had floated since 1814. The Norwegian tricolor was then hoisted in its place. The opinion of the rest of the world is not unanimous as to the wisdom of Norway's move, the chief objection alleged being fear of Russian aggression. St. Petersburg, it is known, has long desired an ice-free port on the Atlantic, and Norway alone would, of course, be unable to resist Muscovite aggression. As yet, no foreign power has recognized Norway as an independent nation, and it is confidently predicted in Stockholm that, with Sweden objecting, no foreign power is likely to extend such recognition. This, it is believed, will eventually force Norway into negotiations which will prob-



MR. CHRISTIAN MICHELSEN.
(Head of the *de facto* Norwegian government.)



Dr. Sven Hedin.

Dr. Fridtjof Nansen.

Dr. Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson.

NORWEGIAN AND SWEDISH LEADERS IN THE CONTROVERSY PRECEDING THE NORWEGIAN REVOLUTION.

ably result in separate independence, consummated, however, after a manner more agreeable to Sweden's pride. In the event of it being found difficult to find a Scandinavian prince willing and able to accept the throne of the new nation, the chances for a Norwegian republic are exceedingly bright; in fact, many of the leaders of this intensely democratic people are now looking forward to the early establishment of such a form of government. Discussion of the possibility and desirability of a Scandinavian union of Norway, Denmark, and Sweden is again being revived in the press of Europe and the United States. The entire subject of discussion, with comments from both Norwegian and Swedish standpoints, is presented in a special article on another page of this issue (65). The controversy had already been thoroughly covered in a series of articles in the *London Times*, by the famous Norwegians, Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson and Fridtjof Nansen, and the eminent Swedish explorer, Dr. Sven Hedin.

Togo Master of the Situation. In the light of the events of May 27 to June 3 in far-Eastern waters, the world can see how vain was all its prophecy and speculation with regard to the intentions of the Russian and Japanese admirals. These events have proven that the only man—not excepting Admiral Rozhdestvenski himself—who really knew the place and power of every Japanese and Russian ship, and where Admiral Rozhdestvenski was going, was the man who most needed to know these things—Admiral

Togo. It is the common knowledge of the world now how the Russian commander determined upon his bold stroke. It is impossible to believe that Admiral Rozhdestvenski had any adequate knowledge of the exact strength of his opponent's fleet, its readiness for action, and its commander's knowledge of his own whereabouts. Otherwise, he most certainly would have attempted to get to Vladivostok by an indirect route, instead of dashing through the Korean Straits. Of course, he knew that the supreme effort of the Japanese navy would be to guard the channel across which communication was being held with her armies on the mainland. He must have known. Probably his dash by



Prof. Rasmus Anderson.

Dr. John A. Enander.

EMINENT AMERICAN SCANDINAVIANS (see pages 68, 69).

the Tsu Islands was made with a full knowledge of these facts, with the intention of taking Admiral Togo by surprise, on the assumption that, just because it was likely to be Japan's best-guarded point, therefore he would not be expected to pass that way.

*Rozhestvenski
Brave but
Unfortunate.* It is impossible to withhold a great deal of sympathy and not a little admiration from this man who, though in the poorest of health and under the most trying physical conditions, carried the fortunes of Russia in his own hands for half a year, and finally staked those fortunes on a gallant, if almost hopeless, dash for victory. The butt and gibe of the world's ridicule and contempt, this sailor, heroic in his devotion to his country, even if he was an international peril, with a large proportion of his crews mere landmen who had never seen service on the water before, with mutiny rampant, his ships foul with weeds and short of coal and provisions,—this man steamed bravely into the Japanese trap, made a gallant fight, and suffered almost mortal wounds in the service of his country. Admiral Rozhestvenski did all that it was possible for man to do with the means at his command. Grievously wounded, in a Japanese naval hospital, frankly admitting the superiority and generosity of his captors, he is one more victim of the utterly incompetent and corrupt Russian autocracy, which is again branded with failure by the only test it has boasted it could stand in its claim to be a civilized power,—military prowess. The autocracy has despised and oppressed Russia's artists, her writers, her painters, and her musicians, even when the rest of the world honored them. It has claimed preëminence by its warlike might alone, and now, when brought to the supreme test by a nation which the world has known only as artistic, and not for its soldiers, the Russian autocracy has made a miserable, contemptible failure. Russia's soldiers and sailors have not belied their historic reputation for bravery. It is the system that has failed, not the men.

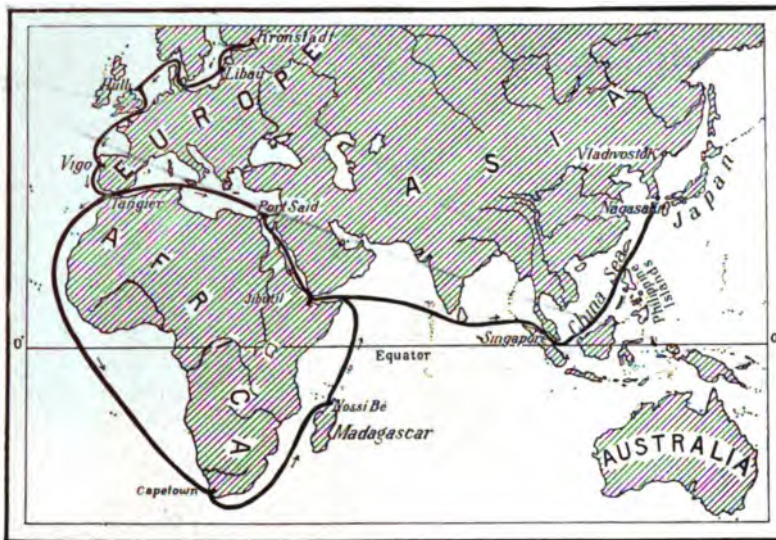


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ADMIRAL TOGO AND HIS TWO SONS.

*Battle of
the Sea of
Japan.*

In the Korean Straits, lying about midway between the main Japanese island and the end of the Korean peninsula, is the heavily fortified, rocky island of Tsu. This is really two islands, divided by a very narrow passage. When the fog lifted between 5 and 6 on the morning of May 27, the Russian fleet, in two columns, was discovered near Quelpart Island by Togo's scouts, steaming northeast into the Korean Strait, headed, apparently, for Tsushima (Tsu Island). The news was sent to the Japanese admiral's flagship by wireless telegraphy. Togo's plans, it is now evident, had been, from the first, clear and simple. His hitherto mysterious base was Masampo, Korea, and there, with his fleet close in hand, he watched the Korean Straits, while his fine scouting and information service kept him informed of every move of the Russians. As soon as the news reached the *Mikasa* that the Russians were really coming on, the Japanese fleet prepared for action and took position in the center of the Korean Strait, probably just north of Tsu Island, waiting to see which channel the Russians would take. About noontime, the Japanese scouts telegraphed that the Russians were coming up the eastern channel (some thirty miles wide), between Japan proper and Tsu-

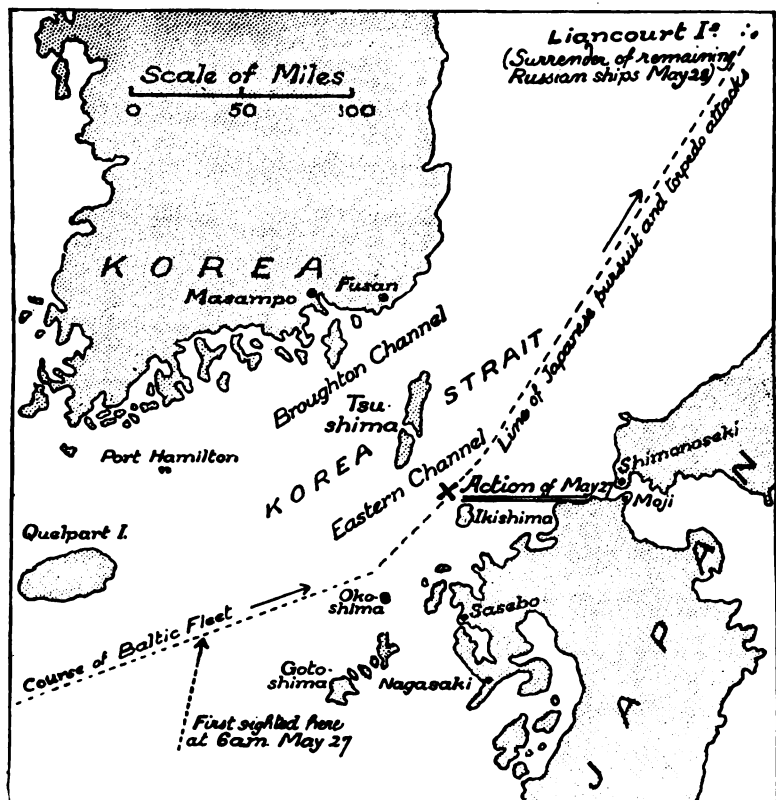


THE VOYAGE OF THE BALTIC FLEET AROUND THE WORLD.

The details of the opening maneuvers have not yet been made clear. Most credible accounts state that the Japanese admiral, Kataoka, with a light cruiser squadron, first attacked Admiral Rozhdestvenski, and that then Admiral Kamimura, with the rest of the cruisers, having let the Russians pass, swung upon them from the south. At the same time, Admirals Dewa and Uriu broke in upon them from Iki Islands, on the north, and the battleship squadron, under the command of Admiral Togo himself, pressed the discomfited Russians from the west. The broad lines of

Togo's strategy in the battle, however, consisted of throwing a heavy division across the Russian's line of advance as they came on,

shima. Admiral Togo at once deployed his fleet across the northern mouth of this channel, from Tsushima to Ikishima (see map), and waited. The Russians advanced into action in three columns, their eight battleships, under the immediate command of Admiral Rozhdestvenski himself, on the side toward Japan, and their six cruisers on the left. Behind them came the coast-defense ship and destroyers, with the transports and colliers in the center, — thirty-two vessels in all. From Admiral Togo's flagship, the *Mikasa*, could be seen the signal, in almost the same words as Nelson's famous signal flown just one hundred years before: "The destiny of our Empire depends upon this action. You are expected to do your utmost." It was a few minutes past 2 in the afternoon when Rozhdestvenski's flagship, the *Kniaz Suvarov*, at the head of the Russian line, fired the first shot. The *Mikasa* replied, and soon the fighting became general along a line of fifty miles.



THE KOREA STRAITS, SHOWING WHERE THE GREAT NAVAL BATTLE WAS FOUGHT.

while with his destroyer division and supporting vessels, on the west, he gradually crowded the Russians toward the coast of Japan. The battle was really won in an hour, he reports. As the fighting continued, the Japanese slowly enveloped the Russians on the north, west, and south. These maneuvers increased the disadvantages of the Russian position, already badly handicapped by Admiral Rozhdestvenski's poor battle formation. The Japanese ships were painted a light green and gray, and were scarcely visible, while most of the Russian vessels, with their yellow and black coating, were excellent marks for Togo's men, long and carefully trained at shooting in a rough sea. Wind, sun, and weather were against the Russians. In rough water, the badly trained gunners had to fire against the wind, with the sun in their eyes, while the Japanese had the sun at their backs, and fired "down wind." One after another, each Russian vessel was singled out in turn and on it was concentrated the terrific fire of almost the entire Japanese fleet. In two hours the Russians had become completely disorganized. During Saturday (May 27), the splendid battleships *Sissoi Veliki* and *Borodino* were sunk, the latter receiving her death-wound in the evening from the torpedo-boat flotilla. During the night that followed, the Japanese continued their torpedo attacks, finishing up the work of the battleship gunnery during the day, and sinking the *Kniaz Suvarov*, the *Alexander III.*, and the *Oslyabya*. On Sunday, the 28th, the battleships *Nicholas I.* and *Orel* were captured, as were also the *Admiral Seniavin* and the *Admiral Apraxine*, coast-defense vessels. The armored cruisers *Admiral Nakhimov* and *Vladimir Monomakh* were badly crippled by gunfire on Saturday and sunk (near Tsushima) by torpedoes on Sunday. The battleship *Navarin*, the coast-defense ship *Admiral Oushakov*, the armored cruiser *Dmitri Donskoi*, and the protected cruiser *Sviatlana* were sunk by torpedoes on the night of the 27th or the morning of the 28th. The Japanese pursuit never rested.

The Russian Wreck. One by one, the Russian vessels were sunk or captured. The Baltic fleet never really recovered from the first crushing blow to its admiral's flagship. All the rest was headlong flight, relentless pursuit, and, finally, utter rout and destruction. Admiral Rozhdestvenski transferred his command from the *Suvarov* to the *Borodino*, where he was wounded. Then he was taken aboard the *Biedovy*, a destroyer, which was captured by the Japanese near the Korean coast, the Russian admiral being found wounded and bleeding in her hold. Admiral Voelkersahm, in command



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VICE-ADMIRAL KAMIMURA.

(Second in command at the battle of the Sea of Japan.)

of the Russian battleship squadron, was killed at the beginning of the fight in the conning tower of his flagship, the *Oslyabya*. Admiral Nebogatov, with five ships, made a dash to the north, but was overtaken by the Japanese on Sunday morning off the Liancourt Islands, nearly two hundred miles north of Tsushima. One of his vessels, the *Izumrud*, escaped, but ran on a reef on Monday night, and her commander, Ferzen, landed his crew and blew up the cruiser. The other four ships under Nebogatov (the battleships *Nicholas I.* and *Orel* and the coast-defense vessels *Admiral Apraxine* and *Admiral Seniavin*) surrendered to the Japanese under Uriu and the younger Togo. Admiral Enquist, in charge of the heavy cruiser division, succeeded in escaping to Manila, where he arrived on June 3 with his three cruisers, the *Oleg*, the *Aurora*, and the *Jemchug*. The cruiser *Almaz*

and three destroyers reached Vladivostok in safety. Another Russian destroyer drifted into Shanghai harbor on June 4. For three days the wreck of Russian vessels and the dead bodies of Russian sailors were washed up on the shores of Japan. The aggregate number of the officers and men of Rozhdestvenski's fleet was 18,000. Of these, but 1,000 escaped. Fourteen thousand went down with their ships, and 3,000, including two admirals (Rozhdestvenski and Nebogatov), were taken prisoners.

*Japanese
Naval
Losses.*

"They sailed for the land of pygmies and they found a race of men." This is the only explanation. With weak, badly equipped ships, inferior explosives, cavalry lieutenants on the decks in place of naval officers, no system of communication and no information service worthy of the name, the Russian armada went into battle with the Czar's commission signaled from Rozhdestvenski's flagship: "We must have, not only a triumphant entry into Vladivostok, but must sink part of the Japanese fleet on the way." They believed they could destroy Admiral Togo. The Russian gunners maintained a much higher rate of fire than the Japanese, but the projectiles nearly always flew high or buried themselves in the sea, showing lack of experience in rough-water firing. The Japanese fleet suffered very slightly. Three of Togo's torpedo boats were sunk and about eight hundred lives lost, according to Admiral Togo's report. The battleship *Asahi* was the most frequently hit, but the *Mikasa*, Togo's flagship, lost the most,—63 in killed and wounded. Additional losses to the Japanese navy, now made known for the first time, since there is no further reason for secrecy, are: the battleship *Yashima*, sunk by a mine before Port Arthur, May 15, 1904; the protected cruiser *Takasago*, sunk December, 1904; the torpedo-boat destroyers *Akatsuki* and *Hayatori*, sunk in May and September, 1904, respectively; and the gunboats *Oshima* and *Atago*, sunk in May and November, 1904,—all before Port Arthur. By this battle, the Island Empire attains the rank of sixth naval power, and Russia becomes seventh. Despite her losses in battle, Japan, by capture from Russia, has increased her war tonnage from 220,000 to 250,000. It is reported that several of the Russian Port Arthur fleet have been raised by the Japanese and refitted for service. Besides, there are the Russian ships interned in Chinese ports and at Manila. These Japan will no doubt claim at the end of the war. The following table shows the vessels, both Russian and Japanese, participating in the battle of the Sea of Japan:

RUSSIA.

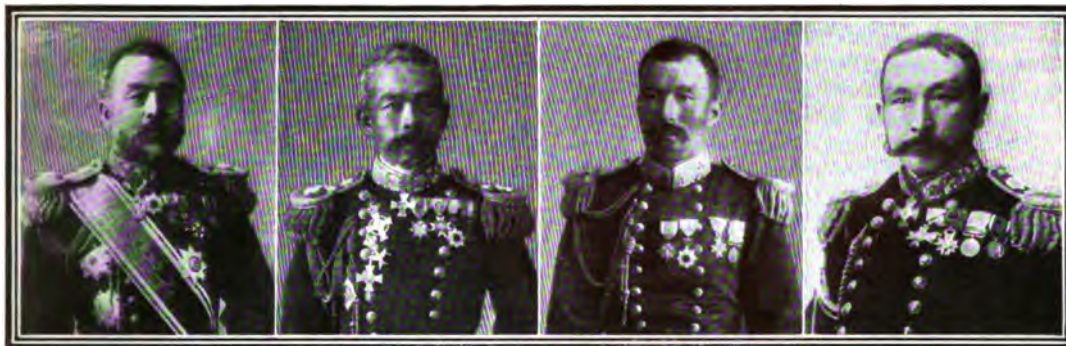
	Displacement.	Guns.	Crew.
Battleships:			
Alexander III.....	13,400	16	740
Borodino.....	13,400	16	740
Kniaz Suvarov.....	13,400	16	740
Orel.....	13,400	16	740
Oslabya.....	12,647	15	732
Navarin.....	10,000	12	680
Nicholas I.....	9,900	14	804
Sissol Veliki.....	8,800	10	580
Coast-defense battleships:			
Admiral Oushakov.....	4,128	8	318
Admiral Senjavin.....	4,128	8	318
Admiral Apraxine.....	4,126	7	318
Armored cruisers:			
Admiral Nakhimov.....	8,000	18	587
Vladimir Monomakh.....	6,000	11	550
Dmitri Donskoi.....	5,800	16	510
Protected cruisers:			
Arora.....	6,000	8	422
Oleg.....	6,500	12	340
Svetlana.....	3,900	6	360
Almaz.....	3,285	6	340
Izumrud.....	3,200	6	340
Jemchug.....	3,200	6	340

JAPAN.

	Displacement.	Guns.	Crew.
Battleships:			
Asahi.....	15,400	18	750
Mikasa.....	15,362	18	985
Shikishima.....	14,850	18	741
Fuji.....	12,600	14	800
Chin Yen.....	7,335	8	400
Fuso.....	3,717	6	377
Armored cruisers:			
Idzumo.....	9,800	18	500
Iwate.....	9,800	18	500
Yakumo.....	9,800	16	498
Asama.....	9,750	18	500
Tokiwa.....	9,750	18	500
Azuma.....	9,456	16	482
Kasuga.....	7,700	18	500
Nishin.....	7,700	18	500
Protected cruisers:			
Chitose.....	4,900	12	405
Kasagi.....	4,900	12	405
Hashidate.....	4,278	13	418
Matsushima.....	4,278	13	418
Itsukushima.....	4,278	12	418
Naniwa.....	3,709	8	352
Takachiho.....	3,709	8	352
Nitaka.....	3,400	6	320
Tsushima.....	3,400	6	320
Akitushima.....	3,172	10	407
Otowa.....	3,050	8	310
Idzumi.....	2,967	8	314
Akashi.....	2,800	8	300
Suma.....	2,700	8	300
Chiyoda.....	2,439	10	306

*The
Terrible
Torpedo.*

It is evident that the Russians were completely outclassed, outweighed, outgeneraled, and outfought. While the consummate strategy of Admiral Togo is admitted, and the superiority of the Japanese gunnery proven beyond a doubt, the features of the battle which are causing most speculation in naval and military circles are the relative parts played by battleship and torpedo boat as bearing on the old disputed question of the relative merits of these craft. When the Russians were wearied and worn by the terrific gunnery of the Japanese battleships on Saturday, at night a



Rear-Admiral Dewa.

Vice-Admiral Kataoka.

Rear-Admiral Shimomura.

Rear-Admiral Uriu.

TOGO'S ASSOCIATES IN THE DEFEAT OF ROZHESTVENSKI.

swarm of torpedo craft, held in reserve in the rocky coves of Tsushima, came out, in the moonlight, into smooth water and attacked the crippled Russians like a swarm of hornets. With their fresh crews, they were able to put the finishing touches to the work of the heavier warships. It is also admitted by the Japanese navy department that submarines were actually used during the battle. The question of the value of these small war vessels has divided naval experts for years. Certainly, the advancement into general favor of the torpedo and the submarine has been remarkable. The Russo-Japanese war has demonstrated that the contempt felt for these little craft after our war with Spain is utterly unwarranted. At the outbreak of the Spanish-American War the torpedo was regarded with awe by laymen and greatly feared by naval men the world over. In relation to war craft of other types, and in the public mind, it held a position similar to that now occupied by the submarine. Its potentialities were believed to be tremendous.

*Torpedoes
in Our War
with Spain.*

While the *Oregon* was making her famous trip around the Horn, the nation held its breath for fear of her destruction or capture by two Spanish torpedo boats of the destroyer type known to be somewhere upon the Atlantic. Such a catastrophe might have come to pass had the destroyers been in the hands of enterprising, fearless, and expert men. But in the light of the fate of the *Pluton* and the *Terror*, the Spanish destroyers, the fear that they inspired was ludicrous. They were disposed of in less than half an hour, in the battle of Santiago, by the little *Gloucester*, inferior in guns, but manned as a war vessel should be manned and superbly handled. The battles of Manila and Santiago demonstrated nothing save that marksmanship and the maneuvering of vessels are es-

sentials in naval warfare. Torpedo boats were hardly a factor in the fighting; and in regard to them nothing was demonstrated save that they are useless in incompetent hands. But from the day of Santiago, public opinion, in this country, at least, belittled torpedo boats and disregarded them as a factor of danger. The younger officers of the navy, almost to a man, are firm believers in torpedo boats as a component part of our sea power, and but few of the older officers are opposed to them. But naval officers, young and old alike, fear public opinion in the matter. They know that public opinion is likely to run to extremes, and that if the public again gets an exaggerated idea of the importance and capabilities of the torpedo boat it will again bring pressure to bear in the Senate when the Navy Department asks for additional battleships, saying: "What is the use of spending \$5,000,000 on a battleship when a fleet of torpedo boats—any one of them a match for any battleship afloat—can be built for the same amount?" As a matter of fact, we need more battleships, and more, many more, torpedo boats. Both are essential, and neither can take the place of the other. We never think of putting only heavy artillery in the field because it is possible for one shell to put an entire company of infantry out of action, nor do we dream of confining our army to regiments of infantry because one man may, on occasions, possibly be able to shoot down all the men at an enemy's field gun.

*Some
Torpedo
Statistics.*

When present building programmes are completed, we shall be the second power in battleships,—England, 50; United States, 25; Germany, 22; France, 17. Second, also, in coast-defense ships,—Germany, 13; United States, 11; France, 9. In first-class cruisers, we will rank third,—England, 45;

France, 16; United States, 15. The accompanying table shows our position in relation to the other great powers as regards torpedo boats, destroyers, and submarines. What craft we have in these classes, however, compare very favorably with the best of any other nation. Our slowest can do 28 knots, as against England's 25, Germany's 19, and Russia's 16, while our speediest can do 30 knots, as against England's, Germany's, and Japan's 31, and France's and Russia's 35. In gun power, our boats are superior, having two 12-pounders and two 6-pounders, as against England's and France's one 12-pounder and two 6-pounders. Ours have but two torpedo tubes to England's, Russia's, and Italy's two and three. Our complement is 64 for all boats, compared with Russia's lowest, 13, and England's greatest, 72. Our destroyer with the smallest coal capacity carries 115 tons, while France's lowest is 33 tons, and Russia's, 15 tons. Our boat with largest coal capacity carries 232 tons, against England's 130 and Germany's 100. So that our destroyers are equal, on paper, to the best of other nations in almost every respect save speed, and surpass them in gun power, coal capacity, and steaming radius. France was the first to add submarine torpedo boats to her navy, having launched her first craft of this type in 1885. Our first was launched in 1896. England did not adopt the submarine until 1902, but she now counts 39 of these craft, against our 8 and France's 48. Japan is supposed to have 13 submarines of American build, and it is believed that they are to be credited with the destruction of several of the Russian ships reported sunk by mines. In the total count for torpedo boats of all classes we are at the foot of the list of the seven leading naval powers. This table (compiled chiefly from the Naval Annual for 1905, modified in certain instances by later statistical data) shows the relative position of the principal maritime nations with regard to torpedo boats (first, second, third, and fourth classes), torpedo-boat destroyers, and submarines.

	Torpedo- boat destroyers.	Torpedo boats: 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th classes.	Submarines.	Total.
France.....	50	341	48	491
England.....	142	199	39	380
Italy.....	15	143	3	161
				(Before the war)
Russia.....	83	119	202
Germany.....	61	102	163
			(Supposed)	(Before the war)
Japan.....	20	73	13	106
United States.	16	29	8	61

"The Virtue of the Emperor." The Japanese admiral's report of his victory, beginning with these words, "That we gained a success beyond our expectations is due to the brilliant virtue of your Majesty and to the protection of the spirits of your imperial ancestors, and not to the action of any human being," has been the subject of much comment in the press of the Western world. The attitude of the mind which could write that sentence is inscrutable to us of the Occident. But, after all, may it not be literally true and justified? The present ruler of Japan is certainly a man of most remarkable mental and moral qualities, and, beyond a doubt, one of the greatest rulers of history. His entire reign is a reflection of his great virtues. Any autocrat who in the short reign of thirty-eight years could have the moral and mental fiber to completely transform his people, yield up his special prerogatives in favor of the general good, and lift the nation over which he rules into the full light and benefits of modern progress, as the Mikado has done so modestly, so wisely, and so thoroughly, has certainly virtues which make, not only for victories in war, but for more far-reaching victories in peace. After all, Admiral Togo is correct. If it had not been for the wisdom and gracious patriotism of his Majesty the Emperor Mutsuhito in surrounding himself with such progressive spirits, and in advancing his country as he has done, not only would military victories have been impossible, but such remarkable progress in the arts of peace could not have been recorded.

Effect of Togo's Victory. Admiral Togo's victory, which he has formally designated as the battle of the Sea of Japan, was so complete as to stun not only Russia but the rest of Europe. A Russian defeat had been looked for, but practical annihilation came as a surprise. Naval and military experts are calling the battle of the Sea of Japan one of the greatest—if not the greatest—of naval battles in history. Even Russia's French allies are comparing it with Howard and Drake's victory over the Spanish Armada in 1588. This comparison is really justified, since just as England's fate hung in the balance more than three centuries ago, so the destiny of Japan hung on the issue of this contest in the Korean Straits. The immediate effect on the great powers of the world had been to make them all increasingly bold in their efforts looking toward peace. The destruction of Admiral Rozhdestvenski's ships renders secure, not only Marshal Oyama's communications, but has left Russia practically without a navy of any kind and has advanced Japan to a position



REAR-ADMIRAL ENQUIST.

(The Russian commander whose ships are interned at Manila until the close of the war.)

where she becomes a world-power of the first rank. Such, in the words of the *Listok*, of St. Petersburg, is the "inevitable result, because education, good government, and freedom are always victorious over ignorance, misrule, and despotism." Comment on the significance of Admiral Togo's victory and the general triumphant advance of Japan's armies will be found in several "Leading Articles" in this number. What effect will Russia's temporary but real effacement as a great power have upon the delicate and complicated balance of international politics? Certain highly significant and even epoch-making results are already visible in some widely separated quarters of the globe.

It had been generally believed that Field Marshal Oyama was holding his hand until the naval battle had been fought in the Sea of Japan. At any rate, as soon as the echoes of Togo's guns had died away reports of renewed action on a vast scale in Manchuria became insistent. It had been generally believed, also, in the United States and Europe that an armistice would be concluded as soon as the preliminaries of peace had been passed between the two belligerents, but, although the Japanese note in reply to Russia's expressed willingness to consider peace was received in Washington on June 15, only reports of increased activity came from the bel-

ligerents in the field up to the middle of last month. For a few days before this writing, (June 20), the veil of secrecy had been dropped over Manchurian battlefields, something which has invariably happened before the disclosure of far reaching events. The Japanese had made a large enveloping circle, and, it was reported, had practically surrounded General Linevich. While reports of the complete isolation of Vladivostok were premature, the accomplishment of this fact was regarded as a matter of daily probability. The condition of General Linevich's troops was reported as very bad. The aged commander had had serious differences with General Kuropatkin, and had demanded his recall. It was also reported that upon the reception of the news of a probable peace the Russian commander and all his generals had signed a protest to the Czar, declaring for war, and announcing that they were strong enough to advance against the enemy.

Are the Russian Reforms Real?

It is coming to be recognized by the Western world that a state of practical anarchy exists in Russia. Immediately before the victory of Admiral Togo in the Sea of Japan, it seemed certain that the reactionaries had once more gained the ascendancy, and even after the news of the terrible naval defeat the Czar's ukase conferring almost dictatorial powers upon General Trepov, who has been in command of St. Petersburg since the massacre of last January, indicated that the tyrannical tendencies of the bureaucracy had again triumphed. This glorified policeman has been made assistant minister of the interior, chief of police, and commander of the gendarmerie, with almost unlimited power. In short, General Trepov, who represents all the abuses of power that are crushing the Russian people, has been intrusted with imperial authority to continue these abuses. On the other hand, reports are constant and insistent that the Czar really intends summoning a national assembly of some kind, to be composed of two houses, one of them elective. Early in June, it was even asserted that the programme of reforms proposed by Minister of the Interior Bulygin and Minister of Agriculture Yermolov (adopted in principle last March) included the institution of a representative assembly with legislative powers but no right to discuss the budget. Important reforms are instituted in Poland, Finland, the Baltic provinces, and the Caucasus, and the press censorship is completely abolished. Such is the report. The Czar is of one mind one day, and the opposite the next, and it is impossible for the outside world to be sure of the actual

state of affairs with regard to these much-discussed reforms. Meanwhile, the agrarian disorders were gradually extending throughout the country. The peasants everywhere feel that the day of "black judgment," of "division of land," for which they have longed for generations, is at hand. They starve and suffer, while the government carries on its work of pacification in the old ways,—by the wholesale arrest of leaders, by the indiscriminate flogging of men and women, and by the indescribable outrages of Cossacks. Several zemstvo congresses had been held, one of them, at Moscow, bold enough to address the Czar with a warning. The rioting and assassination also continued,—the governor of Baku and the governor of Ufa were assassinated late in May. There is uncertainty among the Czar's own advisers, and late reports announced the resignation of Grand Duke Alexis, high admiral and uncle of the Czar, and Admiral Avellan, minister of marine. The Russian revolution proper has not yet begun. The discussive period has ended: the period of action is about to be entered upon.

What looked like an extremely dangerous situation in European politics arose last month over the demand made by Germany that, in accordance with the request of the Sultan of Morocco, the question of the future of that country be submitted to an international conference. It will be remembered that by an agreement made some time ago between France and England the latter, in return for the relinquishment of France's claims against England in various quarters of the globe, recognized the overlordship of the republic in Morocco. Since Algeria, France's province, adjoins Morocco, French interests were recognized as being paramount in the latter country, and it was agreed that France should undertake the somewhat difficult task of introducing certain much-needed reforms into the Moorish Sultan's dominions. It was also agreed that France should maintain the "open door" in Morocco. Italy and Spain subsequently recognized this arrangement between France and England, but Germany, since she is not a Mediterranean power, was not consulted. German commercial interests are not great in Morocco, but Kaiser Wilhelm, during his recent rather dramatic visit to Tangier, declared that he intended to treat the Sultan as an absolutely independent sovereign, and to preserve the freedom of German trade in the country. This, of course, was taken as a formal notice that Germany would not recognize the special position of France in Morocco. The Sultan's rejection



PLAYING WITH FIRE.

(A Dutch view of the French minister Delcassé's diplomacy in the Morocco problem.)

From the *Hollandsche Revue* (Haarlem.)

of the proposed French reforms and his approval of the Kaiser's proposal for an international conference, together with the failure of the French mission to Fez, left but two courses open to the republic. She must either yield or formally oppose Germany and refuse the international conference. Of course, France desired neither of these alternatives. Her ally, Russia, is temporarily out of the reckoning, and were it not for the cordial understanding with England (amounting, it is now claimed in France, to a secret alliance) the republic would probably have been forced to completely back down or resort to war. As it was, M. Delcassé, minister of foreign affairs, was forced to resign, his portfolio being assumed by M. Rouvier, the prime minister. England's firm attitude in supporting France in this matter has, in effect, checkmated the Kaiser's diplomacy. For a few days diplomatic relations between the republic and her eastern neighbor were strained to the utmost, and the press of both countries was hinting at actual hostilities. With all the Mediterranean powers, including

Great Britain and the United States, approving of her position, however, France has little to fear from an international conference in the matter of Morocco. Late reports indicate that she will consent to such a conference.

Of more than ordinary interest in the way of royal junketings has been the recent tour through France and England of the youngest king of Europe, his Majesty King Alfonso XIII. of Spain. The young monarch, although only nineteen years of age, has for the past three years been actual ruler of his country. He is a manly, progressive monarch, of more than usual intelligence, and the taste of his quality which the world has so far received justifies the belief that he combines some of the greatest qualities of the Spanish race, and that perhaps fate will enable him to initiate the economic and political regeneration of his people. The civilized world rejoices in his escape from a horrible death by the bomb of an anarchist, in the attempt to assassinate him in Paris, on June 1. It was generally believed that the Spanish King's visit to London had for its principal object a meeting between him and the Princess Victoria Patricia of Connaught. The engagement of the young

*King Alfonso
of Spain Goes
Visiting.*

people, as we noted last month, is still claimed by certain Spanish and English newspapers. At any rate, the young king was received with great ovations in both Paris and London. American and English friends of the Spanish people will regret to learn that the council of state in Madrid, after long consideration of the edict against bull-fighting on Sunday, issued some months ago, has authorized the resumption of this sport on Sunday on the ground that it is an art. They will also regret the alarming condition of the Spanish labor situation, owing principally to the increasing emigration, which seriously affects the future of the country, in view of the vast extent of cultivable land in the kingdom which now lacks tillers. This is principally due to the weight of taxation, which makes it difficult for an ordinary laborer to subsist. Spanish labor conditions in one way have been bettered during the past few years, the number of labor unions having increased from 69 to 373, with a present membership of 57,000. There are many hopeful signs, however, not the least among these being the frugality of the people, resulting in a surplus in the treasury. There are many indications that after a century of revolutions, civil wars, and general commercial prostration the Spanish people are awakening to possibilities of national greatness. It should be said in passing that the government of Madrid will act in strict accord with France in the Morocco affair.



COUNT VON RADOLIN.

(German ambassador at Paris, who is conducting with France the delicate negotiations over Morocco.)

*Increased
Tension in
Austria-
Hungary.*

Following upon a long period of bitter discussion, the Austro-Hungarian crisis appears to be entering upon the stage of action. The appointment, on June 18, by Francis Joseph, in his capacity of King of Hungary, of General Baron Geza Fejervary as premier of Hungary indicates that the policy of compromise and conciliation represented by Premier Tisza has come to an end. The appointment of this military strong-man, who does not belong to the majority party, while, as yet, strictly constitutional, has aroused great bitterness among the Hungarians, who have no confidence in his personality, and who regard his appointment as the first act of the Emperor-King toward an open absolutism and a military dictatorship. Some weeks ago, the Hungarian Diet presented an address to the King urging parliamentary reform, the extension of the franchise, reform in taxation, economic independence, and the authorization of the use of the Hungarian language in the army. The appointment of Baron Fejervary is the answer from Vienna. The programme of the new leader, as known at present, indicates that he regards his

leadership as only administrative and transitory. He promises in no way to provoke the nation, he asks no budget, and he will not attempt to recruit or collect taxes. All he will undertake to do, he declares, is by proclamation to ask the people to pay their taxes, and appeal to the young men to render voluntary military service. So far, his leadership will be constitutional. If, however, he should attempt to enforce compliance with this programme, the cabinet would at once become unconstitutional. It is the intention of the Hungarian people to oppose passive resistance to this programme, and thus bring about its failure. If the Fejervary cabinet keeps its promises, there will be no change in the present Hungarian political situation. But Hungary expects the cabinet to violate its promises. And then?—perhaps a repetition of the stirring events of 1848.

*Colombia and
the Panama
Debt.*

In the shifting of diplomatic representatives in two of the most troublesome countries of South America there may be more than ordinary significance. Mr. Russell returns from Bogotá to Carácas, where he is understood formerly to have been *persona grata*; and it is not improbable that our government may cherish the hope that he may do something toward readjusting our relations with Venezuela. He is succeeded at Bogotá by Mr. Barrett, lately our minister to Panama. With the establishment of more cordial relations with Colombia there is opened an opportunity for the exercise of diplomatic activity and skill. It will be remembered that General Reyes, as the special representative of Colombia, presented to Mr. Hay, toward the end of 1903, a statement of his country's grievances on account of the recognition by the United States of the republic of Panama. Mr. Hay, in his reply of January 5, 1904, while denying that the complaints against the United States were well founded, tendered the good offices of this government for the purpose of bringing about a fair and equitable arrangement between Colombia and the republic of Panama. Among the objects to be attained he particularly mentioned the delimitation of boundaries and the apportionment of pecuniary liabilities. Both these questions yet remain open, and it is desirable that they should be finally adjusted. The United States has in them an important interest, both as the guarantor of the independence of the republic of Panama and as the representative of American creditors whose claims against Colombia, antedating the independence of Panama, remain undetermined and unsatisfied. Mr. John Barrett, when minister to Siam, became famous

as an adjuster of difficult claims, and he now enters upon his fourth important diplomatic position among the Latin-Americans. In this number our readers will find a highly instructive article from his pen on the Argentine Republic. Mr. Barrett will doubtless find at Bogotá an opportunity to be of great practical service in adjusting relations between the republics of Colombia and Panama, as well as in improving those between his own country and Colombia. It cannot be many years before the Colombians will see clearly that the nominal loss of Panama is as nothing to them compared with the substantial advantage of having their two coast lines connected by a ship canal which will be as fully theirs as ours for all practical purposes.

*The
Vindication of
Mr. Loomis.*

Last month witnessed the end of a painful incident in the diplomatic history of the United States, to which reference was made on page 653 in the June number of this REVIEW. This incident involved the honor of the country in the person of one who had represented it in Venezuela,—a region where it is peculiarly important that there should be confidence in the good faith and upright purposes of the United States. The country had been impressed with the efficiency of Mr. Francis B. Loomis as First Assistant Secretary of State, and was shocked to have it charged that he, while minister to Venezuela, had been engaged in transactions in connection with asphalt and other American interests that were not only unbecoming in an official representative, but otherwise culpable. The charges were conveyed to the State Department by Mr. Herbert W. Bowen, who had succeeded Mr. Loomis as our minister at Carácas; and this gentleman had come to Washington and used every endeavor to make good the accusations. The President asked Secretary Taft to make a thorough inquiry. The result has been a complete vindication of Mr. Loomis, Secretary Taft's report having been made public by the President on June 20. Mr. Bowen's dismissal from the government service accompanied the full establishment of Mr. Loomis' innocence of wrongdoing. If it had been merely an issue between two men, it would not have been so important; but there was involved the honor and good faith of American diplomacy in a part of the world where it is increasingly necessary that we should maintain our high reputation. Every leading newspaper in South America gave full space to all the gossip and rumor that could be telegraphed from Washington regarding this Bowen-Loomis affair, and it will not be easy to remove the wrong impressions that have been given.

*Genesis of
the Venezue-
lan Trouble.*

The reference made by Secretary Taft, in his speech as temporary chairman of the Ohio Republican State convention, to the international controversy growing out of the alleged confiscation of the property of an American asphalt company in Venezuela has again drawn public attention to the relations between the United States and that country. The subject is one concerning which there have been many vague and contradictory reports afloat. In August last, the president of the General Asphalt Company, of which the New York & Bermudez Company, whose property has been taken, is a subsidiary concern, made a report to the stockholders, in which the case of the company, as it stood at that time, was set forth. Not long afterward, statements of a different purport, not traceable to any definite source, began to appear in the public prints, while during the past few months there has been a constant supply, proceeding, it is understood, from a Venezuelan press bureau which has been in active operation in Washington. These statements were obviously designed to produce the impression that the case had been dealt with by the authorities at Washington in a hasty and impatient spirit, and with a strong desire to use the "big stick." To those who have followed the developments of the controversy step by step, however, it is evident that nothing could be further from the truth. After the case was fully considered by the Department of State, the course,—unusual in diplomatic affairs,—was taken of referring it to the Department of Justice; and still later, after the Attorney-General had made his report, the matter came into the hands of Secretary Taft as temporary supervisor of the State Department. The case has therefore been the subject of the utmost deliberation on the part of the Washington government; and if, as we may infer from Judge Taft's speech, the position of this government with regard to the merits of the controversy has undergone no change, it must be because the essential facts on which it has acted have not been shaken.

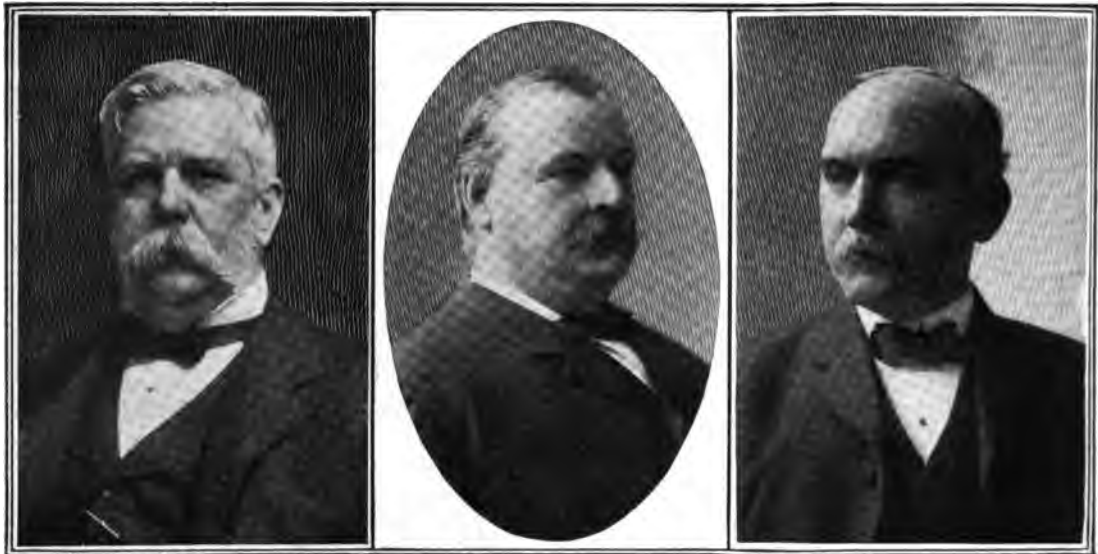
*History of
the Asphalt
Dispute.*

It appears that the titles of the New York & Bermudez Company run back to the year 1883, when the Venezuelan Government, with the approval of the Congress, granted to Horatio R. Hamilton, a citizen of the United States, the exclusive right for twenty-five years to exploit the asphalt and other natural products of the State of Bermudez. This concession Hamilton, in 1885, with the approval of the Venezuelan Government, assigned to the New York & Bermudez Company, a cor-

poration under the laws of the State of New York. Subsequently, in 1888, the company secured, under the laws of Venezuela, a definitive mining title for ninety-nine years to Bermudez Lake, a deposit of asphalt in the State of Bermudez, and a fee-simple title to over twelve square miles of land surrounding the lake. The first appreciable shipment of asphalt by the company was made in 1891. For several years the shipments were small; but in 1897 the output, as the result of expenditures which the company had made, was greatly increased. Prior to the time when asphalt began to be mined in paying quantities, the company appears to have had no trouble with the Venezuelan Government. But since that point was reached, and especially since the advent of President Castro, it has been constantly involved in litigation, back of which the Venezuelan Government has in one form or another always stood, for the purpose of depriving the company of the lake, either in whole or in part. Upon the merits of all the phases of this litigation we do not assume to express an opinion; we merely state the undisputed facts on unimpeachable authority. On several occasions, moreover, the company's attorneys have been imprisoned and otherwise molested; the courts concerned with the litigation have been set up and torn down; and executive decrees, as well as "judicial" processes, have been employed to deprive the company of the property it held. The company has from time to time received diplomatic support from the government of the United States; and it succeeded in retaining possession of Bermudez Lake till near the end of July last, when, by an *ex parte* proceeding, taken by the Venezuelan Government in its own name and behalf, a "depository," or receiver, was appointed for the property by the newly constituted Federal and Cassation Court. The depository is a person who was once the company's managing director at Caracás, but who afterward disagreed with the company and became associated with its competitors.

*The
Venezuelan
Case.*

The only ground assigned for the appointment of a depository was the alleged failure of the company to canalize or dredge a certain stream, in the non-canalization of which the Venezuelan Government, after due notice of the impracticability of the work, had for upward of twenty years acquiesced without complaint. Meanwhile, the asphalt mined by the depository with the use of the company's capital and plant is delivered to the company's rivals in business, so that the company is obliged to compete in the market with the product of what is in law still its own



Photograph by Gessford, N. Y.

Mr. George Westinghouse.

Hon. Grover Cleveland.

Justice Morgan J. O'Brien.

THE NEWLY CHOSEN TRUSTEES OF THE CONTROLLING STOCK IN THE EQUITABLE LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

property. The price at which, according to the depositary's reports to the court, the crude asphalt is sold represents practically the actual cost of mining and insurance. This would appear to leave a fine margin of profit for those, whoever they may be, in Venezuela and the United States, who divide the proceeds of the sale of the refined product. If it be true that the government of the United States has had some difficulty in regarding this receivership as a strictly "judicial" proceeding, the fact can scarcely be considered as remarkable. The people of the United States are not accustomed to receiverships which, instead of managing the property in the interest of the legal owner and his creditors, seek to destroy their business and security, while promoting interests which are disguised or concealed. The statement has often been made that the property was seized because of the company's complicity in the Matos revolution in 1902. This statement is destitute of foundation. A suit for damages appears to have been brought against the company on the ground of alleged complicity in the revolution; but this was some time after the seizure of the company's property, and had with it no connection whatever. It was no doubt upon the strength of the undisputed facts in the case that Secretary Taft declared that this government was endeavoring "to rescue the property of American citizens from what is said to be an unjust confiscation by the sovereign under color of judicial sanction;" that, arbitration

having been refused by Venezuela, the matter would be submitted to the Congress of the United States; and that the President was meanwhile exercising "all the forbearance that is due to a weaker nation."

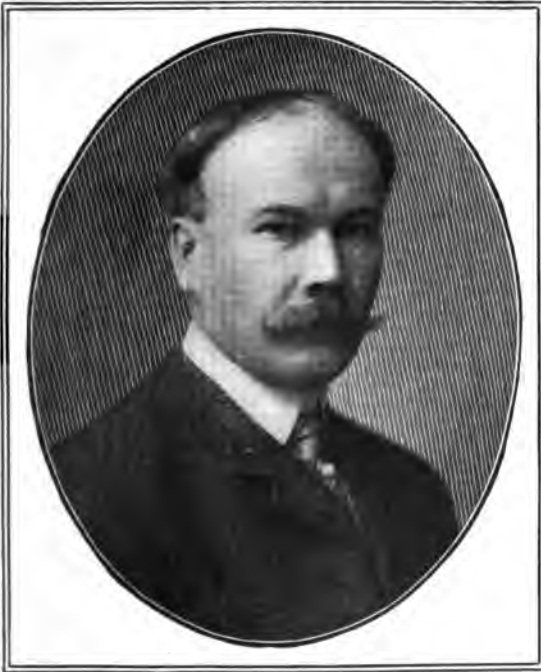
*Panama
Canal
Supplies.*

Because the Isthmian Canal Commissioners, in buying certain supplies necessary in construction work, have availed themselves of the cheapest markets, some of the ultra-protectionists have construed the commission's action as a "blow at American industries." The fact is that the commission, in the absence of any restriction by Congress, has taken the wise and provident course of seeking and obtaining, for this great government work, the most advantageous prices and terms. If steel rails can be made in this country and sold at a profit to foreigners for \$20 a ton, the commission has seen no reason for paying home manufacturers \$28 a ton. If Congress wished to have the Government pay American steel manufacturers the additional \$8 on every ton of steel rails that it has to buy, it was entirely within its power to enact the necessary laws. Congress, indeed, was asked to declare a policy in this very matter of the purchase of canal supplies, but it declined to do so. It appears that comparatively small purchases will be required between now and the next session of Congress, and the commission will doubtless be guided by the conditions in each individual case as it arises.

*Paul Morton
Heads the
Equitable.*

The difficulties in the affairs of the great insurance company known as the Equitable Life Assurance Society have now passed to the stage where they need not, in a practical sense, worry the policy-holders. There will come a time in the near future when we shall find it possible to obtain a perspective view of the Equitable's troubles as a completed episode; and we shall then hope to secure for our readers a reliable statement and review of the matter at some length. It is enough now to say that the company entered upon a new era in its history when, on June 10, the reins of authority were assumed by the Hon. Paul Morton, who has retired from the post of Secretary of the Navy in President Roosevelt's cabinet. Mr. Morton was appointed to the office of chairman of the board of trustees, with a vast range of power to improve in every way the carrying

tion had not become fully known as these pages were closed for the press. Mr. Morton, as the new president of the board, has meanwhile entered upon a sweeping examination, with the aid of able public accountants, into every phase of the company's business methods as of the date of June 10.



HON. PAUL MORTON.

on of the company's affairs. The resignations of the president and all the leading officers were placed in his hands upon his assumption of his new duties. It is not necessary at this time to take up the drastic criticisms of the management of the society contained in the report of a committee of the board of trustees headed by Mr. Henry C. Frick, of Pittsburg; nor can we now discuss the report of Mr. Hendricks, the New York State Commissioner of Insurance, for the reason that the results of his investiga-



Photograph by Davis & Sanford, N. Y.

MR. THOMAS F. RYAN.

*For the
Policy-
holders.*

It had been a crucial question what should become of the proprietary company, with a capital stock of \$100,000. The existence of this controlling company had always made the Equitable different in form from the large insurance companies which are carried on upon the full mutual plan. The Equitable had been established by the late Henry Hyde, who kept till his death a controlling number of shares of stock in the company, and whose control had passed to his son, Mr. James Hazen Hyde, who became actively associated with the business as vice-president. The most bitter phases of the controversy had arisen over the demand of Mr. Alexander, the president, and other officers that the company should be dissolved, in order that the policy-holders might be put in authority on the mutual plan.



made especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, last month, by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia.

MAYOR JOHN WEAVER, OF PHILADELPHIA.

A different result, however, has now been reached, which may prove for the time being a fairly satisfactory compromise. Mr. Hyde's controlling interest in the company, consisting of shares of stock having a nominal value of somewhat more than \$50,000, has been purchased by Mr. Thomas F. Ryan, of New York, for \$2,500,000. Mr. Ryan is prominent as one of the so-called "magnates" of the Metropolitan Street Railway system; and he, with his business associates, is about to undertake the construction of a new underground railroad system to operate in alliance with the surface lines. Mr. Ryan's purchase of the Equitable stock was at once followed by his turning it over in trust to three distinguished gentlemen,—namely, ex-

President Cleveland, Judge Morgan J. O'Brien, of the New York bench, and Mr. George Westinghouse, of Pittsburg,—this committee being authorized to vote the shares in the election of a majority of the board of trustees of the Equitable Society. It was stipulated that such trustees should be elected from the policy-holders, and wholly in the interest of those hundreds of thousands of people whose lives are insured in the society and whose interests are the only really substantial ones to be considered. It is not quite understood what benefit Mr. Ryan expects to derive from this purchase, in view of the seeming completeness with which he has divested himself of the advantages of control. The whole subject is one to which, as we have

said, it will be desirable to revert in the near future with a more thoroughgoing discussion.

The Revolution in Philadelphia. Philadelphia has reformed. It is the swiftest and most thorough municipal revolution known in American civic annals. Without an election and without primaries, without warning and without preparation, the great deep of small householders,—which is Philadelphia,—moved from below. When the work was over, Mayor Weaver, who led the revolution, had not only changed the heads of the two executive departments, with ten thousand employees, but he was in full control of City Councils; he was recognized as the head of the city Republican party organization; he had forced the city Republican committee to withdraw the local ticket already nominated and await the choice of another ticket by the reform leaders; he had begun criminal prosecution, stopped work on contracts for filtration plants, boulevards, and highways amounting to some twelve million dollars, beginning a searching investigation by a board of expert engineers, and had defeated two grabs, one a contract for seventy-five years in gas and the other a street-car grab of one hundred and ten miles of streets, sought by the two local public-service corporations, the United Gas Improvement Company and the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company. Both had been successfully passed before this revolution broke, and both were recalled, on the demand of the mayor, by the same councils that had passed them.

The Strength of the Local Machine. The coherent homogeneous vote of the myriads of small homes which make up Philadelphia has made this sweeping victory possible against great odds. The party majority in Pennsylvania and Philadelphia is the strongest in the country. The city machine is as well organized as Tammany Hall. It holds city, State, and federal patronage. For ten years it has without challenge chosen the executive officers at Harrisburg and Philadelphia and held the Legislature and Councils. The city ring, in a decade of unchecked rule, has issued \$40,000,000 of city bonds; let on the filtration plant alone \$13,660,000 of contracts; as much more on various public improvements, and had pending work authorized, but not let, costing about \$30,000,000. The criminal investigation already made indicates that on the filtration-plant contracts alone the margin of loose profit is from 28 to 30 per cent. In this period the city gas works have been leased for a term ending in 1927, on provisions which yield \$2,000,000 a year, twice the expected

profit, to the lessee, the United Gas Improvement Company. The other public-service corporation, the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company, has had a free gift of a subway and over two hundred miles of street without payment and without limitation. The combination, under an antiquated law which threw no safeguards about the ballot of a venal vote controlled by machine office-holders, of the great



Photograph by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia.

MR. ISRAEL W. DURHAM.

(The Republican ex-Boss of Philadelphia.)

corporations, railroad and public-service, and of a corrupt combination of contractors and politicians, seemed omnipotent. By the adroit use of State and city appropriations for private charities and educational institutions, the respectable were placated. The leaders of this organization were also wise enough to meet reforms non-political half-way. The last State legislature passed excellent sanitary legislation, reorganized on sound lines the city schools of Philadelphia, passed efficient child-labor laws, and at many points improved State legislation. Carefully separating political management and elected officers, the leaders of the machine chose judicial candidates usually unexceptionable, and elected as governor of the State and mayor of Philadelphia men honest, dull, highly respected, without stain, but pliant.

Corporation Influence.

In April, so far as Philadelphia was concerned, self-government seemed to have disappeared. Its charter was amended, in the teeth of universal protest, so as to rob future mayors of all powers. Senator Boies Penrose and Insurance Commissioner Israel W. Durlham made all nominations, State and city. The former awaits investigation. Durlham has been shown to be a silent and secret partner in a contracting firm holding \$13,660,000 of contracts, under city ordinances he passed, let by officers he chose, and yielding some 30 per cent. profit. In Pennsylvania and Philadelphia, the corporation pays the machine and the machine aids the corporation. It is like this in other States, but preëminently in that founded by Penn. After a long series of like gifts and franchises, councils voted the Rapid Transit Company one hundred and ten miles of streets, passed a costly boulevard system, and in return for \$25,000,000 intended for more contracts proposed to lease the city gas works for seventy-five years, postponing reduction in the price of gas for three-quarters of a century.

The Gas-Lease Agitation.

This ran the pliant fingers of the machine into the pockets of every householder who had a gas bill to pay, some two hundred and eighty thousand in number. Suddenly this great mass moved from within. The pulpit of small churches knew it before the press, the little division leaders before the ward managers, and they before the chiefs of the organization. In a week, the city seethed. Children of councilmen came crying from the public schools. No one would play with them. Callous, thick-skinned politicians found their mail, their telephones, and their daily tours one hot rain of protest from their old neighbors. Division leaders reported defection by the avalanche. The small householder, the narrow burgher, comfortable, contented, owning his house, careless over ideals, education, corruption, and venal voter, was aflame over a bigger gas bill. It is the old story of ship money and stamp taxes. No vote was necessary. No primary was needed. The leaders of a political machine are ignorant of much, but they know the voice of the voter in the land. John Weaver, the mayor, chosen by the machine, and its life-long friend and supporter, had been a fair case lawyer and district attorney. Honest, narrow, clean-lived, of a legal mind, restive at the way he was treated as a mere figurehead, he recognized the civic revolution because he was himself of the class that had risen. He had, moreover, in his day won his division and was a ward leader.

Effect on State Politics.

Backed by the vast mass of voters, he worked the revolution already outlined. There never was a better proof that the city citizen can be trusted to act when misgovernment is put in terms of his own personal experience. When it is in the terms of the experience of the expert, the publicist, the reformer, or the well-to-do, he is unmoved. When he sees, he acts. He loves material content. His ideals are low. He is ignorant. But once let him see, either by wise law or through injudicious spoliation, that evil is afoot and he smites without delay and without remedy. This sudden, swift revolution has awakened the State. The machine Quay left has had to put on its ticket for justice of the Supreme Court John Stewart, reformer and independent. The coming year will see a struggle for the Republican State organization, with the Philadelphia organization on the side of reform. Pennsylvania is on the brink of a great popular movement whose basis is no passing spasm, but the gathered protest of years.

Chicago and Glasgow.

Mr. James Dalrymple, manager of the municipally owned street-railway lines of Glasgow, who visited Chicago last month at the invitation of Mayor Dunne, pointed out important differences between traffic



MR. JAMES DALRYMPLE,
OF GLASGOW.

conditions in the two cities. In Glasgow, the population is congested within short distances of the city's center, thus making feasible the system of graded fares. In Chicago, on the other hand, long rides, with transfer privileges, for a five-cent fare are demanded. While it appears that Glasgow gives short rides for one and two cents and carries so many pas-

sengers at these low rates that the business is conducted at a profit, it is not at all clear that such a system could be made to pay in Chicago, where there is far less demand for short rides. In most American cities, the traffic conditions are similar to those in Chicago. Another suggestion from Glasgow's experience that had an element of novelty even to the advocates of municipal operation related to the powers of the manager, which are quite as autocratic as is usually the

case in private ownership. The manager is made responsible for the successful running of the road, and is given unlimited authority in the selection and dismissal of all classes of em-



MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

Mr. Dalrymple's advice to Chicago as to how to manage it.
From the Post (Washington).

ployees. Political interference is unknown in Glasgow, but, on the other hand, tenure of employment is never assured. How can the ordinary civil-service regulations of a city like Chicago be adapted to a street-railway service? is one of the questions that is now confronting Mayor Dunne and the party in Chicago which favors the immediate acquisition of the Adams Street system.

**Chicago's
Labor
War.**

Late in May, the Chicago teamsters' strike, the most serious labor disturbance that has occurred in the first half of 1905, seemed on the eve of settlement, but the refusal of the express companies to take back their drivers who had struck in violation of contract prolonged the struggle. The lumber companies discharged all drivers who refused to make deliveries to boycotted firms and corporations, and this action threatened at one time to involve the building trades in the contest, but happily the unions in those trades voted to carry out their contracts and to take no part in the strike. Another month passed with little change in the general situation. Great inconvenience was caused to business houses and in-

dividuals, and in some cases serious loss. In the meantime, the efforts of Mayor Dunne's investigating committee, headed by Dr. Graham Taylor, were balked by the refusal of the union leaders to give testimony unless all sessions of the committee were open to the public,—a course that was deemed impracticable. As it turned out, however, the purpose of the committee was virtually accomplished through the inquiry conducted by the grand jury. This resulted in disclosures of great importance in regard to charges of blackmail, bribery, and "graft" made against labor leaders and involving certain employers. The thorough investigation made by the grand jury is likely to have a wholesome effect on Chicago's industrial life.

**No Zion
in
Africa.**

Announcement of the intention on the part of the Jews in the United States to celebrate with many ceremonies, next autumn, the two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of Jewish settlement in this country comes at the same time as the report of the Zionist special committee declining to recommend the acceptance of Great Britain's Uganda colony offer. The British Government, it will be remembered, about two years ago offered the Zionist Congress an elevated tract of land two hundred miles long on the Uganda Railway, in East Africa, for Jewish colonization, the Jews to have an autonomous government under British suzerainty. This project was supported by many influential Hebrews, including the author, Mr. Israel Zangwill. The Zionist Congress sent a committee to Uganda to investigate the territory. This committee returned in March last, and it was said that while the members of the committee were impressed by the healthiness of the country they apparently were not sanguine regarding the agricultural prospects. The committee, under the leadership of Major Gibbons, an eminent explorer, now reports. It has no doubt acted wisely in declining with thanks the offer of Great Britain. It is not the natural advantages of the country to which they object. They admit these. But it is perfectly wild, without markets or any kind of civilization. It is a region for which everything is still to be done. It takes much time and men made of stern stuff to plant order, system, and civilization in such a tangled wilderness. Unfortunate Hebrews deserve a better chance. The United States of America is, after all, the real Zion of the Hebrew.



RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From May 21 to June 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

May 23.—The United States Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce closes its hearings on the railroad-rate question.... Mayor Weaver, of Philadelphia, dismisses from office the directors of public safety and of public works.

May 24.—Ohio Republicans in State convention are addressed by Secretary Taft, as temporary chairman.... The officials dismissed by Mayor Weaver, of Philadelphia, are restored to office by an injunction.

May 25.—Ohio Republicans renominate Gov. Myron T. Herrick.... Mayor Weaver, of Philadelphia, secures the reinstatement of his ejected appointees.... Charles G. Magoon takes the oath of office as governor of the Panama Canal zone.

May 26.—A mass-meeting of citizens in Philadelphia approves the course of Mayor Weaver in his fight against the machine.

May 27.—In the Philadelphia gas-lease fight, the United Gas Improvement Company formally withdraws its proposition for the seventy-five-year lease.... Governor Higgins, of New York, signs the bill extending the mayor's term of office to four years and the bill transferring the power to grant franchises from the Board of Aldermen to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

May 29.—The United States Supreme Court affirms the validity of the special franchise-tax law of New York.... Mayor Weaver's victory over the Philadelphia ring is declared complete.

May 30.—The executive committee of the Panama Canal Commission fixes an eight-hour day for labor in the canal zone.

May 31.—President Roosevelt elects Charles J. Bonaparte, of Maryland, to succeed Paul Morton as Secretary of the Navy on July 1 (see page 85).... Injunction proceedings against the new officials appointed by Mayor Weaver, of Philadelphia, are withdrawn.

June 1.—The taking of the State census is begun in New York.... The Philadelphia City Councils unanimously recall the gas-lease ordinance from Mayor Weaver and ratify his appointment of new directors of public safety and of public works.... The president of the last Arkansas Senate is arrested for alleged bribery.

June 2.—Mayor Weaver, of Philadelphia, asks for and obtains the resignations of several city officials and fills their places with citizens who are in accord with his reform policy.... Judge Grosscup, of the United States Circuit Court, refuses to continue the temporary injunction preventing the municipal authorities of Chicago from ousting the transit companies from streets where their franchises have expired.

June 3.—Governor Higgins, of New York, signs the bills designed to abolish the Raines law hotels.

June 6.—Mayor Weaver begins an inquiry into the handling of Philadelphia city funds on deposit.

June 7.—The federal grand jury at Chicago is instructed to continue its investigation of the beef trust.

June 8.—The Attorney-General decides that the eight-

hour law applies to mechanics and laborers on the Panama Canal, but not to the railroad or office force.

June 10.—Mayor Weaver removes two "organization" magistrates in Philadelphia and appoints a non-partisan board to advise him in matters pertaining to municipal business affairs.

June 15.—The connection of "Boss" Durham, of Philadelphia, with contracts involving \$21,000,000 is shown in court.

June 16.—President Roosevelt issues an order calling for sweeping reforms in the methods of conducting department business at Washington.

June 19.—The Philadelphia Republican city committee advocates a substitute ticket in the coming elections.

June 20.—President Roosevelt directs the dismissal of Herbert W. Bowen, minister to Venezuela, for circulating unfounded charges against Francis B. Loomis, Assistant Secretary of State.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

May 22.—An attempt by the opposition in the British House of Commons to force a reply to a motion of the Liberal leader causes great disorder and forces the Speaker to suspend the session.

May 23.—President Castro decrees amnesty to all Venezuelan exiles, and to political prisoners not above the grade of colonel.... The assassin of the Grand Duke Sergius is executed at Moscow.

May 24.—The treasurer of New Zealand announces a surplus of \$3,805,000 for the past financial year.... Russian Liberals establish national headquarters at Moscow.

May 25.—A manifesto of the people of Wales is issued by the Welsh national committee on education.

May 27.—King Oscar resumes the government of Sweden and Norway, vetoes the Norwegian bill for a separate consular service, and refuses to accept the resignation of the Norwegian minister.

June 3.—Gen. Cipriano Castro is reflected president of Venezuela for a term of six years.

June 4.—The Czar of Russia appoints General Trepov assistant minister of the interior, with almost unlimited power to suppress popular demonstrations.

June 5.—The Zemstvo Congress at Moscow is forbidden.

June 6.—Despite police orders, the Russian Zemstvo Congress is held in Moscow.... M. Delcassé, the French minister of foreign affairs, resigns office; Premier Rouvier assumes the foreign secretaryship in addition to his own.... Emperor William of Germany raises Chancellor von Bülow to the rank of prince.

June 13.—Premier Delyannis, of Greece, is assassinated by a gambler at the entrance to the Chamber of Deputies.

June 15.—The Czar accepts the resignation of Grand Duke Alexis of Russia.

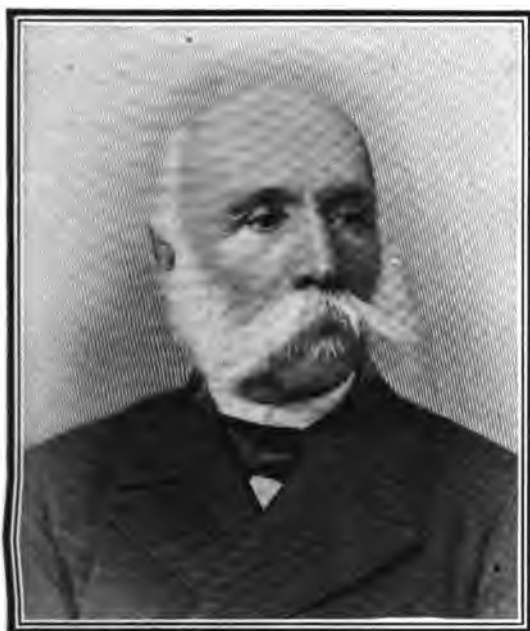
June 20.—The Spanish cabinet resigns.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

May 22.—The Hague tribunal, in the dispute between Japan and Great Britain, France, and Germany with regard to the house tax levied in Japan on the foreign concessions, decides in favor of the European governments.

May 24.—Japan accepts the decision of the Hague court with reference to the house tax.

May 27.—The Russian Council of the Empire approves the recommendations of the passport commission, including recognition of foreign passports, thus meeting the contention on discrimination against American



THE LATE THEODORE P. DELYANNIS.
(Premier of Greece.)

Jews....The Cretan Chamber passes a resolution again appealing to the powers to assent to Crete's union with Greece.

May 28.—King Victor Emmanuel of Italy inaugurates the International Conference of Agriculture at Rome.

June 1.—It is reported from Tangier that the Sultan of Morocco has rejected the scheme of reforms proposed by France.

June 2.—Servia demands of Turkey reparation for the seizure of papers at the Monastir consulate.

June 4.—The Moroccan foreign minister asks the powers for an international conference on suggested reforms.

June 5.—President Roosevelt decides that the three Russian cruisers at Manila cannot remain to repair injuries received in battle, but must depart or be interned until the end of the war....Venezuela and Colombia resume diplomatic relations.

June 6.—The Canadian members of the International Waterways Commission accept the American view,

excluding the St. John River from investigation....The King of Spain is the guest of the King of England.

June 7.—Norway, through the Storthing, declares itself separated from Sweden; King Oscar protests against the action; there is no disturbance in either country.

June 8.—Germany proposes an international conference on the Moroccan question.

June 9.—King Oscar declines to nominate a king for Norway.

June 10.—President Roosevelt's note urging Russia and Japan individually to take measures for peace is accepted by both nations....The union flag is lowered throughout Norway and the Norse tricolor substituted....The Russian rear-admiral, Enquist, notifies the American authorities at Manila that his damaged cruisers will be interned until the end of the war and the officers and men give parole....Great Britain recalls her battleships from the far East, owing to the change in the naval situation.

June 11.—Sweden declines to recognize the secession of Norway from the union.

June 13.—Russia's formal reply to President Roosevelt's note urging peace negotiations is received at Washington.

June 15.—President Roosevelt officially informs Japan and Russia that Washington has been selected as the seat of the peace conference, at the request of their respective representatives.

June 16.—The Japanese minister at Washington makes public the text of Japan's reply to President Roosevelt's note in regard to peace negotiations.

June 17.—The French premier and the German ambassador at Paris confer on the Moroccan situation.

June 19.—It is announced that France and Germany have reached an understanding on the subject of Morocco....The Norwegian Storthing adopts a reply to King Oscar's letter upholding the act of secession....The Postmaster-General of the United States signs postal treaties with Panama and Australia.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

May 27-28.—Admiral Togo completely defeats the Russian fleet under Rozhdestvenski in the Korean Straits, destroying or capturing all the Russian battleships; four of the Russian cruisers escape, three to the Philippines and one to Vladivostok; Admirals Rozhdestvenski and Nebogatov are taken prisoners, Admiral Voelkersam is killed, and Admiral Enquist escapes; 14,000 Russians go down with their ships, 3,000 are taken prisoners, and 1,000 escape; the Japanese loss is three torpedo boats and about 800 men.

June 3.—The Russian protected cruisers *Oleg*, *Aurora*, and *Jemchug* arrive at Manila, Philippine Islands, in a damaged condition.

June 16.—Field Marshal Oyama reports the occupation of several villages in Manchuria, the most severe engagement being at Liao-Yang Wo-Peng, west of the Liao River, where 5,000 Russians under General Mistchenko, with 20 guns, are driven north in confusion, suffering heavy losses.

June 20.—The Japanese under Oyama begin an enveloping movement in Manchuria; a movement upon Vladivostok is under way; Linevich reports his ability to advance.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

May 23.—The Southern Industrial Parliament opens its sessions in Washington, D. C....Miss Georgiana Bishop, the American woman golf champion, beats all records at Cromer, England, finishing the first nine holes in 36.

May 24.—The Carnegie Hero Fund Commission makes its first award....The Chicago lumber companies become involved in the teamsters' strike....The Presbyterian General Assembly appoints a committee to consider the proposed cathedral in Washington.

May 26.—The Pennsylvania Railroad's new drawbridge over the Hackensack River, near New York City, is blown up with dynamite.

May 29.—The American schooner yacht *Atlantic*, owned by Wilson Marshall and sailed by Capt. Charles Barr, wins the international yacht race from Sandy Hook to the Lizard Light for the Kaiser's Cup in 12 days and 4 hours, breaking the Atlantic record.

May 31.—The International Arbitration Conference opens its sessions at Lake Mohonk, N. Y....The Albright Art Gallery, at Buffalo, N. Y., is dedicated....An anarchist throws a bomb at the carriage in which King Alfonso and President Loubet are returning from the opera, in Paris. The occupants escape injury.

June 1.—The Lewis and Clark Exposition, at Portland, Ore., is opened.

June 2.—The report of the Frick investigating committee on the affairs of the Equitable Life Assurance Society is presented and voted down by the directors; Mr. Frick and several other directors resign after this action....A bomb is exploded in the palace of the governor-general at Barcelona, Spain, causing serious damage.

June 8.—The Pennsylvania Railroad runs a train from Pittsburg to Chicago, 468 miles, in 440 minutes....A British submarine torpedo boat is lost while being tested off Plymouth; 14 officers and men are drowned.

June 9.—Paul Morton, Secretary of the Navy, is elected chairman of the Equitable Life Assurance Society under a reorganization, and Vice-President James H. Hyde sells a majority of his stock to a syndicate of policy-holders.

June 10.—Ex-President Cleveland, Judge Morgan J. O'Brien, and George Westinghouse accept appointment as trustees of the majority of the capital stock of the Equitable Society and the principal executive officers resign; absolute power is conferred on Chairman Morton....The corporation of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology votes to accept the terms of alliance with Harvard University.



From the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE RUSSIAN FLEET.

RUSSIAN SAILOR: "Your majesty, I come to inform you that your fleet has been sunk."

THE ANGEL OF PEACE: "Please listen to me, now, and do not heed those other counselors."

June 11.—The Pennsylvania Railroad begins a regular eighteen-hour schedule between New York and Chicago.

June 12.—A Lake Shore Railroad inspection train runs from Buffalo to Chicago, 526 miles, in 470 minutes.... Mont Pelée, Martinique, is again in eruption.

June 14.—The annual reunion of Confederate veterans is held at Louisville, Ky.

June 17.—Twenty-three men are killed by a collision on the Western Maryland Railroad at Ransen, 28 miles from Baltimore.... Rioting again becomes serious in connection with the Chicago teamsters' strike.

June 18.—Five hundred lives are lost in an explosion at the Ivan Colliery, at Khartsisk.... The New York Central and Lake Shore & Michigan Southern railroads begin the running of eighteen-hour trains between New York and Chicago.

June 19.—Chairman Paul Morton, of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, orders expert accountants to make an investigation of the affairs of the society.



THE LATE WILLIAM ZIEGLER,
OF NEW YORK.

(Generous patron of arctic exploration.—See page 43.)

OBITUARY.

May 21.—Judge Albion W. Tourgee, American consul at Bordeaux, 67.... Ex-Justice Daniel Buck, of the Minnesota Supreme Court, 76.... William E. Cramer, editor-in-chief of the *Milwaukee Evening Wisconsin*, 88.

May 23.—Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, a well-known author, lecturer, and woman suffragist, 83 (see page 34).... Richard P. White, one of Philadelphia's foremost lawyers, 78.... Brig.-Gen. Alfred P. Smith, retired.... Paul Dubois, director of the School of Fine Arts at Paris, 76.

May 24.—William Ziegler, capitalist and promoter of arctic explorations, 62.... Charles Henry Webb ("John Paul"), the author, 71.

May 26.—Justice Charles H. Van Brunt, of the New York Supreme Court, Appellate Division, 69.... Baron Alphonse de Rothschild, head of the French branch of the Rothschild banking house, 78.

May 28.—Capt. F. Norton Goddard, founder of the New York Anti-Policy Society, 44.

May 29.—Rt. Rev. Alexander MacDonnell, Bishop of Alexandria, 72.... Don Francisco Silvela, former premier of Spain.

May 30.—Señor Garcia Merou, the Argentine min-

ister to Germany.... A. Okolicsanyi, the Austrian minister to The Netherlands.

May 31.—Ex-Congressman John Murray Mitchell, of New York, 47.... Ex-Mayor Michael D. Nolan, of Albany, N. Y., 72.

June 1.—Henry Charles Richards, M.P., a well-known English advocate of old-age pensions, 54.

June 2.—J. Montgomery Sears, the heaviest taxpayer of Boston, 50.

June 3.—Gen. Henry Van Ness Boynton, a well-known Washington correspondent, 70.... The Rev. Dr. Thomas Richey, dean of the General Theological Seminary, New York City, 74.

June 4.—Dr. John William Streeter, author of "The Fat of the Land," 64.

June 7.—George W. Elkins, a Pennsylvania street-car magnate and oil operator, 77.... Beriah Wilkins, owner and editor of the *Washington Post* and formerly a Representative in Congress from Ohio, 59.

June 8.—Ex-Congressman Henry F. Naphen, of Massachusetts, 58.

June 11.—Ex-Congressman George E. Seney, of Ohio.... President Ralph H. Plumb, of the Buffalo Fine Arts Academy, 57.

June 12.—Col. William Colville, who led the famous charge of the First Minnesota Regiment at the battle of Gettysburg, 75.

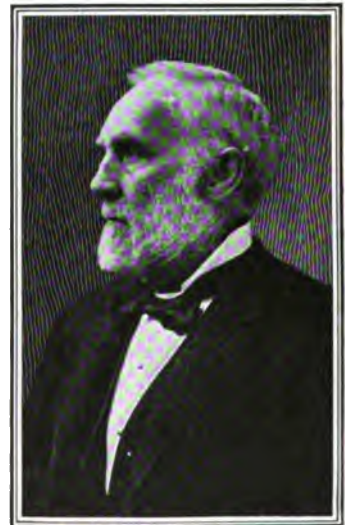
June 13.—Theodore P. Delyannis, premier of Greece, 79.... Archduke Joseph of Austria, 72.... Baron Nathaniel de Rothschild, of the Austrian branch of the firm.

June 14.—Brevet Maj.-Gen. Absalom Baird, U. S. A. (retired), 81.

June 16.—Sir John Archibald Willox, principal proprietor of the *Liverpool Courier*, 63.

June 17.—Gen. Maximo Gomez, of Cuba, 82.... Brig.-Gen. Arthur L. Wagner, General Staff, U. S. A., 52.

June 18.—William Charles Harris, an authority on fish and fishing, 75.



THE LATE WILLIAM E. CRAMER,
OF MILWAUKEE.

(The veteran editor of the *Evening Wisconsin*, active in his profession at the age of eighty-eight.)



SOME NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



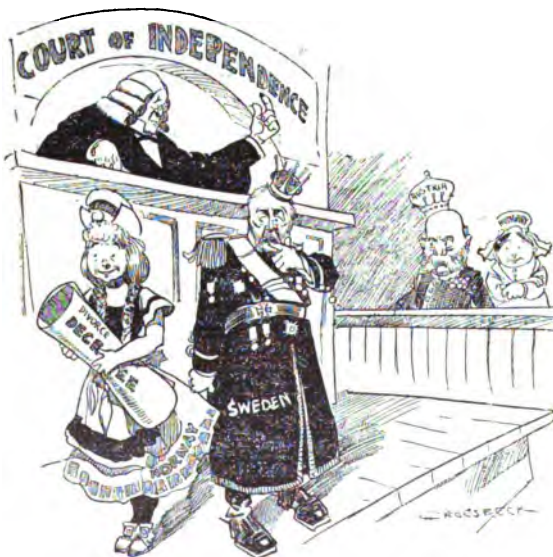
**THE MAID OF THE NORTHLAND AT THE PARTING OF THE
WAYS.**

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



LITTLE NORWAY: "They don't seem to recognize me."

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



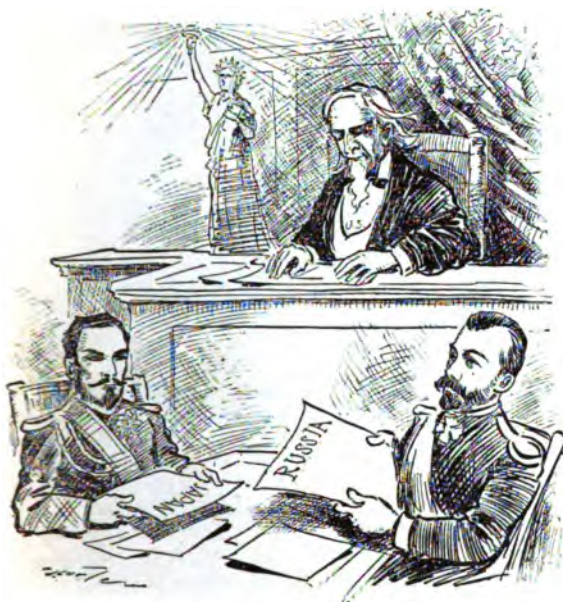
NEXT!

From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



**SWEDEN (to the powers): "Don't recognize the horrid
creature."**

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



IS THIS THE BEGINNING?

Is Uncle Sam to be the future arbitrator of the quarrels of the world?—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



IT'S THE LADY'S TURN.

From the *Herald* (Boston).



ON THE ANNIVERSARY OF WATERLOO, JUNE 18, 1905.

(Will the ancient traditional enmity of Frenchman and German be renewed over Morocco?)

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



THE WORLD AS KAISER WILHELM VIEWS IT.

(Apropos of the German Emperor's recent speech, in which he said: "We are the salt of the earth; it is all ours to inherit.")

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



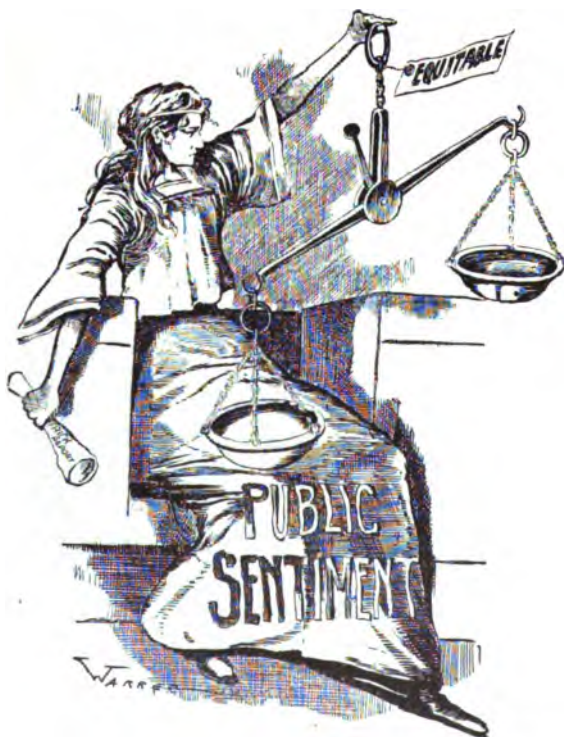
PHILADELPHIA REVIVING THE SPIRIT OF '76.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



WEEDING TIME.

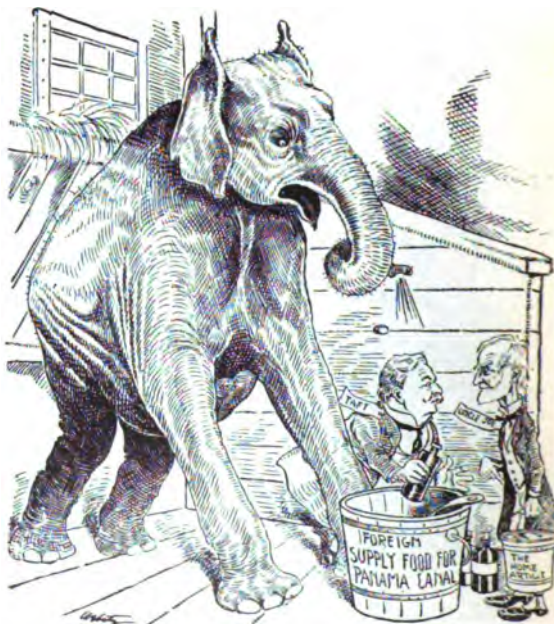
PENN (to Mayor Weaver): "By the time you get the garden well weeded I think we'll have something to show for the summer's work."

From the *Press* (Philadelphia).



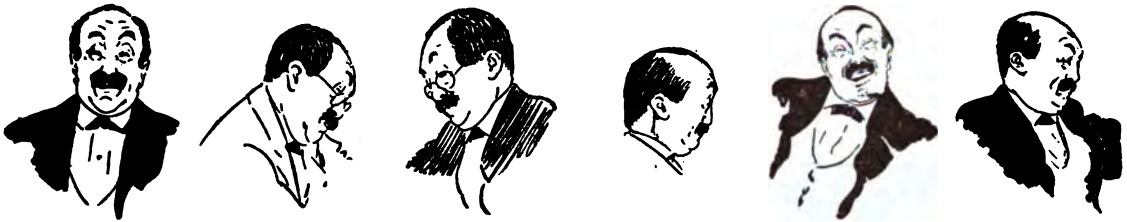
PUBLIC SENTIMENT.

"These scales don't seem to be just so. I know very little about such things, but it seems to me a little regulation might do them good."—From the *Herald* (Boston).



A LITTLE DISPUTE OVER THE ELEPHANT'S FOOD.

UNCLE JOE CANNON: "Here, you'd better take the home-made article; he never did like the other mixture."—From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



AN ILLUSTRATED INTERVIEW WITH CHARLES J. BONAPARTE.—From the *News* (Baltimore).



THE RAILROAD SPEED WAR.
"Well, go ahead; it's your move next."
From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



IT IS "ALL-EE SAME-EE!" TO JOHN CHINAMAN.
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



HATCHED.
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



A GOOD CATCH.
(Messrs. Morton and Cleveland as fishermen.)
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



THE LATE MRS. MARY A. LIVERMORE.

Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, the distinguished lecturer and woman suffragist, who died at Melrose, Mass., on May 23, at the age of eighty-three, first came into public notice during the Civil War, when her services on the Sanitary Commission and her appearance as a public speaker in aid of the cause represented by that organization attained national prominence. Mrs. Livermore had already been active for some years in the temperance movement and in religious journalism. After the close of the war she devoted herself to the cause of woman suffrage, and her marked ability as a public speaker gained her notable success on the lecture platform. Mrs. Livermore was known throughout the United States, and her death has been universally mourned as the loss of a most attractive personality.

A BONAPARTE AT THE HEAD OF THE AMERICAN NAVY.

IT is a common error of the newspapers, in mentioning the new Secretary of the Navy, —commenting on his famous name and the Gallic quality of his wit, the shrug of his shoulders, and the abundance of his gestures,—to speak of his French ancestry. Of course, as a matter of fact, there is not a drop of French blood in Charles J. Bonaparte's veins. His grandfather, Jerome Bonaparte, who married and deserted Elizabeth Patterson before he became King of Westphalia, was a Corsican of Italian descent, while the Pattersons were Scotch-Irish. The new Secretary's mother was a Down East Yankee, a woman of great force of character. During the Civil War she was aggressively for the Union, in the midst of Southern sympathizers, and her influence was doubtless more effective in molding this rigid moralist's character and guiding his political preferences than the quarter-strain of foreign kings in his blood.

Bonaparte first met Roosevelt in 1889, when the latter went to Baltimore to investigate some violations of the civil-service law. Not unnaturally, a friendship sprang up, for there is much that is alike in the two men. Bonaparte is a graduate of Harvard, as is Roosevelt. Each is the scion of a distinguished family who began life with a sufficient supply of worldly goods to enable him to choose his career with no thought save for the fun of it and the good that he might do. Both are reformers born, both took up enthusiastically the business of guarding the civil service, and Bonaparte has been connected with that cause hardly less prominently than Roosevelt himself. The grandnephew of Napoleon is a firm believer in a strong central government, federal supremacy being as dear to him as to the President of the United States. Neither is a specialist; each is noted for the variety of his interests, and the men are alike in the keen joy that each finds in political strife. There are points of difference, of course, but, speaking generally, the entrance of Bonaparte into the cabinet means an increase of Rooseveltism in the administration.

Since that first meeting, Bonaparte has been a great admirer of the President, and his admiration has not lessened in recent years. Here is his comment on the charge that Roosevelt is unsafe:

It is a doubtful compliment to call a watchdog

"safe;" for some people it were well to have him "unsafe," and the more unsafe the better. If thieves and tramps feel secure with him unchained, his owner may do wisely to obtain in his place an animal less discreet and less amiable.

There is something chivalric in his whole-souled support, for the new Secretary is much more of a Mugwump than his chief. He left his party to support Cleveland in 1884, and he has left it several times in municipal elections. He opposed the acquisition of the Philippines, declaring that the United States was not divinely appointed to colonize or Christianize heathen nations. His opposition, however, was upon grounds of expediency alone, and if the anti-imperialists scented an ally in him they were undeceived by his vigorous defense of the President's Panama policy.

A REFORMER IN POLITICS.

But it is in his own city and State that Bonaparte has won his reputation as a political factor. First of all, and by nature, he is a reformer. He does not look at life through the fabled spectacles that disclose only evil, but his gaze naturally falls on the abuse yet to be corrected rather than on the good already achieved. "It must not be supposed," he said once, speaking of the public schools, "that because I speak only of their defects I am blind to their merits. I say nothing of these because, for my present purpose, they need no mention." Usually, for his present purpose, the merits of things need no mention.

Within a year after leaving Harvard Law School, Bonaparte was attracting attention as counsel for certain defeated candidates in a contested-election case. That was in 1875, and he was then twenty-four years of age. It was his first test of strength with Senator Gorman's political machine.

"I want to get, in every precinct," said a Baltimore supervisor of elections under this régime, "the weakest and stupidest Republican it contains and put him at the window with the two brightest and sharpest Democrats I can pick out,—that's the sort of a supervisor I am."

Naturally, Mr. Bonaparte's clients had been counted out, and, quite as naturally, the judges to whom he made his appeal, being the very legislators who had profited by the frauds, gave



HON. CHARLES JEROME BONAPARTE.

him no relief. But he proved the perpetration of the frauds, and twenty years later they returned to plague their inventors.

That became Bonaparte's method. He, with

the other reformers, went down to defeat in election after election, but with every election the facts were proved, and before a growing public, if not before the courts, the criminals were convicted. One year the Republicans gained control of a branch of the City Council. Bonaparte, as counsel for an investigating committee of that branch, spread out to the gaze of all men a picture of the graft infesting the municipal government. He helped organize the Maryland Civil Service Reform Association, and interested it in a branch of the work. He was prominent as an organizer of the Baltimore Reform League, and that body became a prime factor in the cleansing movement. Severn Teackle Wallis, John K. Cowen, and Bonaparte became an oratorical trio that stumped the city and State for reform year after year, always with brilliancy, always with enthusiasm, always with failure.

HIS FIGHT FOR PURE ELECTIONS IN BALTIMORE.

In 1895, however, the times were ripe for a revolution in Maryland. An independent press had developed. The people were ready to respond to the goading of twenty years. An impassioned campaign was waged by the reformers, and in the course of it Bonaparte was unexpectedly made a supervisor of elections in Baltimore City. The board of supervisors consisted of two Democrats and one Republican. Gross abuse of power on the part of the majority had aroused a tremendous popular outcry, and the people instinctively turned to Bonaparte as the one man able to cope with the situation. The Democratic governor was reluctant to name him, but at a great public meeting thousands of citizens jumped to their feet and demanded the appointment. Then the governor complied. He probably

thought, as a less exalted official remarked, that two could outvote one and it would make little difference anyhow.

Bonaparte showed them the difference. The

election officials had all been appointed, and there was little routine work to do, but he "made things hum" for the three weeks he was in office. His first action was to move that the meetings of the board be opened to newspaper men. Two promptly outvoted one, but Bonaparte mentioned the fact and a howl went up from the press. He recommended the dismissal of certain crooked election officials. Two outvoted one, but Bonaparte showed, through the papers, how sadly immoral were the appointments. He startled his colleagues by proposing the dismissal of the board's own counsel, a tool of the ring. Two voted to retain the counsel, but Bonaparte's resolution laid bare the corrupt partisanship of the majority members. Then, on the day preceding the election, after the Democratic members had issued their perfunctory "instructions" to the election officials, Bonaparte issued some instructions of his own. He explained the law, he promised to watch for violations of it, and he supplied a vision of prison gates to intending offenders.

Exactly how much of a restraining influence Bonaparte's presence on the board exerted will never be known, but it cannot be doubted that the fact that he was there, and the implications of his instructions, held back many a weaker brother who fain would have suited the law to his own desires, but didn't dare. At any rate, the election was held, and the reform ticket was elected triumphantly in both city and State.

BALTIMORE'S FOREMOST REPUBLICAN.

In that twenty years' fight for the overthrow of the ring, Bonaparte was one of the three men most influential for good—and among Republicans the most influential of all. Yet his influence, for the most part, was an indirect one. There are Republicans of the Roosevelt type in Maryland who have done much good missionary work with party managers, to the end that creditable nominees were secured on the party tickets. Bonaparte has no genius for practical politics, and he hates a spoilsman, in his own party as in the other. He has flayed erring Democrats in many a campaign, but the most contemptuous words he ever uttered publicly were reserved for certain members of his own party who, after their advent to power in 1896, attempted to thwart some reform legislation. This has not endeared him to the organization leaders or conserved his influence with them. But in another and peculiar way he has done more than any other man to guide votes to the Republican column. Maryland, under normal conditions, is Democratic. It is the boast of that party that it contains 75 per cent. of the wealth and intelligence of the State.

The Republican party has always had to bear the reproach of being the "nigger" party. It has suffered under the accusation of having no capable leaders. Democrats have hesitated to vote for it on this account, even to escape the clutches of a vicious political gang. But Democratic votes are necessary, and herein is where Bonaparte has been a tower of strength. In him the Republicans have a man as well known outside the State as in it, a man of statesman-like caliber, a man whose Republicanism is a matter of ideas and not of offices. In culture, in family position, in everything, he stands fully in the class with the best the Democratic party can show. In giving the party status with thinking men, and in recommending it to voters of the opposite party, Mr. Bonaparte has been more valuable than any other one Republican.

AN EFFECTIVE CAMPAIGN SPEAKER.

He has also been of great use to his party as a campaign orator. He is an effective public speaker, and it is possible that Roosevelt had this in mind in inviting him into his official family circle. Those "French" mannerisms of Bonaparte's lend a peculiar piquancy to his speech, which is enhanced by the individuality of his personal appearance. Why his body sways from the hips up like rocking gear, or why his big round head wobbles from side to side like that of a child whose neck is yet too weak to bear its burden, does not appear, but they do, and his almond-shaped eyes are ever conspiring with his rosy cheeks to produce that facial contortion which is known in Baltimore as the "Bonaparte smile." He coins many epigrams, knows the worth of an illustration, and has a positive genius for unearthing happy quotations, as witness his speech of a few days ago, when, arguing against the proposed disfranchising act for Maryland, which contains a "grandfather's clause," he resurrected from Voltaire the appropriate phrase that "a good citizen needs no grandfather." And, above all, he has an unusual power of acute, direct, forceful speech. "Honest men may honestly differ," he said once, "as to protection and free trade, as to federal supremacy and State rights, as to gold currency and silver currency and paper currency, but honest men all think alike as to a free ballot and a fair count. If any man helps in, or winks at, or covers over any kind of cheating at the polls, that man is not a misinformed or misguided fellow-citizen, to be argued with and shown his error. He is a scoundrel, and should be called a scoundrel and dealt with as a scoundrel by every honest man." There can be no doubt as to the meaning of this, and it

was pertinent doctrine in Maryland at the time it was spoken. Bonaparte's power of speech has won him many triumphs, not the least of which is the tremendous, if temporary, enthusiasm of the small politicians of his own party, who love him not at other times. When this aristocrat, this grandson of a king and pattern of exclusiveness, mounts the stage and pours "hot shot" into their common enemy, the rag-and-tag element among the Republicans does not attempt to contain itself.

"Wasn't Bonaparte great?" said one heeler to another one night when that gentleman had taken occasion to say a few words for himself before introducing Mr. Roosevelt.

"Yes," answered the other, out of a full heart. "If he wasn't for civil service, I'd vote for that man for anything."

AS LANDLORD, LAWYER, AND CITIZEN.

Mr. Bonaparte is one of the largest property-owners in Maryland, and has probably got the business of landlordism systematized to a greater degree than any other. He is a large taxpayer, and the fact that he has usually been opposed to the party in power has not tended to diminish the size of his assessments. A firm of political real estate men once offered to secure marked reductions in his tax bills for 33 per cent. of the first year's savings. The interview was short, and they never approached him a second time.

As a lawyer, Mr. Bonaparte is envied for the extent of his legal knowledge by many a man with a better practice than himself. He has had many good cases in his regular practice, the latest being that of the Catholic University in connection with the Waggaman failure, but it is an undoubted fact, and one which it has often bothered his friends to explain, that he has not a practice commensurate with his learning and talents. One reason for this, doubtless, is the variety of his interests. Not only is he no specialist in any branch of the law, but the law itself can hardly be called his chief occupation, so great are the demands made upon his time by his public and charitable connections and his private estate. Doubtless, also, because of the nature of his investments, he has escaped much legal practice which otherwise might have come his way. Mr. Bonaparte is a wealthy man, but all of his money is invested in real estate or in mortgages. He has not a cent, practically, in stocks or bonds. He has no interest in any corporation or trust. A man of his ability, with money in such concerns, would naturally be called upon to represent them as their legal adviser. But Mr. Bonaparte is free from such alliances.

Mr. Bonaparte is a Catholic in religion,—the kind of Catholic who has habitually voted with the party to which the great majority of the members of his faith in his community were opposed. Personally, he is somewhat of a mystery. He has no intimates. He does not take his pleasures in the ways of ordinary men. He is a most charming host in his beautiful house in Baltimore County, but even those who know him best confess that they do not know him. There is a reserve about him which, after all, it is not unnatural to find in the grandchild of such a union as that of Betsy Patterson and Jerome Bonaparte, in the son of parents whose political views made them suspected of their neighbors during the Civil War, whose early political affiliations were with a political party composed largely of members openly hostile to his religious faith, in a man who might have inherited a throne.

AN IDEALIST OF REAL INFLUENCE.

No mere catalogue of his achievements can indicate the place Mr. Bonaparte holds in Maryland politics or the influence he exerts. Thirty years' straight thinking and right living in political affairs have bred an unfailing confidence in him so far as the primary political virtues are concerned. He has become an inspiration to young men with inclinations toward decent civic conduct. They never have any doubt as to where he will stand on any question of public morality. They know he cannot be misled by sophistries or seduced by the most subtle of bribes. In Bonaparte's long fight for reform in Maryland he has marched side by side with many volunteers. Some have had their ardor cooled by the warnings and appeals of friends, some by pressure brought to bear upon their pocketbooks. Others have capitulated to the enemy upon the gift of an office. One of the most brilliant reached a point where he had to choose between the cause of reform and the corporation which he served, and he cast his fate with the corporation. But no one has ever doubted Bonaparte. No one has ever looked to find him in the future different from what he has been in the past. Whether as a reformer ferreting out graft, as a lawyer maintaining high ethical standards among the members of his profession, as a philanthropist lending his aid to charitable endeavor, or as a publicist sounding the alarm in some question of grave concern, he has always maintained high ideals, without cant and without despair. Such a spirit will he carry with him into the Navy Department.

JOHN PAUL JONES AND OUR FIRST TRIUMPHS ON THE SEA.

BY CHARLES HENRY LINCOLN.

(Editor of the "Calendar of John Paul Jones Manuscripts in the Library of Congress.")

OF all the men who have served the United States in her time of need, possibly none is more prominent at this time than John Paul Jones. Born in Scotland, on July 6, 1747, he began his life upon the water at the age of twelve. This seaman's life he continued with slight interruptions until his death, in 1792. The first twenty years were devoted to service in commercial vessels, an excellent training for later work, and from 1775 to the close of the Revolution he was in the United States navy, although the engagement of the *Bonhomme Richard* and the *Serapis* terminated his active service. The next few years were devoted to supervising the construction of the *America* and the prosecution of his claims in Europe for prize money won during the Revolution. In 1788, he entered the Russian service, from which he retired, broken in health, after a brilliant campaign against the Turks. He died in Paris, on July 18, 1792. This is a rough outline of the life of the man whose relations to the United States we are about to consider.

The charge is made that republics are ungrateful. In the case of the United States, examples such as those of Robert Morris, the financier of the Revolution, Greene and Schuyler, eminent among America's early generals, and many less prominent soldiers are mentioned. Justice, it is said, is rarely measured to the deserving. Preble's success against the Barbary

powers in 1803-1804 was followed by his supersede in command of the American navy in the the Mediterranean. After more than one hundred years, the body of John Paul Jones, Amer-

ica's greatest naval hero of the Revolution, is being brought to "the country of his fond election." Does this recognition of his service typify, or is it, rather, in opposition to, the earlier attitudes taken by the United States?

Jones was not the founder of the American navy. This claim, to be sure, has been made for him by certain of his biographers, but let us be just rather than generous. Omitting consideration of Colonial vessels, Congress, on October 5, 1775, appointed a committee to prepare a plan for intercepting British ships. On the 13th, a committee was appointed to fit out armed vessels, and on the 30th of the same month this naval committee reported. Two additional vessels were then ordered, and before Jones received

his commission as first lieutenant a committee had been appointed to oversee the building of thirteen frigates. It is said that a marine committee was appointed by Congress on June 14, 1775, and that on the 24th this committee directed its chairman to summon Jones for advice on naval matters, but no mention of this appointment or action is given in the manuscript or printed journals of Congress. Robert Morris, the so-called chairman of this committee, was not in Congress at this time. According to



John Paul Jones

(Copied from the celebrated Guttenburg engraving.)

John Adams, Congress, four months later, was fighting over the appointment of any such committee as this. Certainly, in any other sense than that of being its first great captain, Jones was not the founder of the American navy.

HIS RECORD IN THE EARLIEST SEA FIGHTS.

Let us next consider the services of Jones to the navy. Here is a different story. His first efforts were made as first lieutenant of the *Alfred*, Capt. Dudley Saltonstall. In January, 1776, this vessel sailed from Philadelphia with no less a person than Esek Hopkins, commander-in-chief of the Continental navy, on board. The squadron, of which the *Alfred* was flagship, and which embraced nearly the whole Colonial navy, got to sea on February 17. This squadron consisted of the *Alfred*, the *Columbus*, the *Andrea-Doria*, the *Cabot*, the *Providence*, the *Hornet*, the *Wasp*, and the *Fly*,—the first named being the recon-verted *Black Prince*, of twenty-four guns. On the night of the 18th, the *Hornet* and the *Fly* separated from the squadron in a gale. A short time after, Hopkins captured New Providence, and on April 6 occurred the engagement with the *Glasgow*, the first prominent naval battle of the Revolution. According to Jones' memorandum of this battle, the *Alfred* cleared for action at 2 A.M., and shortly afterward the *Glasgow* signalled for assistance. Hopkins was unwilling to continue the action and the *Glasgow* escaped. Evidently Jones was not satisfied in regard to this engagement, for, in a letter of May 19 to Joseph Hewes, of the Continental Congress, he urged a general inquiry into the ability of the officers of the navy, although he had earlier stated that Hopkins was generally respected.

UNJUST ACTION OF THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

Following this engagement, Jones was appointed to command the *Providence*, a position which he accepted to free himself from the jurisdiction of his late commander, but soon returned to the *Alfred* as her captain. It was when in command of the *Providence* that Congress did Jones the first noteworthy injustice, and the treatment was particularly disagreeable to that officer because of the favoritism shown. As has been seen, Jones was on the *Alfred* in January, 1776, and did good service on that vessel. Appointed to the command of the *Providence* on May 10, he maintained discipline on board that ship, made several cruises, and in October was able to report to Robert Morris a list of sixteen prizes taken, sent into port, or destroyed, in addition to doing satisfactory work as a convoy. On October 10, Congress established the rank of the captains in the navy,

placing Jones No. 18, a sufficient comment on which is the memorandum in the hand of that officer on the list sent him. It runs thus: "Whereby No. 18 is superseded by 13 men, altho' their superior Merits and Abilities are at best presumptive, and not one of them was in service the 7th day of December, 1775, when No. 18 was appointed Senior Lieut. of the navy." Is it out of place at this point to ask whether this action of Congress was an impetus to further service?

Jones' next command was the *Alfred*, as mentioned. In a six weeks' cruise, from early November until the middle of December, with a short-handed crew and a somewhat refractory companion in the *Providence*, whose commander, Jones reported, disobeyed orders and "overset the expedition," the *Alfred* captured one hundred and fifty prisoners and seven vessels, one of which, the *Mellish*, was loaded with arms, ammunition, and valuable stores very useful to the Continental army under Washington during the winter of 1776-1777.

What was the reward for this exertion? By a letter from Commander-in-chief Hopkins, of January 14, Jones was informed that he was superseded in command of the *Alfred* by Capt. Elisha Hinman. Indignant Jones was, and his indignation was justifiable, but in his letter to the Marine Committee, of January 21, 1777, wherein he criticises the appointment of Hinman, he declares he will not make "difficulties about trifles" where the good of the navy is concerned. There is little doubt, however, that Jones was, as he said at the time, "in the highest degree tenacious of rank and seniority," and that he wished to be employed in the "most enterprising and active service." This letter from Jones was answered very cordially by the Marine Committee, which body, under the leadership of Robert Morris, showed an appreciation of the great captain's ability much earlier than it could induce Congress to recognize his worth. Morris proposed that Jones proceed on a private expedition against Florida or the Canadian coasts; but as Hopkins would not assist him, this proposal came to nothing.

THE "RANGER'S" SUCCESSFUL CRUISE.

After repeated search for action, Jones obtained, in June, 1777, the command of the *Ranger*, and in November sailed on the first of his famous European cruises. Meanwhile he had been aiding the Marine Committee by suggestions regarding naval construction, naval strategy, and regulations to be observed aboard ships in service, which would have demonstrated his knowledge had nothing else done so, and

which Morris had no hesitancy in declaring of great service to the committee.

The success which attended Jones' cruise on the *Bonhomme Richard* has served to draw the attention of many from the operations of the *Ranger*. We, indeed, can spend but few words upon them. The *Ranger* reached France on December 2, 1777, sailed on her famous cruise on April 10, 1778, and in less than a month was again in port, having aroused an almost inconceivable apprehension along the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland. It was not so much that she had captured a 20-gun ship,—England had lost many a larger vessel than the *Drake* before this,—it was the effrontery of an American captain, in drawing from one of her home ports and defeating a British warship, that aroused the people. When had a hostile vessel invaded the Irish Sea before this? How long had it been since an enemy had set foot on British soil? Lookouts were established, forts were erected, troops were demanded, and the populace of England were frightened as they had, not been for several generations. The British press shows this sentiment, and English vessels were prevented from landing on the frightened coasts until unmistakable proof of their nationality was furnished. Six vessels captured and a large amount of prize money were the legitimate results of this expedition, but, as Jones says in his letter of May 27 to the American Commissioners at Paris describing the whole sequence of events, "I know not where to find to-morrow's dinner for the great number of mouths that depend on me for food . . . I will ask you, gentlemen, if I have deserved all this?"

Incidentally, it may be observed that Jones paid off the crews of the *Alfred* and the *Ranger*, and, as far as the writer has been able to discover, was never reimbursed for these payments. In a letter of June 3, 1778, Jones states that he was at that time £1,500 "in advance" in his accounts with the United States, had never received wages, and, indeed, considered it eighteen months since Congress had thought of him.

THE "BONHOMME RICHARD" AND HER TRIUMPHS.

It was over a year before the next opportunity came to Jones. The *Ranger* had returned to France in May, 1778. Not until August 14, 1779, did the *Bonhomme Richard* leave the Road of Groa on the cruise that made her captain the unquestioned head of the American naval captains of his day.* The story of this cruise has been told until every schoolboy is familiar with

* Capt. Nicholas Biddle, the only rival of Jones, had been killed in the explosion of the *Randolph*, at the time of her engagement with the *Yarmouth*, March 7, 1778.

it. An adequate idea of the disappointments and difficulties under which Jones labored before he obtained this old weather-beaten vessel and a fair-sized crew will never be obtained until the correspondence of that captain with the French Court, the United States Marine Committee, and the American Commissioners at Paris has been read and digested. At best her crew lacked harmony, as, indeed, did the commissioned officers; the ship lacked proper



JOHN PAUL JONES.

(From the original bust by Houdon, in the possession of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, Philadelphia.)

armament, and any spirit of confidence in their cruise came to the men from the character of their captain more than from any or all other sources.

Neither is there room at this time to enter into an account of the character of Peter Landais. It seems undoubted that with Elijah Hall, or any of a dozen officers who might be named, not only the *Serapis* could have been captured more easily, but well-nigh the whole group of merchantmen under her convoy captured or destroyed. The opinion of Benjamin Franklin is shown in the following extract from that statesman's letter to Landais, dated March 12, 1780: "I think you, then, so imprudent, so litigious and quarrelsome a man, even with your best friends, that peace and good order . . . are, where you preside, impossible . . . If, therefore, I had twenty ships of war in my dis-

position, I should not give one of them to Captain Landais." Franklin was a good judge. The writer finds no reason to dispute his ruling. A testimony to the valor of Jones and his crew may, however, be found in the fact that Captain Pearson, of the *Serapis*,—a ship in good condition,—was knighted for his gallant defense. What, then, shall be said of the victor in this battle?

JONES HONORED BY FRANCE.

The fright produced in England by this adventure had had no parallel for years. United with the excitement caused by the loss of the *Drake*, it terrified the coast towns of Great Britain. Every unknown squadron sighted was thought to be Jones with a new fleet bent on the destruction of some port or the defeat and capture of some British ship. France saw in America a power not lacking in ability on sea as well as land, and the alliance between the two nations was strengthened. The King of France presented Jones with a sword, he was granted the Cross of Military Merit, and was offered a captain's commission in the French navy. The first two honors were accepted, but Jones refused to leave the American flag. In America the greatest enthusiasm was aroused, and Congress, after some delay, recognized the merit of the great commander. For over a year bickerings as to the command of the *Alliance* continued, and Jones was unable to secure any adequate vessel until 1781. In February of that year, Congress called upon him to answer a list of forty-seven questions regarding his conduct during the last four years, and not until February 27 was a resolution appreciating his bravery in the contest with the *Serapis* passed. In this resolution Congress declared its willingness that Jones should receive the honors conferred upon him by the French king,—a strange method, indeed, to wait for France to act before doing anything on its own initiative. On April 14, 1781, Congress thanked Jones for his services, and, finally, in June, resolutions for the construction of the ship-of-war *America* and the appointment of Jones to her command were passed. As John Adams wrote him, "The command of the *America* could not have been more judiciously bestowed."

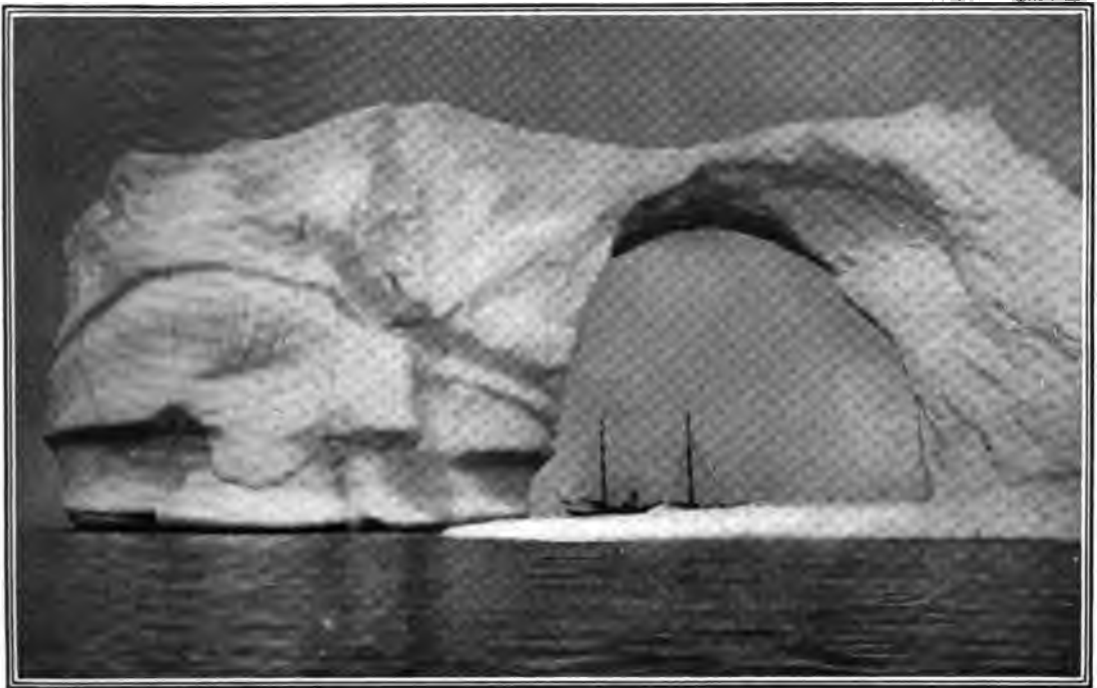
NEGLECTED BY HIS OWN GOVERNMENT.

Jones was destined never to command this vessel in active service, although overseeing her construction most carefully. In 1782, France lost a fine ship, *Le Magnifique*, in Boston Harbor,

and Congress, on September 3, resolved that the *America* be given the French king as compensation for the vessel lost. In fact, if not in name, Jones ceased his service under the American flag after his great work on the coast of Britain had been performed. What reward other than this nominal one has his country conferred upon him? In October, 1787, Congress voted Jones a gold medal, to be obtained in Europe, but to the day of his death, in 1792, his accounts with the United States were never settled. He was allowed to serve in the French navy. He served gallantly as rear-admiral for Russia in her war with the Turks, but he obtained no settlement of his just dues from the country he served most. For years his heirs secured nothing, and not until 1848 was approximate justice done. In 1834, indeed, an act was passed by Congress and approved by President Jackson, providing that a warship should be built and named for the great commander. This ship was not built at the time, and not until 1862 was Jones' name on any United States vessel. In that year a small steamer of six guns was so named. She was sold in 1867, and again, until 1898, Jones was not represented in our navy. During that year the construction of the torpedo-boat destroyer *Paul Jones* was begun, and she remains at this date in the service.

HONORS LONG DEFERRED.

Buried with great honor in Paris in 1792, fifty years passed before the movement for the reinterment of the bones of our first great sea-fighter in American soil was begun. But the movement of 1845 came to naught. A further period of sixty years passed before the honor of a burial in the land he served so faithfully was given to Jones. This delay was due to no lack of appreciation of the work of the American captain. Years passed before the location of his tomb in Paris was known. Meanwhile, biographers and historians gave him high place in their writings. Novelists used his personality to lend additional interest to their tales. With the discovery of his burial-place came the effectual sentiment for paying additional honor to America's great naval hero of the Revolution. Under the leadership of Gen. Horace Porter, American ambassador to France, whose tireless efforts had made possible the realization of the nation's wish, the movement for the reinterment of Jones' body in his own land became irresistible. Awakened and encouraged by her leaders, America does herself honor in honoring her first great naval commander, John Paul Jones.



AN ICEBERG IN THE FAR NORTH.

FOR THE CONQUEST OF THE POLE.

BY P. T. M'GRATH.

THERE is a strange fascination about the Arctic regions. Year after year, century after century, the struggle between man and nature is continued there. One country or another keeps up the fight, and slowly but surely the standards are pushed forward, each leader outstripping his predecessors; and the daring, resolute minds of many lands are attracted to this weird region of endless ice, wherein is enshrined the one great prize that now remains to reward the venturesome pioneer of geographical discovery. Meanwhile, the world waits with anxious interest for the news their ships bring home, as all too often it is a tale of tragedy and death which comes from the frozen waste. During the past century 4,000 human lives, 200 ships, and \$100,000,000 have been lost in fruitless efforts to reach the North Pole, and there may be disaster yet to chronicle before the conquest is achieved, if, indeed, it ever is. This season there will be four expeditions operating within the Arctic Circle,—Fiala's and the Duke of Orleans' in Franz-Josef Land, Amundsen's in Boothia Land, and Peary's in Greenland.

Fiala and Peary are both Americans, and American interest in the subject is naturally keenest over the men striving to plant "Old Glory" at the apex of the globe; which interest is stimulated by the fact that both stand an excellent chance of regaining for the United States the distinction of "farthest North," even if they fail in their larger aim. Lockwood, of Greely's expedition, carried the Stars and Stripes to 83° 24' north in 1882, a record not broken until 1895, when Nansen reached 86° 14' with the Norwegian colors. Cagni, of Abruzzi's party, made his way to 86° 33' in 1900, and Italy's banner now floats nearest the Pole, Peary advancing his flag to 84° 17' two years later. The United States seems destined to gain whatever laurels are to be obtained from the present season's work, and possibly the honor of again leading in the van of poleward progress.

THE WORK OF BALDWIN AND FIALA.

Fiala's expedition is really a continuation of that of Baldwin in 1901-1902. This had as its chief Evelyn B. Baldwin, previously of the

United States Signal Service, a member of Peary's expedition of 1893-1894, of Wellman's in 1898-1899, and chosen as one of Andree's ill-fated balloon party in 1900, but left behind because the car would not contain four. Its financial backer was the late William Ziegler, of Brooklyn, N. Y., a millionaire manufacturer animated with the patriotic desire to have the star-spangled banner the first to fly at the Pole, who set aside one million dollars for this purpose. The expedition was the best equipped that ever entered the Arctic Circle. Three ships were secured for it, and practically unlimited supplies,—concentrated foods, canned meats, vegetables, fruits and cereals, coffee carried in the form of lozenges, emergency rations such as armies have adopted, and even fifty tons of prepared dog food, these to be used on the great march north, when every pound in weight and every inch in space would count. The scientific equipment was complete. It included small balloons with releasing devices for depositing records when the ground was reached; buoys with records to be submerged and whirled south by the currents; electric searchlights for signaling; wireless-telegraph apparatus, and a variety of other accessories of the most modern type, besides the standard scientific instruments for meteorological,

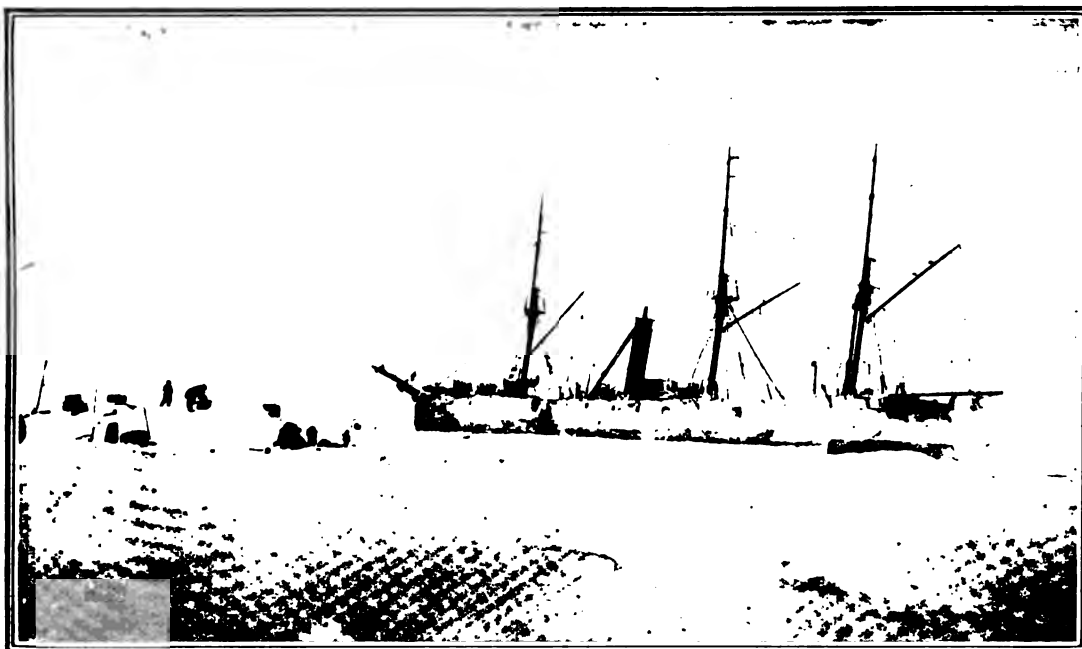
astronomical, geodetic, and other work invariably carried on in the Arctic regions.

The expeditionary steamer was the *Esquimaux*, the largest of the Newfoundland seal ships, refitted and renamed the *America*, with two Norwegian whalers, the *Frithiof* and the *Belgica*, as auxiliaries, the former as consort to the *America*, carrying extra coal and stores; the latter going to East Greenland, where she made a depot of supplies, in case the explorers should be compelled to return that way over the ice-floe. The *America* and the *Frithiof* left Tromsø, Norway, in July, 1901, for Franz-Josef Land, which Baldwin regarded as the best starting-point for a polar venture. At Archangel they got 320 Siberian dogs and 15 ponies, with 6 expert Russian drivers, thence proceeding to Alger Island, in latitude 80° 24' north, longitude 55° 52' east, where he established his winter quarters. The *Frithiof* unloaded her stores and proceeded south, leaving the *America* harbored, with the dogs and equipment ashore, portable houses erected, and the detail of duties being carried out. The personnel comprised 42 souls,—17 Americans, 6 Russians, and 19 shipmen, mostly Norwegians. Game was plentiful, and several tons of bear and walrus meat were accumulated, the former for the men and the latter for the dogs. With



AMERICAN WHALING STATION, AT CAPE HAVEN, BAFFIN ISLAND.

(Established about twenty years ago by New Bedford whalers, now the property of Potter & Wrightenton, Boston. Photograph taken by the Dominion government expedition to Hudson Bay and northward, September, 1904.)



DOMINION GOVERNMENT STEAMSHIP "NEPTUNE" IN WINTER QUARTERS, AT FULLERTON, NORTHWEST COAST OF HUDSON BAY, MARCH 1905.

(Eskimos engaged building snow-houses in the foreground. Vessel surrounded by a three-foot wall of snow.)

this base beyond the eightieth parallel, Baldwin intended to push forward with his ship, or over the ice, exploring the adjacent region for uncharted land masses which would supply stationary points insuring him against the disadvantages of an advance across the shifting ice, and from the farthest north of these he would, the next spring, make his dash across the crystal fields for the Pole. In this he would employ about twenty-five men as a vanguard and reserve, the flying column pushing rapidly ahead, and the transport train following with the heavier supplies. Numerically, the party would be strong enough to overcome otherwise serious obstacles, while the quantity of supplies to be carried by 320 dogs and 15 ponies would put the possibility of disaster almost out of the question. A team of six or eight dogs should drag a sledge with 1,200 pounds' weight 50 miles a day if the going was good.

With this elaborate programme, and the knowledge that the Duke of Abruzzi, with a much smaller party, attained a northing of $86^{\circ} 33'$, Baldwin confidently anticipated making the Pole. And, as in that segment of the Arctic Circle he might find himself, in returning, obliged by ice and currents to head for the Greenland coast, which reaches to $83^{\circ} 27'$, or 180 miles nearer the Pole than his base, he planned that

if he should be swerved westward by the tides, it would be easier to reach that shore. There he would find musk-oxen to eke out his supplies, and journey down the east coast to where the depot was made by the *Belgica* for him.

But, as often happens in polar work, Baldwin's hopes were blasted, dissensions rent his party asunder, his dogs perished by the score, and after a futile attempt to get north he and his whole party returned to Tromsø in August, 1902, while the *Frithiof*, which had sailed for Alger Island a month previous with additional outfits and for news of him, had to retreat owing to the unbroken ice-pack.

Mr. Ziegler replaced Baldwin with Anthony Fiala, of Brooklyn, who sailed from Tromsø on June 23, 1903, in the *America*, accompanied by ten Americans, and intended to practically follow out Baldwin's plans. The *Frithiof* made two attempts in 1904 to communicate with her; but failed to break through the ice-pack, and this season the *Terra Nova*, another powerful Newfoundland sealer, has been dispatched, in company with her, on a like endeavor, the *Terra Nova* going to Alger Island, and the *Frithiof* to East Greenland, so that the expedition may have a chance of rescue if at either point. Fiala's party included thirty-five, all told, of whom twelve are Americans, and it is probable one

portion will be found standing by the ship, wherever the remainder may be located.

A FRENCH EXPEDITION FROM FRANZ-JOSEF LAND.

The Duke of Orleans, doubtless fired by the achievement of the Duke of Abruzzi, has secured the *Belgica*, and proceeds north from Franz-Josef Land this summer; also, he has obtained the valuable services of Lieutenant de Gerlache, who was in charge of the Belgian Antarctic expedition of 1897-1899 in the same ship. The duke will attempt a northern passage by a new channel, though this is not unattended with danger, owing to the force with which the ice-pack is driven south by the strong currents. It was owing to this cause that the *Eira*, of Leigh Smith's expedition, was sunk off Cape Flora, and that the *Stella Polare*, the Duke of Abruzzi's vessel, was also pierced by the ice-pack. The *Belgica* is provisioned for a two-years' sojourn, as she may be caught in the floe. Her personnel includes a Norwegian crew and a party of French scientists, and, with favorable conditions, it is hoped to reach a higher northing than the Italian prince attained. The estimated distance from the Franz-Josef group to the Pole is about six hundred miles, and, with favorable conditions, the journey could be accomplished in seventy-five days.

THE MAGNETIC POLE AND THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE.

A strange expedition is that of Raold Amundsen and six other Norwegians, which started for Boothia Land, Arctic America, directly north of the extreme western side of Hudson Bay, in the summer of 1903, to seek the magnetic pole, in a small but stanch whaling sloop, the *Gjoa*, fitted with a gasoline engine, capable of driving her at a speed of five knots, as an auxiliary. Amundsen had already gained some experience as an explorer, having been a member of the Belgian south polar expedition of 1897-1899, and deliberately chose the *Gjoa* because the waterways he would have to navigate were narrow and shoal for the most part, and therefore necessitated a handy craft, which, in turn, called for a small crew. His intention was to operate in the region where for centuries men thought the northwest passage, and while the locating of the magnetic pole was his prime object, he intended to push for the geographical pole, and also for an outlet *via* Bering Strait. The latest news from this expedition was a sealed record attached to the cenotaph on Beechy Island, where Franklin wintered with the *Erebus* and the *Terror* in 1845, which was found by the Canadian expedition, in the steamer *Neptune*, on

August 15, 1904. It states that Amundsen's ship had been there on August 26, 1903, and was going through Peel Strait on its way west. Amundsen planned to spend three winters amid the ice, and it is thought possible that he may make the northwest passage and come out next summer by way of Bering Strait.

PEARY AND THE "ROOSEVELT."

Last, but not least, comes Peary, with his new ship, the *Roosevelt*, essaying another venture from the Greenland zone. There is not in Arctic history any more striking figure than that of Peary, the embodiment of the resolute, masterly American spirit now revolutionizing the world. He has spent over a decade warring with the forces of nature in that desolate solitude, and a peculiar touch of brightness is added to the otherwise gloomy picture by the fact that his courageous and devoted wife has braved its loneliness with him, enduring the terrible winters there, and seeing their baby girl draw its first breath in their far-northern home. Peary has made Greenland his theater of operations; exploration there has, by common consent, been left to him alone. Almost every summer since 1891 has seen him invade the frozen wastes on new discoveries bent. Eight long winters, too, without a glimpse of the sun for six months each time, has he labored in the land of the ice.

He is forty-eight years old, and has given his prime to this work. He has spent his own private means, and his wife has given hers; and they have both taken to the lecture platform to raise funds to help him on, while once he had to exhibit his ship in Atlantic seaports to obtain enough money to complete her stores. The United States Navy Department, in which he is a civil engineer, now ranking as commander, has granted him the leave of absence necessary to pursue his researches; but he has enjoyed no financial aid from the Government. He has had to plan his expeditions, finance them, and then carry them out. Latterly, however, some wealthy friends have undertaken the fiscal part, thus relieving him of one of the greatest worries that must vex an enthusiastic soul.

For Peary is an enthusiast, though his enthusiasm is tempered with sagacity and prudence. He feels that he can win, and is undismayed by obstacles. He has lived among the Eskimos, adapted himself to their primitive conditions, subsisted on walrus blubber and other "delicacies," and faced every discomfort the civilized being finds associated with his human antithesis. Nor is this the worst,—Peary has endured rigorous hardships, physical torture, and serious disablement. His whole Arctic career has been a

long record of gallant battles against distressing misfortune. After a flying trip to Greenland, in 1888, to test his theories, he took his first expedition north in 1891, and the steamer's wheel-chain snapping as she struck the ice, the end broke his leg. He was landed on a stretcher, camped in a tent, supervised the building of a house, allowed the leg to knit during the winter, and the next spring, with only one companion, and without accident, made a 1,300-mile journey over the ice-cap that covers Greenland, reaching its farthest coast-line, the first white man to view its northern extremity. In 1893, he took up a larger expedition to follow the same route and continue on toward the Pole. That autumn the Peary baby was born in their hut, on the west Greenland shore. The ensuing spring the northward march was begun, but frightful storms beset them from the start, and they had to retreat, after struggling against the weather for two weeks. Some of the party were frosted and others dispirited, returning by the relief ship that summer; but Peary, Lee, and Henson resolved to make another attempt. This they did early in 1895, and succeeded in the journey across the ice-cap; but from lack of food could go no farther, for starvation had them at death's door. They escaped by eating their dogs; out of forty with which they left they brought back only one.

In 1896, Peary tried to carry to New York the great meteorite at Cape York, the largest in the world; but his ship was forced away from



Photograph by Boyce, Washington.

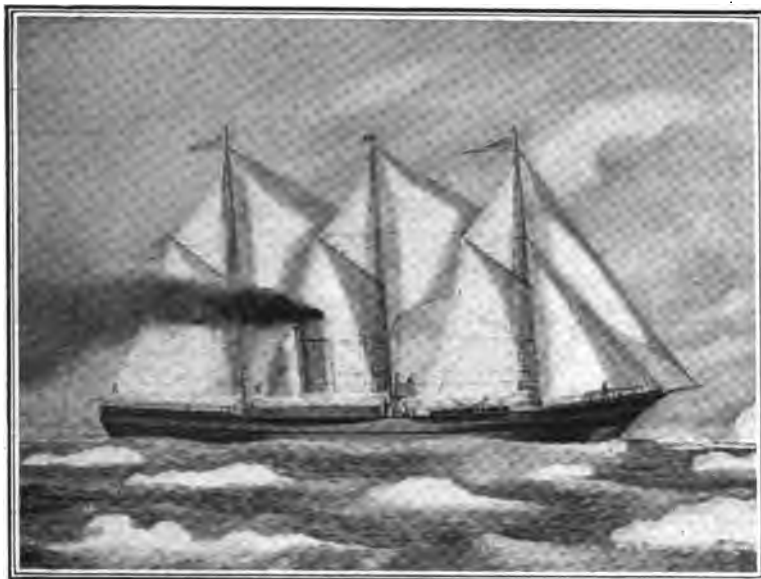
COMMANDER ROBERT E. PEARY, U.S.N.

the Greenland coast by ice and storm. He tried again in 1897, and this time succeeded. In

1898, he began a new siege of the Pole, and in a long and toilsome march, was caught by a blizzard and held helpless for two days and nights. The little group killed a dog and ate it; but Peary's feet had become frosted, and Dr. Dedrick, then of his force, had to amputate seven toes. To do this even roughly they were forced to shelter in Greeley's deserted station, Fort Conger, Lady Franklin Bay, and there the invalid lay helpless for six weeks. Then he had to be dragged south for 250 miles on a sledge, with the temperature 50° below zero, to his ship, the *Windward*, for the operation to be perfected, as the surgeon had no proper instruments north. This involved another six weeks' illness,



ANNIVERSARY LODGE, PEARY'S ARCTIC HOME.



THE "ROOSEVELT," PEARY'S NEW ARCTIC SHIP.

and spoiled an advance toward the Pole in 1899. But in 1900 Peary was well enough to start again, and this time journeyed to the very northernmost tip of Greenland, in $83^{\circ} 27'$, whence he ventured on the floe and headed for the Pole. He reached $83^{\circ} 50'$, where the ice was found too open for safety, so he had to fall back again. He utilized the reverse to delimit the whole northern coast-line of Greenland. In 1901, an advance over the same route being useless, he started for Cape Hecla, the farthest point in Grinnell Land, west of Greenland, and took his departure therefrom. But the fates were still unpropitious. The season was an unusually open one, and he had once more to retire baffled.

In 1902, he, Henson, and eight or ten Eskimos tried this trip again. He had sixty dogs for his sledges, and eighty tons of walrus meat for the canines, besides ample stores of food for the humans. The party hurried forward, sending back the Eskimos one after another as the stores were exhausted, until Peary and Henson—the white—and the black American were left to make the last stage of the journey alone. In that journey Peary and Henson made their way as far as $84^{\circ} 17'$ north latitude, northwest of Cape Hecla, the farthest point of Grinnell Land, beyond which an advance was found to be impossible, and the idea of further progress had to be reluctantly abandoned. Peary planned to be 60 days on this journey, 40 in advancing and 20 in returning; but it occupied only 29 in all. Peary then made his way south to Cape Sabine, where a relief ship met him in August and

conveyed him back to New York.

His present expedition, which will be his seventh, is being made in a large and powerful steamer—the *Roosevelt*—specially constructed for him the past winter at Bucksport, Maine. In her he expects, if favored with an open season, to reach a point near the Polar Ocean itself, or 400 miles farther north than he usually gets by vessel. Four pole-seeking vessels have already reached that vicinity, though none of them was in any way as well fitted for the task as the *Roosevelt*. On her he will transport north a tribe of Eskimos, among whom he has worked for twelve years, and with the picked men of the

tribe, each driving a dog team, he proposes, next February, to make a dash for the Pole, dropping team after team to return as its stores are exhausted, and meeting these again on his backward journey as they come toward him with renewed supplies of provisions. A feature of the present expedition is that he has the ship fitted with Marconi's wireless telegraphy, and hopes to be able to communicate with New York by its agency, an innovation which, if successful, will enable the world to learn of his movements from day to day.

That Peary stands a splendid chance of making a new record is admitted by all students of polar research, for he enjoys the advantage of the aid of the Eskimos, the best dog-drivers and the finest travelers on the frozen Polar Ocean. However, Fiala's expedition may have accomplished some substantial work the past two years, and got nearer to the Pole than any predecessor; but if not, Peary will probably be able to report "farthest North" when he returns, in a year or two. He has leave of absence for three years, and should he not be able to get as far up toward the polar basin this season as he hopes, he will wait where he reaches for another twelve months, and then try again. By attaining the nothing he hopes for, he will be spared the long journey of 400 miles along the coast he has previously had to make to reach the uttermost point of land, and thence dash across the floe, and it is obvious that every mile nearer the Pole he gets his ship the shorter will be the journey on foot which he must make to achieve a new record.

ARGENTINA: THE WONDERLAND OF SOUTH AMERICA.

BY JOHN BARRETT.

(Formerly American minister to Argentina and to Panama, now minister to Colombia.)

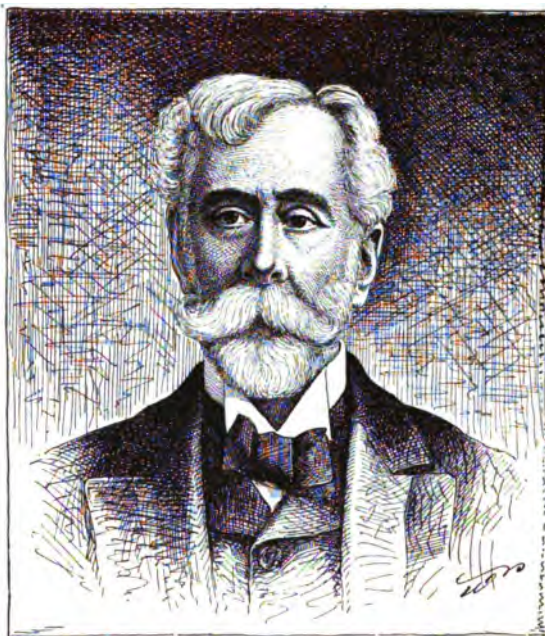
AT this time, when there is so much discussion of South American countries and affairs, it may be of particular interest to take a passing glance at the great republic of Argentina. I say "great" advisedly and in no sense of flattery or exaggeration. It deserves this description in many respects.

Argentina is so far away to the south of the United States and so apart from the regulation routes of North American travel that only a minimum percentage of our people realize that in the southern end of the western hemisphere there is a nation of such size, resources, possibilities, and progress that it is entitled to the attention and respect of the world. I would that it were in my power to divert a small part of our travelers for pleasure and observation from Europe and Asia to South America, and particularly to Argentina, Chile, and southern Brazil. A diversion of study and investigation of this kind would exert a mighty influence in educating the North American people to a realization of the fact that we should devote more time and energy to making the intimate acquaintance of our Latin neighbors. It would demonstrate how ignorant many of us are of what Latin America can do and is doing under favorable conditions of temperate climate and national wealth. It might teach some critics of Spanish America to remove the "beams" from their own eyes before they point out the "motes" in those of their southern neighbors.

The marvelous material, economic, educational, and social development of North America has blinded the eyes of a goodly proportion of its citizens to an appreciation of what is going on beyond its borders. They often rant about European interest in South America and European effort to surpass us in the competition for South American trade and friendship without remembering that European nations, merchants, and travelers know far more about South America than we do and expend treble our effort to build up closer relations of commerce and comity.

ARGENTINA'S VAST COMMERCE.

A summarized statement of some facts about Argentina confirm these premises and conclu-



PRESIDENT MANUEL QUINTANA, OF ARGENTINA.

sions. The Argentine Republic, as it is commonly called, is to-day one of the most prosperous and progressive countries. Its foreign commerce for 1904 reached the immense total of \$451,463,000 in gold. This was greater than that of any other Latin nation, not excepting Mexico and Brazil. It exceeded the foreign trade of Japan, of whose marvelous progress we now hear so much, and it went far beyond that of China, concerning which there is general discussion. In other words, Argentina, with only 5,000,000 people, showed a buying and selling capacity in excess of Japan with 40,000,000 people, and China with 400,000,000! My comparison is no reflection on these latter countries, and I have always been an earnest advocate of the importance of our commercial and political interests in the far East, but these should not overshadow or hide what we have at stake in South America.

That Argentina is moving ahead with prover-

bial leaps and bounds is proved by the fact that her foreign commerce, the best thermometer of a country's prosperity, increased \$90,000,000 in 1904 over the total for 1903, which was \$360,000,000. Estimating her population, as before



SEÑOR EPIFANIO PORTELA.
(Argentine minister to the United States.)

stated, at 5,000,000, she has in the present total of \$451,463,000 the remarkable average of nearly \$90 per head, or a far greater average than the United States or any of the principal European countries. If this lusty young giant of South America keeps progressing at this rate, it will be difficult to estimate her trade and wealth when she has a population of 25,000,000. Unfortunately for the United States, our trade exchange with Argentina ranks fourth among foreign countries, or after Great Britain, Germany, and France.

THE GOLDEN EGG OF TRADE.

This sad story is told in these figures: Total exports and imports exchanged with Great Britain, \$100,962,000; with Germany, \$54,448,000; with France, \$47,705,000; with the United States, \$34,687,000. It might be said that there is an element of satisfaction in these returns, in that Argentina bought twenty-four

million dollars' worth from us, while we purchased only ten million dollars' worth from her, but that is a selfish view.

If the United States would negotiate a new commercial treaty with Argentina, giving her some advantages that could not seriously injure our home industries, she would not only sell far more to us, but buy from us in still greater proportion. We cannot expect to kill the goose that lays the golden egg and hope to find it still laying more eggs in our big basket of foreign trade, upon which we depend so much to provide markets for our surplus agricultural and manufacturing products. Argentina sincerely asks us to practice the golden rule, which works both ways! The present rule is not golden, at least for her in custom-house figures, although it must be admitted that North American agricultural implements and other machinery have been powerful agencies for the development of her rich lands and resources.

HER GREAT AREA AND TEMPERATE CLIMATE.

The immense area of Argentina can be easily appreciated by remembering that if a line were drawn from the Canadian border to the Gulf of Mexico just west of the first tier of States on

the Pacific side of the Mississippi, Argentina would equal all the country to the east thereof. It covers, approximately, 1,200,000 sq. miles, of which a larger proportion is adapted to the homes of a progressive race than the corresponding territory in the United States. A most important fact, however, that too often is unappreciated in the northern hemisphere, where the south and South America are usually syn-



SEÑOR CARLOS E. ZAVALIA.

(First secretary of the Argentine legation at Washington, and for six months, prior to the arrival of Señor Portela, *chargé d'affaires*.)

onymous with heat, is that Argentina is located almost entirely in the temperate zone, and is distinctly a "white man's" country in the usual

acceptance of that term. It reaches from 22° south (like Cuba, north of the Equator) to 55° south (like Montreal, north), and has every variety of climate known to the United States without such sudden or radical changes. It extends from 55° west to 70° west. The greatest length is nearly 2,000 miles,—equal to the distance from Mexico to Hudson's Bay; its greatest width is about 900 miles, but it narrows or tapers down in the Patagonian end in contrast to its broad reach in the north, between Brazil and Chile.

THE OLD AND NEW PATAGONIA.

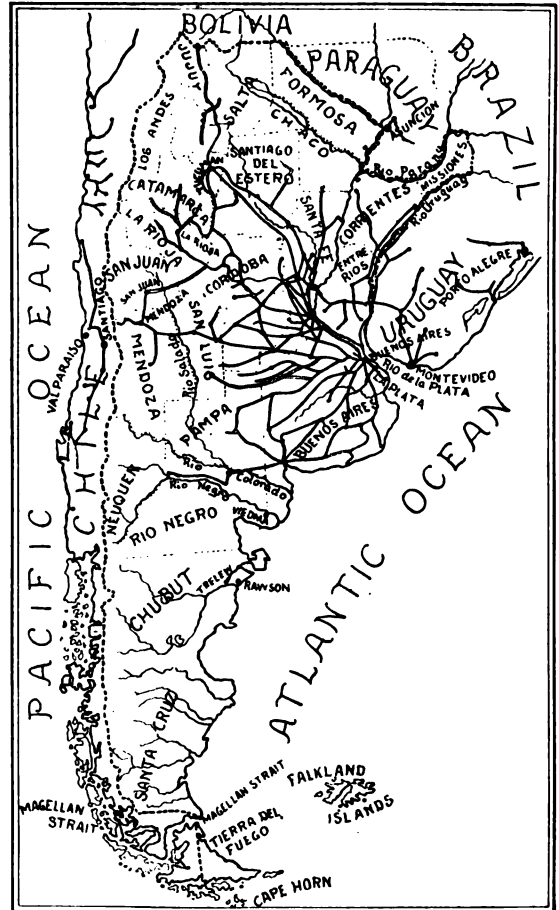
This reference to Patagonia leads me to emphasize the fact that the Patagonia of my boyhood school days is not the Patagonia of to-day. Then it was a *terra incognita*, a synonym for everything that is remote, wild, and impossible of access. Now it is divided into territories like those of certain portions of the United States, railways are making it accessible, cattle are grazing over its pampas, settlers are popu-



OFFICE BUILDING (IN BUENOS AYRES) OF ONE OF THE ARGENTINE RAILWAY SYSTEMS.

(The Argentine metropolis is a great railway center.)

lating its valleys, and miners are hunting for the riches of its mountains. There are yet large sections of Patagonia that are practically a wilderness, and much of it is arid and forbidding, but its gradual development is not unlike that which has characterized Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona. When irrigation is applied on an extensive scale to Patagonia, and the iron trail conquers its plains and uplands, it may become as populous and rich as many of our States of the Great Divide.



MAP OF ARGENTINA, SHOWING RAILWAY SYSTEMS RADIATING FROM BUENOS AYRES.

THE NETWORK OF RAILWAYS.

Argentina boasts of splendid railway facilities. It has now nearly 20,000 miles of trunk lines. Numerous new roads, branch routes, and feeders are being constructed or planned. It is possible to reach almost every portion of its wide area within forty-eight hours of the capital, the great city of Buenos Ayres. The rolling stock is built in North American style. Capacious and comfortable coaches and sleeping-cars carry passengers to all points. The stations in the big cities compare favorably with those in similar towns of the United States.

The transcontinental trains that convey travelers across the broad pampas and climb the Andes to connect with the road on the Chilean side are solid and vestibuled, with up-to-date dining-cars. The tourist or business man can now go from Buenos Ayres, on the Atlantic, to Santiago in Chile and Valparaiso, on the Pacific, in seventy-



RESIDENCE OF A WEALTHY ARGENTINE GENTLEMAN IN THE FASHIONABLE SECTION OF THE CITY OF BUENOS AYRES. COST, \$1,000,000.

two hours. There is a break in surmounting the summit at 15,000 feet elevation, between rail-heads, but that is crossed in a few hours either in a coach or on horseback. The scenery is so grand and impressive that any discomforts are entirely forgotten. In a few years a tunnel will be completed at the expense of the Chilean Government through the Cordillera, and then the globe-trotter can step into his palace-car at Buenos Ayres and not leave it until he reaches Santiago, the gay and interesting capital of progressive Chile.

The building of this network of railways over Argentina has had two excellent effects,—one, to make successful revolutions almost impossible,

as the government can send troops without delay to any point; and the other, to provide shipping facilities for the products of every section. Electric lines have been constructed in the principal cities, and these are being extended into the country districts. The major portion of Argentina is one vast plain, which renders railway construction easy and economical. It is also drained by the great River Plate system, with its navigable rivers reaching far into the interior and furnishing additional facilities of transportation.

ESTANCIA LIFE IN ARGENTINA.

This fair land of the south has a remarkable development of country life that surprises Americans. A considerable portion of the agricultural and grazing area of the republic is cut up into immense estancias, or ranches, owned mostly by wealthy Argentines, who reside in Buenos Ayres during the winter and upon the farms in summer. Some of these estancias include within their limits 300 square miles, while those of 20 and 40 square miles are common. The stranger at first stands aghast when his host, a wealthy *estanciero*, calmly tells him that he has grazing upon his broad pampas 60,000 sheep, 40,000 cattle, and 10,000 horses! Again, when the hospitable owner takes him for a little morning gallop to one corner of his farm, and he finds that to reach that corner he must ride hard for five or six hours from the house, which is usually located at the center of the estancia, he begins to realize what farming means in Argentina.

The hospitality dispensed at these estancias



"CAMP," OR GRAZING COUNTRY, IN ARGENTINA.



THE ESTANCIA, OR HACIENDA, OF A RICH ARGENTINE GENTLEMAN, SHOWING CHARACTER OF LAND AND BUILDINGS.

makes life on them fascinating to the visitor. The house is usually roomy, cool, and comfortable, and situated in a picturesque spot where trees, flowers, and fruits abound. As Argentine men do not believe in race suicide, and as their families usually contain several beautiful daughters, there is always abundant social enjoyment for the male guests. There are also handsome sons, who carefully entertain any visitors of the fairer sex. A man could travel overland horseback for a thousand miles in Argentina and never get beyond the pale of these attractive homes of the pampas.

THE METROPOLIS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Having taken a trip into the interior, let us now have a passing view of Buenos Ayres. Here is a city of 1,000,000 people, nearly 2,000 miles south of the Equator and 5,000 miles south of New York, that is growing faster than any city of the United States except New York and Chicago, and can compare favorably with the European capitals in general appearance. It is often called the Paris of South America, and it is certainly different from all other South American cities in its size, prosperity, activity, and attractiveness.

It has magnificent public buildings, imposing business structures, palatial clubs, stately residences, spacious hotels, elegant opera-houses and theaters, broad boulevards, beautiful parks, excellent schools, libraries, and museums, and handsome churches. It can pride itself on its electric street-car system, its well lighted and paved streets, its telephone and electric-light facilities, and its water and sewerage works. These, indeed, are not perfect, but I know of no munici-

pality in the United States that has as good an average as Buenos Ayres in these respects. The city government impresses the visitor as most efficient, and the police force seems well trained. I saw less drunkenness, disorder, and confusion on the streets of this great capital than I have frequently noticed in New York, Chicago, and St. Louis.

I must pause here to commend the press of Buenos Ayres. The principal newspapers would be a credit to our leading cities, and are far ahead



A TYPE OF THE NEW HOTELS IN BUENOS AYRES.



BUILDING OF "LA PRENSA," THE GREAT DAILY NEWSPAPER OF SOUTH AMERICA.
COSTING, FULLY EQUIPPED, \$5,000,000.

in both enterprise and appearance of the average European journals. *La Prensa*, *La Nacion*, and *El Diario* are great dailies of large circulation and powerful political influence. The home of *La Prensa* is the most complete and costly newspaper building in the world, used exclusively by the paper. It cost \$3,000,000. The *Standard* and the *Herald* are printed in English, and ably voice English interests. *Curas y Caretas* and *Gladiator* are clever illustrated weeklies.

A NEW RACE OF MEN AND WOMEN.

I am often asked about the characteristics of the people of Argentina. Although it might be assumed that I would speak with favorable consideration because of my experience there as American minister, I want to say in all candor that I believe Argentina is becoming the home

of a new, forceful, energetic, and ambitious race. In other words, it would seem as if the blending of the original Spanish blood with that of the other Latin races, like the Italians and the French, together with an intermingling of English, Irish, and German strains, in a wonderful climate and in a new country, was evolving a people with the best characteristics of all these. The men average large of physique, quick of action, and clever of mind. The women are graceful, bright, and possessed of a remarkable fineness of manner and spirit, and they hold into maturity their early beauty like the women of the northern temperate zone. In these descriptions I refer to the higher grades; the so-called lower classes are uniformly healthy and vigorous, with average mentality.

The statistics of 1903 showed 1,000,000 foreigners in Argentina in a total of 5,000,000. Of these 500,000 were Italians, 200,000 Spaniards, 100,000 French, 25,000 English, 18,000 Germans, 15,000 Swiss, 13,000 Austrians, and the remainder of many nationalities. The number of Americans

did not exceed 1,500, although many are coming now to go into cattle-raising and farming in the country or into all kinds of business in Buenos Ayres. English influence is very strong, especially in financial circles, with the Germans almost equally active. The Spanish language is spoken everywhere, but English is being heard more and more. These cosmopolitan characteristics make the social life of Buenos Ayres particularly interesting. Each nationality has its own club, except that, of course, the Americans join with the English, as in other parts of the world when they are away from their home countries. The total population of 5,000,000 seems small, but that is due to the former isolation of Argentina. The growth of immigration in the future will be large if the government enacts favorable laws.

ARTICLES EXPORTED AND IMPORTED.

Correspondents in the United States were always asking me what are the main products or sources of wealth of Argentina. Her chief exports are wheat, frozen beef and mutton, corn (or maize), hides and skins, wool, live stock, linseed, hay, quebracho wood (for dyes and tanning), flour, bran, tallow, bones, sugar, jerked beef, and butter. The value of these in 1904 was nearly \$190,000,000.

The principal imports include all kinds of European and American manufactured products, as manufacturing is yet in the infancy of its development. Among these are every variety of cloth goods, cottons, woolens, silks, together with machinery and agricultural implements, iron and steel, metals, glass and stoneware, paper, chemicals and drugs, oils and paints, leather, tobacco and liquors, furniture and wooden manufactures, tinned food products, etc., amounting in value last year to nearly \$265,000,000, of which the share of the United States is only \$25,000,000. Mines and mining in the Andes are also now attracting much capital, and promise well for the future.

GOVERNMENT AND STATESMANSHIP.

The government of Argentina is not unlike ours. The constitution is modeled on that of the United States, with some changes that are decided improvements. For instance, the Presi-



THE "WALL STREET" OF BUENOS AYRES.

(On the four corners are four banks, whose aggregate capital is greater than that of any four in New York City.)

dent is elected for six years, and is not eligible for successive reelection. That high position is now held by Dr. Quintana, one of the ablest

lawyers in Latin America. He is a personal argument against the Osler theory, being nearly seventy years of age, but as vigorous in mind and body as many of his younger associates. He was preceded by General Roca, whose strong administration did much for the prosperity and progress of the republic. Two ex-presidents are still living,—Gen. Bartolomé Mitre, the "Grand Old Man" of Argentina, and Dr. Carlos Pellegrini, who ranks as one of the foremost statesmen and orators of South America. He recently visited the United States.

There is a Senate and House of Deputies, elected practically on the same plan as Senators and Representatives in the United States. Argentina has fourteen



AVENIDA DE MAYO.

(The principal avenue and boulevard in the business section of Buenos Ayres.)

states, or provinces, and ten territories. The members of the president's cabinet are not members of Congress and cannot vote, but they can appear on the floor and present their policies and measures. Buenos Ayres is a capital district, like Washington, but it has full representation in both houses of Congress, and therefore possesses a distinct advantage over the North American capital in advancing and protecting its own interests. Congress regularly meets from May to September, or during the winter months, the seasons being reversed south of the Equator.

Although Argentina has recently been undergoing a legal "state of siege," declared by President Quintana in accordance with the powers of the constitution, in order to check sporadic efforts at revolution, public sentiment and all the influence of the recent great financial and economic progress of the nation is against such uprisings and methods. There has been no successful revolution in Argentina for some fifteen years. There may come others,—in fact, I dare not prophesy on this point, remembering that a few months after I visited Paraguay, and just before I was transferred to Panama, a revolution broke out there despite the assurances of everybody I met that the day of such troubles was forever over,—but Argentina certainly deserves permanent tranquillity.

HOW TO GO TO ARGENTINA.

Few North Americans know how to reach Buenos Ayres, and it is almost to the shame of our vaunted enterprise that there is no first-



GENERAL DON BARTOLOMÉ MITRE.
(Ex-president of Argentina. Age, eighty years.)

class passenger and fast express line of steamers running between the United States and Argentina. In contrast to this, there are six or seven companies with big, fast vessels plying between Buenos Ayres and the principal European ports.

The average traveler finds it not only necessary but far more comfortable to go from New York to Buenos Ayres *via* Southampton, Cherbourg or Marseilles, or Genoa, than direct to Buenos Ayres on slow-going, uncomfortable freight and cattle ships. There is one fair monthly passenger line from New York to Rio Janeiro, but the latter port is its terminus. Connections can, however, be made there with the European lines *en route* to and from Buenos Ayres. I would advise the average traveler to go *via* Southampton or Cherbourg. The port and docks at Buenos Ayres, where one lands, are among the finest in the world.



PALACE OF JUSTICE IN ROSARIO, THE CHICAGO, OR SECOND CITY, OF ARGENTINA.



A VIEW OF THE HARBOR AND DOCKS, BUENOS AYRES, COSTING \$25,000,000 TO CONSTRUCT.

Excellent hotels provide for the comfort of visitors.

In conclusion, I wish to epitomize some of the foregoing facts to be remembered by the passing reader: Argentina is as large as half of the United States proper, and covers 1,200,000 square miles; it has a growing population of only 5,000,000, but an annual foreign trade of \$450,000,000, or \$90 per head; it is located in the south temperate zone, and is a "white man's country;" it is a great agricultural land, and

its products are similar to those of the United States; it possesses extraordinary mining possibilities in the Andes; it has a seaboard, indented with many harbors on the Atlantic, of fifteen hundred miles, and is drained by the extensive navigable River Plate system; it is gridironed with up-to-date railroads; its government and constitution are similar to those of the United States. Buenos Ayres, the capital, has a population of one million, and is one of the most beautiful and prosperous cities in the world.



CADETS OF THE MILITARY SCHOOL AT SAN MARTIN, ARGENTINA.

HOW NIAGARA IS "HARNESSED."

THE POWER DEVELOPMENT NOW IN PROGRESS ON THE CANADIAN SIDE.

BY TRUMAN A. DE WEESE.

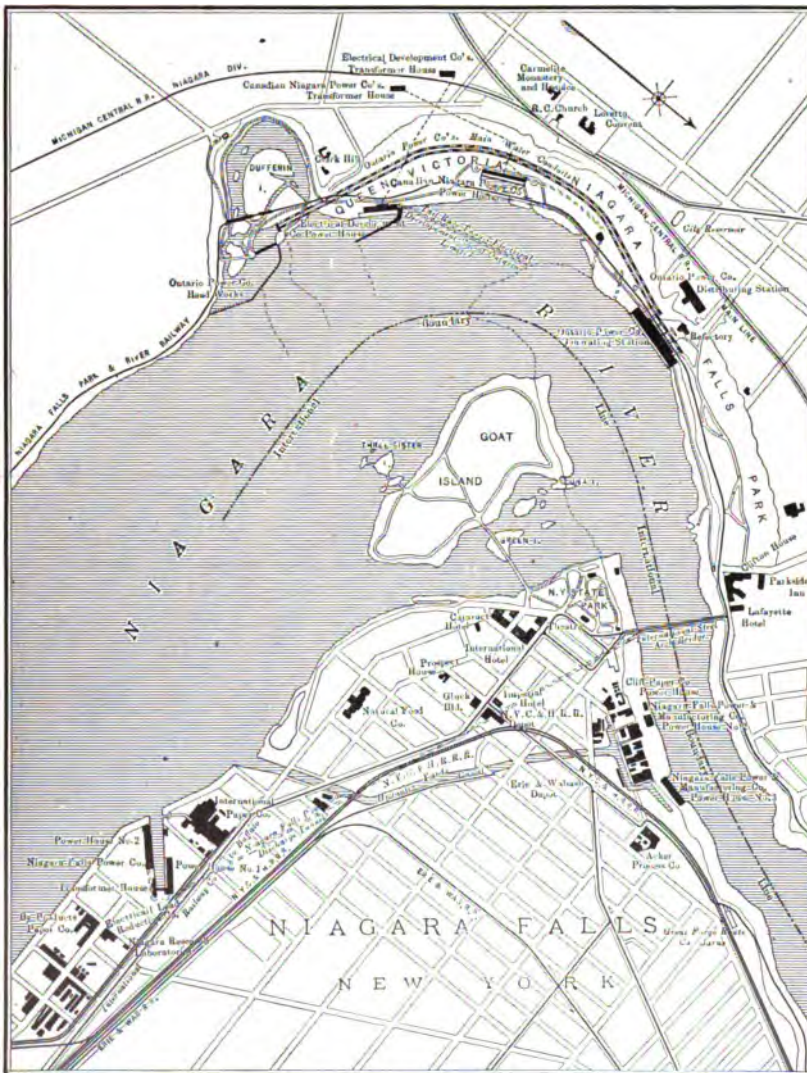
THE air is tremulous with exploding dynamite and the ground about Niagara Falls pulsates with a network of tunnels, conduits, and electric cables. The hand of the engineer

is piercing and splitting the thick armor of stone with which Nature sought to protect the Niagara region. Deep into the layers of limestone and shale the engineer is sinking his cavernous

shafts, and under the river he is boring great tunnels to carry away the waters of the upper Niagara. The thunder of bursting bombs and the sound of the rapid-fire rock-drill tell day and night of the work of the engineering artillery.

The bridal couples that come here now must put cotton in their ears. Niagara Falls is the Mecca of engineers and electricians. Here unique engineering problems are being solved in a brilliant and daring way. The scenic grandeur of the great cataract itself is being overshadowed by the stupendous hydro-electric engineering projects which excite popular amazement and curiosity.

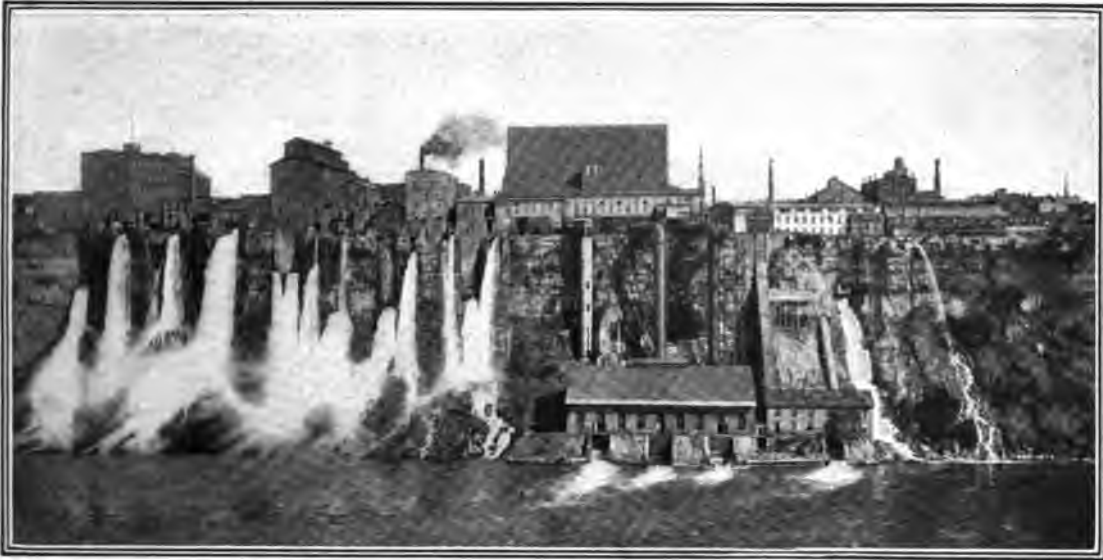
"Where are the wheels?" exclaimed the pilgrim from Kansas as he gazed upon the Niagara cataract for the first time. True to the traditions of his State, he did not permit the bewildering roar or the blinding mist of the torrent of rushing waters to deter him from trying to trace the outlines of the mammoth paddle-wheels that were supposed to be turning



From the *Engineering Magazine*.

MAP SHOWING ELECTRIC-POWER DEVELOPMENTS AT NIAGARA FALLS.

(Scale, approximately, 2 inches to 1 mile.)



A VIEW BELOW FIRST STEEL ARCH BRIDGE, SHOWING EFFECTS OF EARLIEST POWER DEVELOPMENT ON NIAGARA RIVER.

the shafts of great factories, lighting the streets and homes of cities, and propelling the cars of great urban and interurban traction systems.

The traveler from Kansas was not alone in his quest for "the wheels." Many who visit the falls are surprised to find that the natural beauty of the cataract is not marred by the presence of hundreds of paddle-wheels protruding here and there in the splashing waters.

The resources of vivid and imaginative descriptive writers have been taxed to convey some idea of the tremendous power that is "going to waste" in the waters that are plunging over the precipice into the great gorge of the Niagara River. As a matter of fact, the cataract itself has not been "harnessed." It is estimated that 100,000,000 tons of water flow over the precipice every hour. If it is possible to form some definite mental conception of this immense volume of water tumbling over a precipice 161 feet high after acquiring the momentum given it by a descent of 70 feet in going 22 miles from Lake Erie, the difficulty of accurately measuring the "horse-power" developed by its terrific impact will be readily appreciated. It is possible, however, for the genius of man to so divert the waters of Niagara River into other channels as to make the precipice as dry as a country creek in July.

The talk about the possible destruction of the falls recalls the story about the fright of Thomas A. Edison when he heard that they had receded from Lewiston 7 miles in 75,000 years, and that they are now receding at the rate of 1 foot every year. The news that the cataract had

receded 7 miles in 75,000 years broke in upon his inventive mind like a flash of lightning from a clear sky. If the falls were receding at this rate, why invest millions of dollars in the great engineering project for "harnessing" them? He could not sleep until he had communicated this discovery to the Eastern capitalists who were furnishing the money to install the first great power plant on the Niagara River. The hard-headed men of finance, however, were not alarmed by the possible recession of the precipice, especially when they learned that the power plants were to be located a mile above it; and as it would take over 5,000 years for the falls to reach these power-houses, they were willing to leave the question of the soundness of their securities to future generations.

Two great canals are now drawing water from Niagara River above the falls on the American side, and three will soon be drawing water from the river on the Canadian side. It is the installation of these great Canadian power plants, with their mammoth tail races for disposing of the "dead" water and their tunnels for carrying water to their great turbines, that has developed engineering problems unique and fascinating and construction work that is hazardous and spectacular. To meet the engineering requirements presented by the necessity for locating these three plants along the shore edge of Queen Victoria Park, one company had to "unwater" a considerable area of Niagara River at Tempest Point, where it has great depth and velocity; and having done this, it was obliged to dig "the biggest tunnel in the world" through the solid rock,

under the river, to a point directly behind the great curtain of water that plunges over the center of "Horseshoe" Falls. In all probability, the workmen who blew open the mouth of this tunnel were the first human beings to see the cataract from this point.

Another company has sunk its wheel-pit in Queen Victoria Park, about half a mile above Horseshoe Falls, and will take its water through a short canal, discharging it in the lower river through a tunnel 2,000 feet in length. Now, how was a third Canadian company to tap the waters of the river and find room for its intake canal, its tail race, or tunnel, its wheel-pit, and its power-house? The resourceful engineer was, apparently, equal to the emergency. He said: "We will go farther up the river than any of them for our water, and it will, therefore, take longer for the receding falls to reach us. And we will build our power plant below the falls, instead of along the upper river." Accordingly, he devised a plan by which the water will be brought from Dufferin Islands, more than a mile above the falls, through the largest steel conduit in the world, which is laid underground, and runs not far from the shore of the river, skirting the other power plants, to the great power-house in the cañon below the falls.

It is interesting at this point to survey the hydro-electric power installations and note the different methods adopted for taking the water from the river and for carrying it to the lower river after it has passed through the turbine wheels. On the American side, the earliest power

development, inaugurated before long-distance electric transmission was known, is that of the Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power & Manufacturing Company, which takes water from a canal dug from the upper river through the center of the city of Niagara Falls to the cliff just below the first steel cantilever bridge, the power plant and industries using the water-power being located at this point. The other American company, the first to utilize the later discoveries in "electric transmission" in the "harnessing" of Niagara upon a big scale, known as the Niagara Falls Power Company, takes its water through a short canal about a mile above the falls, and discharges the "dead" water through a tunnel that runs under the city of Niagara Falls to a point near the water's edge in the lower river directly below the first steel bridge. The Canadian Niagara Falls Power Company, which is allied with the American company, taps the river in Queen Victoria Park, taking its water through a short canal and discharging it below the falls through a 2,000-foot tunnel. The Toronto & Niagara Power Company, with its power plant built in the bed of the river near Tempest Point, takes water through great stone forebays in the river and sends it to the lower river through a tunnel under Niagara River which empties directly behind the "V" in Horseshoe Falls. The Ontario Power Company is building its power-house in the cañon near the lower river level, and carries the water to run its turbine wheels from Dufferin Islands in an underground steel pipe, discharging the tail water through draft tubes directly into the river.

With this mental picture of the general engineering features of the five great power developments definitely formed, you are ready to follow the engineers into such details of construction as may appeal to individual taste, curiosity, or technical knowledge. Let us descend, for instance, into the tunnel that is to carry tail water from the power-house of the Toronto Company under Niagara River, dashing it against the curtain that plunges with torrential fury over the Horseshoe precipice. Here is a subterranean "thriller" that will easily satisfy the visitor who is hunting for new sensations. All other experiences that are used to allure and captivate the pilgrims to this wonderful region will dim into tame and commonplace affairs compared to this excursion through the great hole that American engineering genius has shot through the solid rock under Niagara River to the center of Horseshoe Falls. The company did not undertake this great engineering project for the benefit of visitors to the falls. But having made the tun-



BUILDING THE "CRIB COFFER-DAM" TO UNWATER A PORTION OF NIAGARA RIVER ABOVE THE FALLS, ON WHICH TO BUILD WHEEL-PIT AND POWER PLANT. CANADIAN SIDE.

nel large for inspection purposes, so that it might be examined at any point at any time, the company wisely decided to hang a "visitors' gallery" from its roof.

Through this tunnel and under the visitors' gallery one might easily drive a coach-and-four. In fact, two lines of railways on the bottom of the main tunnel have been maintained during construction for transporting the rock and earth excavated by workmen. Clad in rubber coat and boots, the future visitor to the falls may wend his way along this gallery, 158 feet below the river bed, to the mouth of the tunnel, where the roar of the torrent of water as it plunges over the Horseshoe precipice and the clouds of blinding spray that are swept into it by furious storms of wind give a terrifying aspect to a wondrous spectacle, the like of which is

not to be seen in any part of the world. The curtain of water is about 60 feet from the face of the rock at this point, but the intervening space is filled with the spray that is hurled about in almost cyclonic fury. This tunnel is 1,935 feet in length, and joins two branch tail races at a point about 165 feet from the wheel-pit of the power plant. Before work on the main tunnel was begun a shaft was sunk on the river bank opposite the crest of Horseshoe Falls, and from this a tunnel was dug to a point at the lower end of the main tunnel. No difficulties were encountered in the digging of this tunnel until the workmen were within about 15 feet of the face of Horseshoe Falls, when the water began to pour in through a fissure in the rock, and it was impossible to continue the work.

After a losing fight against the water for several days, the engineer decided to explode a large quantity of dynamite close to the wall between the tunnel and the face of the falls. This, together with the dynamite in eighteen holes that were drilled in the wall, was exploded after the tunnel had been flooded. The explosion made an opening into the face of the cliff, but so near the roof of the tunnel that it was impossible to work at the opposing wall from the inside. The engineer thereupon called for volunteers to crawl along the ledge of rock



INSIDE OF TAIL-RACE TUNNEL.

(This tunnel will carry dead water from the power plant of the Toronto & Niagara Power Company under the Niagara River to a point 150 feet below surface, directly behind center of Horseshoe Falls. The largest tunnel in the world. A visitors' gallery will be suspended from its roof when the works are completed. Men who dug this tunnel were the first human beings to see the falls from this point.)

behind the falls to the opening which had been made. Several men, roped together, made this perilous trip, and, finally, placed large quantities of dynamite against the wall at the end of the tunnel, blowing it away sufficiently to allow the water to run out and to permit a continuance of the work.

In the design of this tunnel the engineers have made ingenious provision for the wearing away, or recession, of the falls. The lining for the first 300 feet from the outlet will be put in rings 6 feet long, so that as the falls recede, and the tunnel shortens by the breaking away of the surrounding rock, the lining will break away in clean sections and leave a smooth surface at the new end of the tunnel. Through the main tunnel and the branch tunnels, at a velocity of 26 feet per second, will rush the water from the upper river after it has passed through the eleven turbine wheels of the power plant, generating a total of 125,000 electric horse-power.

The construction work for this power development afforded striking examples of the mastery of man over Nature. The engineering plans were bold in conception and daring in execution. In order to clear a place for the wheel-pit and for a great gathering dam, it was necessary to unwater a space in the bed of Niagara River

covering about twelve acres. To do this the engineers built a crib-work coffer-dam within which to carry on the work of construction. This dam was about 2,155 feet in length and about 20 to 46 feet wide. Some idea of the engineering difficulties encountered in the building of this dam may be gathered from the fact that the depth of the water in many places was as great as 24 feet, while it was thought that the average depth of water was about 7 feet. The dam was made to conform with the bed of the river by means of soundings made with an iron rod. Much of the work was done where it was at right angles to the current of deep water, which was flowing at a high velocity. A platform was suspended out for 16 feet from the end of each crib, and to break the force of the current a fender of heavy timbers, held in position by three steel cables fastened at points higher up the river, projected out beyond the last crib.

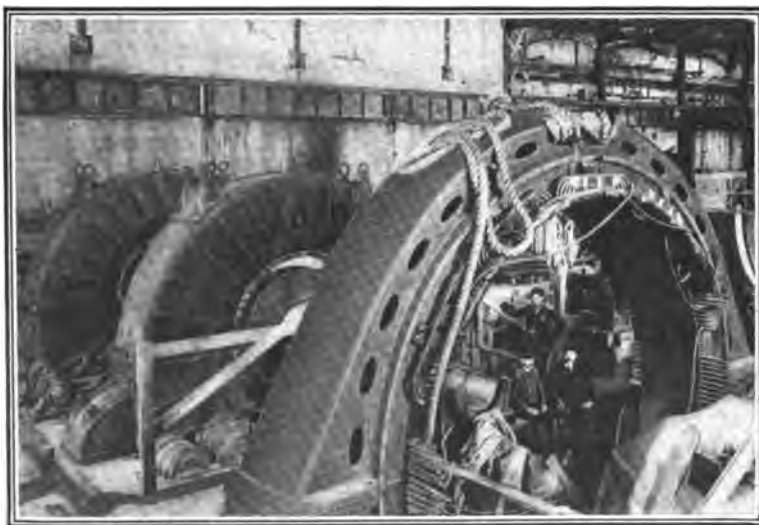
In spite of the exceedingly hazardous nature of this work, there was but one life lost in the building of the dam. About 2,000 feet above the crest of the falls an immense hole was sunk into the solid rock for a wheel-pit. The bottom of this wheel-pit, upon which the turbines rest, is 150 feet below the surface, and from it two branch tail races connect with the main tail race of the tunnel which runs out to Horseshoe Falls. A large "gathering dam," made of concrete and capped with cut granite, extends into the river 750 feet from the line of the power-house. This dam, which varies in height from 10 to 23 feet, is intended to divert toward the power-house an amount of the river's flow sufficient for the de-

velopment of the maximum capacity of the plant. The power station is located practically on the original shore line and parallel to it, and the generator room will contain eleven generators of 12,500 horse-power each. The transmission lines from this power plant to Toronto will be carried on two lines of steel towers, each line carrying two circuits, and each will be 46 feet high. These steel towers will also carry the trolley wires for electric cars, which will run from Niagara Falls to Toronto *via* Hamilton, a distance of 88 miles, at a speed of 100 miles an hour. For this purpose the company owns a right of way 80 feet wide for the entire distance.

It also owns and operates other lines of electric railway, and will furnish electric light for the city of Toronto. It is the only company backed entirely by Canadian capital, although some of the stock is held by members of the British royal family. The chief engineer in charge of this power development, which presented some of the most difficult problems known to engineering, is Mr. Beverly R. Value, an American of ability and distinction in his profession. The agreement with the commissioners of Victoria Park calls for a power-house of massive and dignified architecture, the general style of which is the Italian renaissance, and in its structure and surroundings it is to conform to plans that are intended to add to the picturesque attractiveness of the park.

A short distance beyond this development, and a hundred or more yards farther away from the shore of the river, runs the mammoth steel conduit of the Ontario Power Company, which is to carry water from the river, at Dufferin Islands, to the power-house that is being built in the gorge below Horseshoe Falls.

The car in which you ride along the edge of Victoria Park must worm its way through a maze of wriggling "clam-shell" and "orange-peel" buckets and whizzing aerial tramways that are engaged in scooping up tons of earth and broken rock and dumping it into trains of trolley box-cars. As you peer out of the window you are momentarily impressed with the fear that one of the huge steel "clam-shell" buckets, in its next dizzy sweep through the air, may scrape your vehicle from its tracks into one of the seemingly bottomless



ASSEMBLING A 10,000-HORSE-POWER UNIT.

pits that stare at you on either side. This Titanic digging machinery, with its giant cranes and monster shovels, its crunching, creaking chains, and the rapid rattle of steam drills boring holes into the rock, is a spectacle of engineering activity such as one might expect to see in the famous Culebra cut in the Panama Canal. In the great trench that has been excavated is being laid, section by section, the steel pipe which, it is claimed, is the largest pipe in the world used for conveying water. When this power development is completed there will be three of these steel pipes buried along the river bank through Queen Victoria Park, each 18 feet in diameter and a little over 6,000 feet long.

The plans for this great project provide for 18 generating units and for the development of 180,000 electric horse-power. Niagara River descends more than 200 feet between the upper line of breakers opposite Dufferin Islands and the foot of Horseshoe Falls. Laying this great steel pipe from an intake at these islands for more than a mile down stream, and dropping it to the generating station at the water level in the cañon opposite Goat Island, adds nearly 55 feet to the head of water available from the cataract alone. Located in the cañon below the falls near the river level, the power-house will require neither vertical generators at the tops of the shafts nor a long tunnel to carry off the tail water. Electric energy developed in the power-house near the base of the cataract passes up through cables and conduits in the cliff to a transformer-house on the top of the hill for distribution and transmission.

The plan of utilizing hydraulic power in this development differs radically from that followed in the other power stations, in that the turbines are horizontal instead of vertical, and are directly connected with the main generators, this constituting the only machinery placed on the floor of the station.

The laying of the main conduit, which is made of steel plates one-half inch in thickness, in the great trench excavated for that purpose has furnished an interesting spectacle for the thousands of visitors to the Niagara region. In order to prevent erosion, this pipe was thor-



CONSTRUCTION WORK ON THE POWER-HOUSE OF THE CANADIAN NIAGARA FALLS POWER COMPANY. WORK ON THE "FOREBAY."

oughly cleaned by sand-blasting and covered with three coats of paint inside and out.

Power cables are carried by tile ducts imbedded in the concrete sides of the tunnels, and broken at intervals for the insertion of steel clamps to prevent sliding of the cables. These power cables are to be paper-insulated, lead-covered, and protected with layers of jute and steel-wires.

It is not known outside of the directorate just what uses are to be made of the power that will be developed by this great corporation, commonly known as "the Albright Company," but it is officially announced that 60,000 of its horse-power was sold before the construction work began. However, rumor constantly connects this development with the electrification of certain steam railway lines, including branches of the New York Central. The color of probability is given to these rumors by the fact that the administration of William C. Brown, the new operating genius who is at the head of the operating department of the Vanderbilt properties, is marked by electrification plans that are about to be projected upon a scale hitherto unknown in American railway management.

Almost as interesting and instructive as the power development at Niagara are the manufacturing industries which utilize the power, and which stretch along the river for several miles. These include the manufacture of carborundum, aluminum, carbide, graphite, caustic potash,

muriatic acid, emery wheels, railway supplies, paper, hook-and-eye fasteners, and shredded wheat.

The power development which is to make Buffalo and Niagara Falls the power centers of the world, and which has already made Niagara Falls the most interesting spot in all the world for electricians and engineers, is made possible by the development of electric-power transmission. It is the outgrowth of a plan "for the development of hydraulic power" originally devised by Thomas Evershed, a public engineer, employed by New York State on the Erie Canal, and carried forward to its present development on the American side by the Niagara Falls Power Company, which was organized in 1889. Actively identified with the promotion and financing of this great enterprise were the following gentlemen: William B. Rankine, now treasurer and second vice-president; Francis Lynde Stetson, J. Pierpont Morgan, Hamilton McK. Twombly, Edward A. Wickes, Morris K. Jesup, Darius Ogden Mills, Charles F. Clark, Edward D. Adams, Charles Lanier, A. J. Forbes-Leith, Walter Howe, John Crosby Brown, Frederick W. Whitridge, William K. Vanderbilt, George S. Bowdoin, Joseph Laroque, Charles A. Sweet, of Buffalo, and John Jacob Astor, most of whom have served as officers and directors of the construction company.

In a recent address in Buffalo, Gen. Francis V. Greene said that the present long-distance transmission of electric power is about 250 miles, and that within ten years this limit will be extended to 500 miles. Electric power developed at Niagara is now being carried 40 miles.

And what is to be the effect of all this power development upon the great cataract over which the waters of Niagara River have leaped for countless centuries? Is it true that children already born may yet walk dry-shod across the bed of the river from the mainland of the New York State Reservation to Goat Island? The engineers are not agreed upon this question. How can one expect a layman to venture an opinion?

Popular interest in the question is revived by the discussion of certain measures before the last session of the New York Legislature which called for new power franchises and for a further diversion of the waters of Niagara River. One of these asked the Legislature for a grant giving its promoters the right to send water from a point above the falls through a canal to Lockport. Under pressure of public sentiment, the measure was modified so as to limit the amount of water to be diverted in this way to 400,000 horse-power. This measure, known as the Leg-

gett bill, was characterized by the press as a "grab bill," and was killed. Another measure, known as the Cassidy bill, which was taken up after the death of the Leggett bill, was put forward as a "transmission-line bill," but in reality conferred broad powers of private and public land condemnation, and placed no restriction upon the amount of water which might be diverted from the river for power purposes.

Neither house passed the Leggett bill, but the Cassidy substitute was passed by the Senate and afterward killed by the Assembly Rules Committee. This was a better record than that of the Legislature of 1904, in which "the Niagara power grab" had to be blocked by a veto from the Governor.

Government engineers have estimated the normal discharge of Niagara River into Lake Ontario at 222,000 cubic feet per second. The total abstraction of water by the five power plants in operation and in process of construction is placed at about 48,800 cubic feet per second. Add to this the diversion caused by the Welland Canal, running from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, and the power development along this channel; that of the Chicago drainage canal, running from Lake Michigan to the Des Plaines River; that of the new barge canal, which will follow the line of the present Erie Canal from Buffalo to Savannah, and the possible diversion by the canal that is to be built under the so-called "Love charter" from La Salle to Devil's Hole, in the gorge below Whirlpool Rapids, and we have, according to the estimates of the engineers, a total diversion of water from the Great Lakes above the falls of about 67,400 cubic feet per second. And there is the possibility of great power development on the Chicago drainage canal, on the Illinois and Des Plaines rivers, and on the Kankakee River, in Indiana, all of which will draw water away from Lake Michigan, the amount of which is now beyond human estimate.

The real danger to the falls will come from the granting of additional power franchises in the future. If such grants should get through the State Legislature in defiance of public sentiment upon this question, it is not believed that they would receive the official sanction of the executive. There can be no mistake about the attitude of the people of New York, and of the entire country, regarding a further diversion of the waters of Niagara River for power purposes, for while the present diversion has had no appreciable effect upon the cataract itself, there is strong opposition to new power projects that will further diminish the volume of water flowing over the precipice.

WHY NORWAY HAS SEPARATED FROM SWEDEN.

BY A DANISH OBSERVER.

[The writer of this article, who prefers not to have his name appear, has studied the question of Norwegian-Swedish relations for years. He is in a position to speak with sympathy, and yet without special prejudice, on the subject. The comments from Norwegian and Swedish standpoints which follow the article are by eminent American representatives of the nations immediately concerned. Dr. Anderson is a well-known Norwegian scholar and historical authority. He is an ex-United States minister to Denmark, and is at present editor of *Amerika*, perhaps the best known of Norwegian journals published outside of Norway. Dr. Enander is an authority on Swedish history and general Scandinavian politics. He is editor of the *Hemlandet*, the recognized organ of the Swedes of our great Northwest.]

THE separation of Norway from Sweden, and the establishment of the former as a nation apart, makes no change in the internal governmental machinery of either country. According to the terms of the union of 1814, while the person of the sovereign was the same, each country had its own government, constitution, and code of laws.

The question in dispute,—namely, the organization of a separate consular service for Norway,—would seem to be of a rather peaceful character, and not of such importance that it could not be settled by negotiations. It must appear surprising that it should have made the political waves run so high in the two so closely related countries, up to the present united under one king.

It is necessary to know certain political and historical phases of the mutual relations of these two nations in order to understand the trouble. The outward unity was to a great extent only apparent, and did not altogether correspond to the internal relations. The history of the two countries has been entirely different. They have never had the same government or been dependencies one of the other, and their national characteristics are very unlike. Protection is the economic doctrine of Sweden, while Norway's interests demand free trade. The Swedish constitution grants the crown and the higher classes considerable influence with the government, while Norway is the most democratic monarchy in the world.

Though the two countries had the same king, it would be a mistake to believe that the origin of their discord is to be found in conditions similar to those which govern the home-rule question in Ireland. The kingdom of Norway has always been, in reality, as free and sovereign a state as any in the world, with the single restriction that it was bound to permit questions concerning both countries to be debated jointly in the so-called "combined council of state."

—When, in 1814, Denmark was forced by the

allied powers to cede Norway (with which country it had been united for more than four hundred years) to Sweden, the whole Norwegian nation arose in protest. The Norwegians elected their own king and adopted a very liberal constitution. A short war with Sweden was the result. Bernadotte, Napoleon's former marshal, who had been made heir-apparent to the Swedish throne and now ruled in the name of the old and sick king, found it advisable to submit to the wishes of Norway. He acknowledged her new constitution, was made king of Norway, which formed, with Sweden, a union defined in the Act of 1815. This act says, in its introduction, that "the union is not a result of warfare, but of free conviction, and shall be maintained by a clear acknowledgment of the legal rights of the nations in protection of their mutual thrones."

Paragraph 1 of this act stated that the kingdom of Norway is a free, independent, indivisible, and inalienable state, united with Sweden under one king. Paragraph 5 established a "combined council of state" for discussion of matters pertaining to the union. These paragraphs gave a full definition of the union of the two countries,—a monarchy and a defensive alliance "for the protection of their mutual throne."

This peculiar form of union has not proved conducive to the happiness of the two nations in their mutual relations. The incongruity of their views is too great. It was difficult for Sweden to realize that Norway was not a conquered country, and the Norwegians, on their side, have kept watch over their rights with irritation and jealousy, while their radical parties have at times promoted an agitation that in a nation more politically mature would have carried them far beyond their mark.

A QUESTION OF INDEPENDENCE FOR NORWAY.

It was the question of Norway's right to manage its own foreign affairs that was es-

pecially the bone of contention. Sweden considered the common administration of foreign affairs one of the most important guaranties for the preservation of the union and the integrity of the countries, and pointed to the danger from their powerful eastern neighbor, for whom a harbor in the North Atlantic Ocean is a much-coveted prize. Especially now, since Russia is excluded from the sea in the far East, it is expected that she will with so much the greater zeal turn her eyes toward the ice-free harbors of Norway's northwest coast. Russian engineers have already constructed roads across Finland, close to the Swedish-Norwegian boundaries, and in Sweden it was urged that this is not the time for showing any tendencies toward separation or for loosening the ties which have given strength to the two nations in their relations with foreign powers. The Norwegian Liberals, who have been the leading men of the country almost uninterruptedly for the past twenty years, assert with equal strength that only when the complete equality of the two countries is acknowledged and respected is a really helpful union possible, in peace as well as in war.

But if Norway, as stated, is a free and sovereign state, and as such, according to international law, has the right to direct its own affairs, internal as well as foreign, and to send and receive ambassadors and consuls, how could it be explained that during the almost one hundred years in which the two countries had been united Norway has been excluded from exercising this right? The constitution of Norway, which was acknowledged by Sweden, states expressly that the king of Norway has such rights.

The situation can be explained partially thus: According to the old political ideas, the management of foreign affairs was a personal right of the sovereign, which he exercised through his minister of foreign affairs. The diplomats were also considered to be the personal representatives of the monarch, and are still, to a certain extent, so considered. After the separation from Denmark, Norway could, without any danger, place the administration of her foreign affairs in the hands of her king. Even if this arrangement was not altogether satisfactory, it was at least the same for both countries. But when, in 1885, Sweden made the minister of foreign affairs responsible to the Swedish parliament, Norway felt it a serious slight to be deprived of every influence worth mentioning in her foreign politics, and to see the administration of these placed in the hands of a foreigner, who was not responsible to the Norwegian parliament, and who could not be expected to have any special knowledge of Norway's particular interests. Fre-

quent negotiations to settle this question have taken place, but the realization of Norway's wishes have always been frustrated by resistance from the Swedish side. The concessions which Sweden was willing to make were not acceptable to Norway. Finally, the negotiations relating to a special Norwegian minister of foreign affairs were dropped, and only the question of separate consular service, as the more practicable, taken up.

AN ECONOMIC REASON.

Owing to the great development of Norway's commerce and shipping, the question became very pressing, and it was clear that all parties in Norway were of the same opinion, especially as Sweden had adopted a policy of protection, while Norway adhered to the principles of free trade. Besides, the shipping of Norway was about three times as large as that of Sweden, and, while Norway had but little influence in the administration of the consular service, she had to defray about half the expense. Furthermore, the question as to the appointment of her own consuls, or commercial and maritime representatives, seemed to be entirely outside the scope of the matters on which Sweden claims to have the right of influence as relating to the union.

In 1891, the question assumed a practical aspect. In that year, Norway established the so-called "Consulate Committee" to examine the question, and it came to the conclusion that there was commercial necessity for Norway to have her own consuls. The government, as well as the parliament, prepared complete plans for the realization of such an arrangement. Violent quarrels with Sweden were the result, and the excitement in the "combined council of state," as well as in the two parliaments, was very great. In Norway, one cabinet succeeded another, but it was impossible to come to an agreement. In 1898, the question was taken up again, at the suggestion of Sweden, and a committee consisting of seven Norwegian and seven Swedish members was formed to discuss all the differences pertaining to the union. As was to be expected, this committee could not agree, the representatives of the two countries not even agreeing among themselves. The negotiations were for a time eclipsed by other questions, until they were reopened in 1901, again on the initiative of Sweden, but this time only the consular-service question was discussed. In January, 1902, the King appointed a new committee, consisting of Dr. Sigurd Ibsen, a son of the famous author, and Consul-General Christopher- sen, from Norway, and Baron Bildt, ambassador at London, and Consul-General Amén, from Sweden, who should consider how separate con-

sulates for each of the united kingdoms would work with the retention of the common diplomatic service, and how the home administration of the consulates and the relation of the consulates to the legations could be settled.

SWEDEN OFFERS CONCESSIONS.

As early as July of the same year (1902), the committee issued a unanimous report favoring the realization of Norway's wishes. On this basis, the negotiations between the two governments were continued, and in the so-called March Communiqué the following points were agreed upon: (1) That separate consulates should be established for the two countries, in such a way that each country's consuls are subject only to that home authority which each country establishes; (2) the relation of the separate consuls to the minister of foreign affairs and the diplomats should be arranged by parallel laws in both parliaments, and they should not be changed or canceled without the consent of the two countries. This agreement received the sanction of the King in a combined Swedish-Norwegian council of state in December, 1903.

The realization of Norway's wishes seemed now to be quite near. A new and strong cabinet, under the leadership of the highly respected jurist and professor of law, Dr. Hagerup, held the reins of government. This cabinet immediately undertook the preparation of the parallel laws, and worked so rapidly that in May, 1904, the outline was sent to Stockholm for the consideration of the Swedish Government.

Sweden's answer was long in coming, and, furthermore, the Swedish minister of foreign affairs, who was considered to be favorably disposed toward the Norwegian claims, was forced to resign. The Swedish premier, Mr. Boström, himself conducted the affair. Finally, in November, 1904, the reply of the Swedish Government was received. To the surprise of every one, it did not contain an outline of parallel laws, but drew up a new line of "principles" for the settlement of the relation of the separate consulates to the diplomats and the minister of foreign affairs which would give him considerable authority and power to appoint, supervise, and remove these Norwegian public officials.

There is no room here for a detailed examination of these points, or for an estimate of the scruples of the Swedish Government which led to them. It must not be forgotten, however, that it was an absolutely essential condition of the negotiations relating to separate consular services that these should not in any way affect the *status quo* of other foreign affairs. It is, therefore, not to be wondered at that the Swedish

minister of foreign affairs, on whom finally falls the political responsibility, claimed that he had the right to demand a clear definition of the sphere of authority of these separate consuls, and to demand absolute guaranties that they would not encroach upon his sphere, thus making him responsible without giving him any controlling power.

The principles laid down in Sweden's reply caused great indignation throughout Norway, where they were considered an attempt to deprive the nation of its sovereign rights. The Norwegians declared that the action of the Swedish Government was of such a character that "parliamentary language did not contain words to describe it." What made the Norwegians especially indignant was Sweden's demand that the word "Norway" in the King's title as "King of Norway and Sweden" should be placed after the word "Sweden" in the exequaturs of the new Norwegian consuls, an arrangement of words never before used in Norwegian documents.

After numerous verbal negotiations between the governments in Stockholm and Christiania, which led to no agreement, the Norwegian government, in June, 1904, prepared a so-called "promemoria," endeavoring, in this document, with great force to prove that the "principles" expressed in the Swedish reply were not only in violation of the Norwegian constitution, but also in certain directions a step backward. Furthermore, it was set forth that these principles were absolutely at variance with the agreement of December, 1903, which the sanction of the King had made constitutionally binding, and in which it was definitely declared that Norway should have its own consular service, subject to special Norwegian authority only, without any control from the minister of foreign affairs or the ambassadors.

This was the end of the negotiations. The crown prince, Gustav, who acted as regent, attempted to renew them on a broader basis, embracing all the differences pertaining to the union, but the Norwegian cabinet, believing that under the present political conditions such negotiations would be as futile as those of 1844, 1867, and 1898, refused to reopen them.

SWEDEN'S CASE SET FORTH.

The many weighty political reasons for the preservation of the union, which Norway was either unable or unwilling to see, would possibly have prompted Sweden to make important concessions during such negotiations rather than risk the breaking of the union. It should also be said in Sweden's favor that, seeing the

union in danger, she did much to calm the excitement in Norway, and even sacrificed her premier, Boström, although very important political questions made his presence in the cabinet highly desirable. Unfortunately, the moment when a yielding disposition might have been of benefit had passed. A new cabinet, under the leadership of the advocate Michelsen, had in the meantime come into power in Norway, with the political programme of carrying through the wishes of Norway without the collaboration of Sweden. About the middle of May, the parliament passed a Norwegian consular-service law according to the ideas expressed in the agreement of December, 1903.

King Oscar was now placed in an extremely difficult position. He foresaw that by sanctioning this law he would meet insurmountable obstacles in the Swedish parliament and cabinet, and in Norway the result would be that he could not find a single man willing to form a cabinet that would make his veto constitutionally valid by its approval, and thereby make itself (the cabinet) responsible to the parliament and the whole Norwegian people. Undoubtedly moved by the highest and noblest motives, he chose, under these circumstances, to veto the Norwegian law. This step was immediately followed by the resignation of the Norwegian cabinet, a resignation which the King refused to accept, declaring that he knew he could not form another government.

The Norwegian parliament then declared that

the King, by admitting that he was unable to rule the country according to the constitution, and by refusing to comply with the wishes of his cabinet and the unanimous votes of the parliament, had overstepped the limits of his rights, and had therefore ceased to rule as king of Norway. The King of Sweden and his government answered by a firm protest against the constitutional legality of the Norwegian parliament's action. Sweden refused to recognize the secession, and so long as Sweden withholds this recognition the foreign powers will certainly withhold theirs.

The political relations between the two countries, which during a period of ninety years had led to ever-increasing discord, were thus severed. Norway displayed the greatest dignity and tact in this revolution, and showed a strong feeling of responsibility. Even if Sweden does not resort to force of arms, Norway will meet with difficulties of the most serious kind so long as it is unrecognized by the powers and excluded from arguing its case in the council of the world's states.

It must also be admitted that Norway's present isolation decidedly weakens Scandinavian foreign politics, and might, in a crisis, lead to dire results for both countries. It is therefore to be hoped that another form of federal collaboration may be found,—possibly also including the third Scandinavian nation, Denmark,—more likely to promote the happiness, in peace or war, of the three Scandinavian nations.

THE NORWEGIAN VIEWPOINT,—A COMMENT.

"A DANISH OBSERVER'S" article is, in the main, an able and impartial presentation of the facts involved in the case. The writer shows an intimate acquaintance with the political and diplomatic history of Norway and Sweden since the two countries became united in 1814, and it is hardly necessary to add that I heartily indorse most of what he has to say. There is, however, one statement in his article that does not correspond with the historic facts, and it is, in my opinion, of the greatest importance in defining the position and rights of Norway in her troubles with her neighbor.

"A Danish Observer" says: "When Denmark, in 1814, was forced by the allied powers to cede Norway (with which country it had been united for more than four hundred years) to Sweden, the whole Norwegian nation arose and protested." What I object to in this statement are the words "to Sweden." That the powers,

—Russia, England, and Prussia,—*intended to cede Norway to Sweden* there is no doubt, but in the treaty of peace signed at Kiel, January 14, 1814, it was distinctly provided that "his Majesty the King of Denmark, in behalf of himself and his successors to the throne and the kingdom of Norway, forever renounces all his rights and claims to the kingdom of Norway in favor of the King of Sweden." According to this treaty, Norway was not ceded to Sweden any more than Sweden was ceded to Norway. The King of Denmark renounced his claims on Norway, not to the Swedish nation, but to the King of Sweden, and so Sweden, or the Swedish state, did not obtain any sovereignty over Norway. This interpretation of the treaty of Kiel is fully sustained by such eminent Swedish authorities as Herman Ludvig Rydin and Hans Forsell.

The fact that Norway owes no allegiance to Sweden is also plainly set forth in the first para-

graph of the constitution of Norway, which reads: "Norway is a free, independent, indivisible, and inalienable kingdom, united with Sweden under one king." This was adopted by the assembly at Eidsvold, May 17, 1814, and ratified by the act of union with Sweden, November 4 of the same year. Even among highly educated people, however, it is a common opinion that Norway is in some way a dependency of Sweden, while the fact is that, in accordance with all documents bearing on the subject, Norway is no more subject to Sweden than Sweden is to Norway. Imagine how you would offend a Swede if you intimated to him that his country belonged to Norway. Since 1884, Norway has enjoyed a parliamentary system of government such as do England and France. The cabinet, or council of state, must be in harmony with the majority of the Storting. The Storting unanimously passed the law creating a separate consular system. The King refusing his approval, the cabinet resigned, and as the King could find no one to form a new ministry, and was incompetent, under the law, to govern without a ministry, he in fact deposed himself. He made it necessary for the Storting to find some one else to perform the functions of government.

In my opinion, the dissolution of the union will be a blessing to both countries concerned. So long as Norway and Sweden are united under one king, there will be friction. The one nation will be jealous of the other. Sweden, as the larger country, will at times like to make

some exhibition of her power and authority, and Norway, as the smaller country, will be jealous, and will imagine she is trodden upon even when she is not. The long union between Denmark and Norway was a constant source of irritation and bickerings, but since the two became separated they have been the best of friends. Let Norway and Sweden dissolve partnership, and there will be no better friends in all Europe than these two nations. No alliance on paper will be needed. In time of peril, either one would rush to arms in defense of the other. Two farmers may live side by side for a lifetime without having any trouble, but if they were partners and each had some claim on the other's property, misunderstandings could scarcely fail to arise. What is true of two farmers applies with no less force to two nations. A separate Norway and Sweden can be of mutual help; bound together under one king, they would be fated to disagree for all time. The Norwegians are, by their experience, intelligence, and education, abundantly able to govern their own country and manage their own affairs.

England and America owe much to old Norway and to the Viking spirit for the free institutions they enjoy, and it would seem that they now have an opportunity to pay a part of this debt by recognizing promptly the birth of Norway as a separate and independent nation, either as a constitutional monarchy or,—still better,—as a new republic.

RASMUS B. ANDERSON.

MADISON, Wis.

A SWEDISH VIEW OF THE "REVOLUTION."

KING OSCAR of Sweden and Norway could not have acted otherwise than he did when the Norwegian crisis came. The Swedes have not refused the Norwegians their own consuls. They have, however, always insisted that the question of separate consuls for Norway was so closely connected with the question of the consuls' diplomatic responsibility that both these questions ought to be solved at the same time. Sweden was not willing to pave the way for an independent Norwegian minister of foreign affairs, but consented that the minister of foreign affairs for the union might be either a Swede or a Norwegian. This proposition was not accepted. Nothing but absolute independence would satisfy the Norwegian radicals. I fear that they

have made a mistake by their revolution, which I sincerely regret. No telegraphic message, letter, or newspaper has arrived from Sweden indicating what action the Swedish "Riksdag" (Congress) will take when it convenes on July 1. [This was written on June 19.] Opinions will be divided. The feeling between the two nations seems to be better than could be expected under the circumstances, and it may perhaps be possible that King Oscar, for whom the Norwegians as well as the Swedes have the greatest regard, will permit one of his sons to accept the Norwegian crown, providing, of course, that the Riksdag recognizes an independent kingdom of Norway, outside of the union.

CHICAGO, Ill.

JOHN A. ENANDER.



THE FREIGHT RATES THAT WERE MADE BY THE RAILROADS.

BY W. D. TAYLOR.

(Professor of Railway Engineering in the University of Wisconsin.)

THE popular support now given the movement to place the making or control of railway freight rates in the hands of State and national political commissions can hardly be explained upon any other theory than that the public has been brought to believe that the railway corporations are engaged in a combined effort to increase the rates throughout the country.

The principal object sought in this paper is to show that the history of railway transportation in this country all tends to prove that such a move on the part of the roads would, in the main, be against their own interest.

It attempts, incidentally, to show also: (1) that present rates are reasonable; (2) that the unrivaled prosperity and progress of the country is due primarily to cheap transportation; and (3) that in any authority given a political commission over railway rates the utmost care is necessary lest there be endangered that elasticity in rate-making which has been the first essential in the plan upon which our transportation system has developed.

The early railways, as well as the early legislatures that granted their charters, were all at sea as to what rates should be charged for freight transportation. The Petersburg Railroad, in Virginia, was prohibited in its charter from charging more than $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per ton-mile. The Central Railroad, in Michigan, in 1838, operated by the State, charged $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per ton-mile on flour. But in the same year the Mohawk & Hudson carried flour at 4 cents per ton-mile and light goods at 6 cents. In the early operation of the Liverpool & Manchester Railway, the freight charge per ton-mile was between 8 and 9 cents. Soon after the opening of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad the freight charge was 6 cents per ton-mile, and about the same on the State road from Philadelphia to Columbia. In 1840, the flour rate from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia was \$1.55 a barrel, or a little less than 4 cents per ton-mile.

Flour, coal, tobacco, and cotton were the principal articles of freight traffic, and these were carried by rail for only short distances. Rates were so high that many articles now carried

everywhere could not bear the cost of movement. Live stock was driven on foot. Whiskey (there was relatively heavy traffic in this article) was carried on the common roads.

The result of such rates was that freight did not move. For years the early lines in the trunk-line territory, which now measure the freight carried in their cars in millions of tons, earned more from their light passenger traffic than from freight. These lines now operate their passenger service as a side issue, to comply with their obligations as common carriers and to stimulate freight traffic.

These early lines were justified in charging high rates. The cost of operation was high. On the Baltimore & Ohio, in 1831, it took a train of eight cars to haul 200 barrels of flour, and the entire loaded train weighed 28 tons,—about the weight of an ordinary present-day passenger coach.

The distinguished civil engineer, Charles Ellet, Jr., writing in the *Mechanics' Magazine* (New York), in April, 1844, said that eight or ten of the railroads of the country had worn out the common half-inch flat bar rail by carrying 150,000 net tons of freight over their lines. The Camden & Amboy wore out its 40-pound "edge rail" with 400,000 net tons of traffic. In nine years the rails of the Liverpool & Manchester line had to be entirely replaced four times. From 1825 to 1842, the net traffic on the Stockton & Darlington, which had been carried in light cars at speeds of six miles an hour, summed up 6,500,000 tons. Besides a great amount of patching, the rail of the track had then been entirely renewed six times. The London & Birmingham started in constructing its line with 50-pound iron rail, which was worn out before the road was completed. Ellet, in the article referred to, figured that the cost of rail-wear alone per ton-mile of net freight on the Reading road was 4.75 mills.

Now, rail-wear is only one of the fifty-three items of railway operating expenses outlined by the Interstate Commerce Commission. At the present time, with our rail made of steel instead of iron, rail-wear generally amounts to about 1.5 per cent. of the total of all operating ex-

penses. We can gain some insight into the economies brought about in railway operation when we note from the table on page 72, that at the present time the average railway receipt per ton-mile at which heavy freight is carried by all our roads from the great interior of the country to the Atlantic seaboard is less than was the actual cost of this single item of rail-wear in 1844. On many lines, indeed, the heavier articles of freight are carried at rates very much below what this single item of expenditure amounted to at that time.

The regular rate on corn from Omaha to New York in December, 1904, was 3.6 mills per ton-mile. On February 7, 1905, in competition with the Gulf lines for this traffic, this rate was cut by the Eastern lines to 1.85 mills per ton-mile. However, this last is certainly not a remunerative rate under present conditions of railway traffic.

But at least two railway lines in the United States, which together handle a freight traffic each year of from 20,000,000 to 25,000,000 tons, have become immensely prosperous by hauling all their freight, high grade and low class, under average freight receipts for the eight years ending June 30, 1904, of considerably less than this single cost of rail-wear in 1844. The average charge per ton-mile of all freight for eight years on the Norfolk & Western Railroad has been 4.54 mills, and 4.04 mills on the Chesapeake & Ohio.

In many other lines of business the capitalists in control have pocketed the increase in the receipts produced by economies in operation and manufacture. But in the railway business freight rates have been so administered that the public, rather than the capitalists, has reaped the benefits resulting from the marvelous economies that have been developed in the cost of transportation. It is true the railways have not done this in a spirit of philanthropy, but the public benefit was none the less for that.

FALLING RATES INCREASE THE TRAFFIC AND THE EARNINGS.

The beginning of our modern transportation system does not run so far back in our history as it is oftentimes placed. It may be said to date from the year 1851, when, upon the completion of the Erie Railroad, the New York Central was relieved of the arbitrary tolls which had been imposed upon its traffic to prevent its competition with the Erie Canal.

Perhaps it would be too severe to say that the modern transportation system began to develop as soon as the State ceased to interfere with railway rates and allowed the rates, the traffic,

and the country to grow up together. In 1851, passenger and freight business were nearly equal. The total railway earnings were \$19,000,000 from the one and \$20,000,000 from the other. By 1867, at least, the freight business was 70 per cent. of the whole. In 1852, the total tonnage hauled on the New York Central and the Erie roads was 767,000 tons. In five years this was increased to 260 per cent. of this amount. The rates continued to fall because the carrying capacity of the roads was in excess of the freight offering.

As the rates fell off both the traffic and the earnings increased. The following statement shows the relation that developed on the New York Central between rates, tonnage, and earnings:

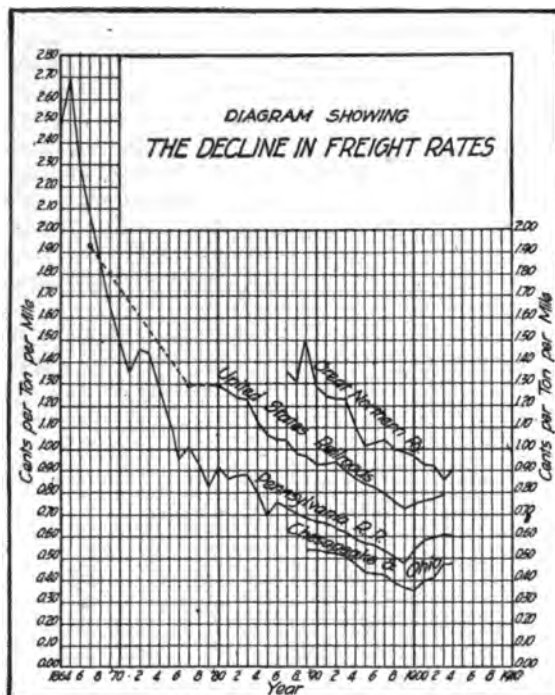
Year.	Charge per ton-mile (cents).	Tons of freight carried (thousands).	Gross earnings from freight (thousands).
1880.....	2.07	1,396	\$4,944
1870.....	1.86	4,122	14,387
1890.....	0.88	10,538	22,200

Thus, the roads learned that heavy tonnage at low rates was more profitable than light tonnage at high rates.

It is frequently stated that there has been no system in the making of railroad freight rates. But there is a law upon which they are constructed that every traffic man from Maine to San Francisco knows must be observed,—rates must move the freight, and, if possible, must move it in increasing quantities.

The decline in freight rates in the United States since the Civil War is shown graphically in the diagram on page 72; also, the rates on certain special roads for a number of years. It should be noted that the tonnage and the earnings continued to increase with the falling freight rates right down to the end of the century. For the whole United States the earnings per ton-mile in 1880 were \$1.29 cents; the freight carried, 350,000,000 tons (estimated), and the gross earnings from freight, \$468,000,000. In 1890, these figures were, respectively, 0.93 cents, 701,000,000 tons, and \$740,000,000. In 1900, these figures were 0.75 cents, 1,071,000,000 tons, and \$1,052,000,000.

The history of railway development has been the same in one particular, that whenever a pioneer railway was built into a community freight rates became lower. The last of the pioneer roads, the Great Northern, was completed in 1893, just before the Chicago World's Fair began the celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America. The completion of this great work was signalized by no other celebration than by an immediate



and substantial reduction in transcontinental freight rates.

But the decline in rates could not continue always. The average rate of decline from 1880 to 1899 continued to 1924 would bring freight rates down to zero. The decline was checked in 1899 by the wave of prosperity which made it necessary to increase wages and to pay higher prices for all the material used in railway operation. The records show that the decline was checked, but who shall say the decline is permanently stopped?

The cost per ton-mile is too uncertain a unit to base exact calculations upon. Although the average price per ton-mile increased 5.4 per cent. from 1899 to 1903, all of this increase *could* be accounted for by an increase in the proportion of high-class freight since 1899. Mr. E. P. Bacon, chairman of the Executive Committee of the Interstate Commerce Law Convention, held at St. Louis in 1904, testified recently before the joint committee on railroads of the Wisconsin Legislature that the ton-mile receipt might change as much as 50 per cent. without any change whatever in the freight rate.

Mr. Hill, of the Great Northern road, recently declared before the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce that he believed that if the railroads were given fair treatment, in twenty years the average freight rate would reach a half-cent per ton-mile.

OUR CHEAP LONG-HAUL FREIGHTS.

The following were cited as typical long-distance freight rates in the United States and Canada for 1903 in an address before the Canadian Society of Civil Engineers by President H. W. Blackwell:

	Rates.	Haul in miles.	Rate per ton per mile in cts.
All-rail rates—			
Chicago to Portland, Maine,—grain*....	\$0.16	1,128	0.21
Chicago to New York,—grain*.....	0.16	971	0.37
Brandon to St. John, N. B.,—grain*.....	0.35	2,068	0.37
Spring Hill, N. S., to Montreal,—coal†..	1.80	738	0.25
Lake and rail rates—			
Chicago to Montreal,—grain*.....	0.13	1,080	0.26
Brandon to St. John, N. B.,—grain*.....	0.25	2,068	0.22
Chicago to Montreal,—grain‡.....	0.08	827	0.21
Inland water rates—			
Duluth to Cleveland,—iron ore†.....	0.80	875	0.09
Chicago to New York,—grain §.....	0.09	1,320	0.15
Chicago to Montreal,—grain*.....	0.12	1,175	0.22
Duluth to Quebec,—grain*.....	0.12	1,580	0.17
Ocean rates—			
Montreal to Antwerp,—grain per quar..	2 s. d. 0 1 3	3,250	0.044
Antwerp to Montreal,—steel rails per ton	0 7 3	3,250	0.052
Montreal to Liverpool,—grain per quar.	0 1 3	2,900	0.046

It is difficult to compare the freight rates obtaining in the United States with those in other countries on account of the difference in the conditions under which the freight is moved, and on account of the fact that traffic statistics are kept differently in Europe from what they are in America, but the statistician, Mulhall, said just before his death that the average freight rate (reduced to cents per ton-mile) in the various countries were:

United Kingdom, 2.80	Italy..... 2.50	Russia.. \$2.40
France..... 2.20	Germany.... 1.64	Belgium 1.90
Holland..... 1.56	United States 0.80†	

These rates are quite different from those shown in the last edition (1899) of Mulhall, but that edition and the above statement both agree in showing that the United States has by far the cheapest rates in the world. This statement should be qualified, however, by noting that the distinctive feature of American freight traffic is that so large a proportion of it is shipped over long distances and in car or train load lots. On such traffic American rates are so much lower than anywhere else in the world that these heavy tonnage rates bring down the average tonnage rate to a very low figure. Still, it is true that the short-haul rates on goods in small lots in this country are generally as great or greater than those obtaining even in England.

* Per 100 pounds. † Per ton. ‡ Via Canada Pacific. § Via Erie Canal, per 100 pounds.

† "Transactions of the American Society of Civil Engineers," Vol. LIV., Part B, page 477.

However, it is the long-haul freight in heavy lots which has been the principal factor in the development and progress of the country.

CHEAP TRANSPORTATION AS AN ELEMENT IN NATIONAL PROSPERITY.

Let us consider for a moment just how prosperous our country is. Mr. Charles M. Harvey, in the February *World's Work*, estimates the present (1905) total wealth of several countries in billions of dollars as follows: Spain, 12; Italy, 18; Austro-Hungary, 30; Russia, 35; Germany, 48; France, 50; United Kingdom, 55; United States, 110. The *per capita* wealth in the United States was \$850 in 1880, \$1,039 in 1890, \$1,236 in 1900, and, according to Mr. Harvey, \$1,325 in 1905. In 1850, the wealth *per capita* was \$308. Thus, in spite of the great influx of penniless people from southern Europe, the mere increase in the average individual wealth from 1880 to 1900 was considerably greater than the total amount each individual possessed in 1850.

Figures compiled from the "Annual Review of the Foreign Commerce of the United States" for September, 1904, show that from 1880 to 1903 the consumption of pig iron in the United States increased 437 per cent.; the consumption of coal, 364 per cent.; the consumption of cotton, 107 per cent.; and the export of domestic manufactures, 340 per cent. The value of manufactures increased 85 per cent. from 1888 to 1900. In all of these the ratio of increase has been very much greater than in France, England, Germany, or Russia, with the single exception of the consumption of cotton in Germany, which has increased more than in the United States. The increase per cent. of the value of manufactures has been about double and of the export of domestic manufactures about five times that of any of the countries named.

It is doubtful if many of those who are calling for radical governmental control over transportation charges have stopped to inquire what has been the chief agency in making it possible to relate this wonderful tale of prosperity and progress.

In a thoughtful paper read before the International Engineering Congress at the St. Louis World's Fair, last fall, the distinguished engineer, Mr. E. P. North, analyzed the causes of our great growth in wealth. He showed that it is not due so much to fertile soil, cheap land, and natural resources as to cheap transportation. His conclusion is:

In one great source of national wealth,—namely, cost of transportation,—which is not a natural product, the United States has an undisputed advantage over all

other countries. . . . Not only does a low freight rate allow more to be divided between producer and consumer, but it has a more potent effect in inviting the production of commodities which with higher freight charges could not reach consumers. . . . There is no doubt that our railroad freight rates are the lowest in the world. Nor is there reason to doubt that the low cost of assembling and distributing our commodities has had an important influence on their production and consumption.

In 1903, the average amount paid for freight movement by each inhabitant of the United States was \$16.72. Had the rate paid been the same as it was in 1880 and the same freight movement made, the freight charge *per capita* would have been \$27.40. If the freight rate of 1880 had remained stationary, as it has practically done in England, and the country had made the same freight movement that has been made since then, there would have been paid to the transportation companies in excess of what has been paid since that date 13.5 per cent. of the total increase in wealth since that date. If the same freight movement from 1880 to 1904 had been made, and the freight rates had been as high as in England in 1895, 62 per cent. of the total growth in wealth would have been consumed in additional freight rates.

Thus, there can be no doubt but that, on the whole, the freight rates of the country have been adjusted in the past in very nearly the best way possible for the upbuilding of the country's commerce.

There is no small amount of truth in the assertion quoted by Prof. Hugo R. Meyer in his recent testimony before the Interstate Commerce Committee of the United States Senate:

American railway rates are the result of arbitration and warfare; they have been heated and forged and welded and pounded and hammered into their present shape, and they are about as nearly right as practical people can make them.

THE DEMAND FOR A COMPETENT RATE-REVIEWING COMMISSION JUSTIFIABLE.

Besides the 5.4 per cent. average increase in the freight rates of the whole country, there are certain large roads operating from the great interior of the country to the Atlantic seaboard on which rates have been increased in very much higher ratio. Without any very great change in the character of the traffic, the average rate on the Norfolk & Western was increased 24 per cent. from 1899 to 1904. On the Chesapeake & Ohio the character of the traffic has not materially changed, but the average freight rate was increased by nearly 33 per cent. between 1900 and 1903. Perhaps these increased freight rates are justifiable, but the average man would

be more ready to accept them if their fairness were passed upon by a competent, impartial commission.

DISCRIMINATIONS AGAINST LOCALITIES.

It cannot be maintained that the rates which have been so beneficial on the whole have been equitably adjusted all around. President Mellen, of the New Haven road, has said that there have been great abuses in railroad-made freight rates, and has intimated that governmental authority is needed in the matter. The clamor for rate regulation is not to be explained by the desire to correct the comparatively few flagrant cases of wrong-doing arising from rebates to favored shippers, private car lines, and private industrial railroads. Coupled with the fear of a general rise in freight rates, there is in many communities a lively sense of injury from rates which are regularly discriminating.

The average freight rate in New England is 76 per cent. in excess of the average rate in the territory immediately west and southwest. The character of the traffic warrants a considerable excess in the rate in this territory; but since there is less railway competition in New England than in any other part of the United States, New Englanders would be better pleased if the justice of the rates charged them could be passed upon by a disinterested body.

In Governor La Follette's State, uncontroverted evidence was produced before the Wisconsin Legislature, in 1903, showing that the charge on a 30-ton car of coal, both hard and soft, on two lines of road operated by the same company, was from \$13 to \$15 more from Milwaukee across the State of Wisconsin to La Crosse than for practically the same distance from Chicago across the State of Illinois to Savannah. The territories mentioned in the two cases are contiguous. In both cases the coal is shipped from a Lake Michigan port to a Mississippi River point. More recent testimony before the same body tended to show that on lines operated by the same companies freight rates on live stock and grain for the same distances are 23 and 28 per cent. higher, respectively, in southern Wisconsin in territory tributary to Milwaukee than in the contiguous territory in northern Illinois tributary to Chicago. Of course, traffic men can advance good reasons from their point of view why such conditions should exist, but it is certain that these reasons are not always satisfactory to the patrons of the roads, and it is somewhat doubtful if they would always satisfy a properly constituted impartial authority.

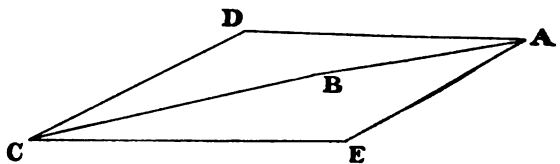
In an argument before the same body, the general solicitor of the Chicago, Milwaukee &

St. Paul road presented a table showing his estimate of the cost per ton-mile on the principal commodities of freight carried in Wisconsin. The lowest rate shown on this list on any article in which the average citizen of the State is interested was 6.7 mills per ton-mile on lumber, cement, brick, lime, and iron. This lowest single rate available to the average citizen of Wisconsin on any one commodity in which he is interested is a rate 48 and 66 per cent. higher, respectively, than the average rate at which the Norfolk & Western and the Chesapeake & Ohio have done a most lucrative business for eight years.

THE POWER OF THE LARGE SHIPPER.

The railways themselves oftentimes need higher authorities than their traffic managers to uphold their rates when they are attacked by large shippers. Mr. Midgley's able exposition of the private-car-line evil is a case in point. It is too often the case that the large shipper either dictates or controls the rate under which his goods are shipped. The average traffic man is polite but perfectly independent in dealing with the small shipper. He is extremely conciliatory to the frequent shipper of goods or produce in car-load lots. But he is on his knees to the shipper who sends his goods in regular train-loads.

A traffic official in a position of great responsibility recently illustrated the manner in which railway-traffic men were forced by large shippers to manipulate rates in their interest as follows:



At "A" and "B" there were industrial plants, with a common market at "C." The output of the plant at "A" was large, and there were several routes to "C." The output of the plant at "B" was small, and there was practically only one route to "C."

When the goods from "B" began to interfere with the sale of goods from "A" the traffic men of the line "A, B, C" were called on to make the rates from "B" to "C" the same as from "A" to "C," else that line would lose its proportion of the traffic from "A" to "C." The proportion of this traffic the line "A, B, C" was receiving at "A" was of very much more value than the traffic from "B" to "C." What could a struggling road do but make the change in

the freight rates that forced the plant at "B" out of business? And it was clearly against the interest of the railway from "B" to "C" to have the plant at "B" suspend.

In many such instances it would be to the interest of railway corporations to have the rate-making power in the hands of a commission if it could only be assumed that the commission would be competent and impartial.

LENGTH OF HAUL ALONE SHOULD NOT DETERMINE RATES.

A politically constituted commission endowed with federal authority would probably be forced ultimately, as contended by Professor Meyer, by the rivalry of local competition, to base rates it would authorize principally on geographical conditions. The length of haul would govern rates on each article. But the commerce of the country has thriven *because* the railways have largely ignored distance in making their rates,—because they have broken down geographical limitations. For example, three-dollar shoes made in Boston are sold at the same price all over the Union. The time may come, when the country is developed, with its industries settled down in definite lines, when it would be advisable to have freight rates on each article based on distance. But that time does not seem to have arrived yet even in England, and it is certainly a long way off in this expanding country.

Mr. Hugh Munro Ross, in his recent work on British railways (Edward Arnold: London, 1904), page 186, says:

The theory of equal mileage rates has over and over again been examined and found wanting by parliamentary committees and royal commissions as unfair to the railways and bad for the public interest.

COMMISSIONERS SHOULD HAVE TECHNICAL TRAINING.

For many a year to come there is little doubt that the interest of the whole country can best be served if the practice of the railways is not interfered with of introducing experimental rates which are abolished when found ill-advised or unprofitable. It is difficult to see how a federal commission endowed with direct authority over interstate freight rates is to permit the necessary latitude for experimental rates unless the commission is made non-political, and is composed largely of members who have had technical training in rate-making. It is useless to urge that the measures proposed at the present time do not include granting direct rate-making powers to the commission.

If the commission is to be given power to redress what is wrong in rate-making, it is at least

possible that *any* rate may soon be attacked and the commission called upon to name the rate that shall hold. Therefore it is of the utmost importance both to the public and to the railways that the commission shall be composed of members who are trained in the business they have in hand.

For the railways the most hopeful sign in all this agitation is that the most advanced thinkers on this subject, and those best fitted to advise, are all coming to the conclusion that the character of the future commission is the crux of the whole matter.

Mr. Midgley, in a recent issue of the *Railway Age*, quoted the clauses in the Interstate Commerce Law of 1887 that provided that,—

Not more than three of the commissioners shall be appointed from the same political party.

No person in the employ of or holding any official relation to any common carrier subject to the provisions of this act, or owning stock or bonds thereof, or who is in any manner pecuniarily interested therein, shall enter upon the duties of or hold such office.

In commenting sarcastically upon these provisions, he said:

If a medical or legal commission were to be created, men learned in those professions would be selected, and the unfitness of other parties would be conceded; but the opposite rule has almost invariably been pursued when the question of a commission to regulate railroads has been under consideration.

In his Boston *Transcript* article, after expounding his plan of establishing a special railroad court, President Hadley said:

With such a court to exercise the judicial functions now assumed by the Interstate Commerce Commission, the character of that commission would naturally be changed. It should consist, not of lawyers, but of railroad experts, and should be charged with the duty of furnishing technical assistance to the new court in determining obscure and complex matters of fact.

The need of some expert authority which shall represent the court, as distinct from either of the contending parties, becomes very great. Such a technical commission should, I think, include three men who were trained in the traffic department of the railroad service, one in the operating department, and one in the financial department. It would not be necessary, or even desirable, to include a representative of the shippers or a representative of the legal department of railroads. The presence of such men on the commission would simply obscure the purpose for which it was intended,—the purpose of ascertaining facts needed by the court as a basis for its decision.

But from the railway point of view the most encouraging recent development in the agitation of the rate-making question was the speech of President Roosevelt before the Texas Legislature, in which he said:

The proper exercise of that power is conditioned upon the securing of proper legislation which will enable the representatives of the public to see to it that any unjust or oppressive discriminating rates are altered so as to be a just and fair rate, and are altered immediately. I know perfectly well that when you give that power there is a chance of its being occasionally abused. There must be a certain trust placed in the common sense and common honesty of those who are to enforce the law. If it ever falls to my lot (and I

think it will) to nominate a board to carry out such a law, I shall nominate men, so far as I am able, on whose ability, courage, and integrity I can count,—men who will not be swayed by any influence whatever, direct or indirect, social, political, or any other, to show improper favoritism for the railroads, and who, on the other hand, if a railroad is unjustly attacked, no matter if that attack has behind it the feeling of prejudice of 99 per cent. of the people, will stand up against that attack.

THE LA FOLLETTE RAILROAD LAW IN WISCONSIN.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

(Professor of Political Economy in the University of Wisconsin.)

WHEN the record of the Wisconsin Legislature of 1905 is summed up it will show a series of enactments remarkable in their union of progressivism and conservatism. This is especially true of the law regulating railway charges and services. The Legislature and the governor, as is well known, were elected on this issue, after a campaign national in the interest aroused. This campaign, with its split in the Republican party and its new alignment of voters, was the culmination of a struggle extending through the past ten years and marked during preceding legislative sessions by an anti-pass law, a law taxing railway companies on the full value of their property, and a primary-election law. The part enacted by Governor La Follette in this movement was portrayed in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for March last. The purpose of the present article is to analyze the railway law just passed, to point out its significant features, and to indicate both its likeness and unlikeness to similar laws in other States, and the reasons advanced therefor.

Wisconsin was one of the four "Granger" States, which in the early seventies revolutionized the policies of the State governments toward railways. The "Potter" law of 1874 was similar to laws enacted in the same year in Iowa and Minnesota, and in 1871 in Illinois. These laws created State railway commissions, with power to fix maximum rates. Coming, as they did, in the midst of an industrial panic and depression, and being admittedly crude and novel, the railway companies were able, in 1876, to secure their repeal in all of the Granger States except Illinois. The agitation, however, was renewed, and, following the year when the interstate-commerce law was enacted, the States of Iowa and Minnesota returned to the policy of 1874-76. A similar

bill, introduced in the Wisconsin Legislature in 1889 by the Hon. H. A. Taylor, afterward Pacific Railway commissioner and Assistant Treasurer of the United States, came near adoption, but was defeated. It came up again in legislative sessions during the nineties, but was again defeated. It was then held in abeyance by Governor La Follette and his supporters until the anti-pass, taxation, and primary-election laws could be disposed of. Finally, in the session of 1903, following the governor's message on the subject, a bill was again introduced, but after a heated discussion in and out of the Legislature, including a second and special message from the governor, it was defeated in the Assembly. The record of that Legislature and of the governor became the issue of 1904, and there has perhaps never been an act of State legislation so eagerly studied by all the people, with such masses of statistics, and such detailed comparisons with other States, as the revised and amended law of 1905, which came out of the proposed law of 1903. That bill was modeled after the law of Iowa, but the law of 1905 profits by the experience of all the States, and by many decisions of the State and federal courts. Compared with other laws, it is less sweeping and radical at some points, but more strongly bulwarked at others.

AN APPOINTIVE COMMISSION.

This is seen in the importance attached to the provisions for selecting the three State railroad commissioners, and in the grant of large powers, with wide discretion in the use of those powers. Both of these features are a reversal of the tendency shown in other States. The salary of each commissioner is fixed at \$5,000, a sum more than double that of the Iowa commis-

sioners and 40 per cent. greater than that of the Illinois commissioners. The secretary receives \$2,500, while those of adjoining States are paid \$1,500 and \$1,800. The terms of the commissioners are six years, one to be appointed each alternate year. Of course, the object in view is to keep the commission from falling into the hands of the railways, and to avoid such an outcome as that in Iowa, for example, where the commission is notoriously reputed, throughout Wisconsin, at least, to be composed of three men nominated, respectively, by the three great railway systems of that State. The contest on this point turned mainly on the method of selection, whether by popular election or by governor's appointment. It is quite noteworthy that the railways contended for election, while the governor and the legislative majority were for appointment; and this notwithstanding the example of nine States which have changed from appointive to elective commissions, leaving only six of the States that regulate rates with appointive commissions, against sixteen with elective commissions. More especially is this reversal of the trend in other States noteworthy since Wisconsin, under the leadership of Governor La Follette, has just adopted a comprehensive primary-election law designed for the very purpose of preventing the corporations from controlling party conventions and elective officers.

Insistence on an appointive commission by those who had so recently reformed the primaries was alleged by the railway spokesmen as a gross inconsistency. They argued against concentration of power in the hands of the executive, and were willing to risk the election of radical commissioners in the present state of the public mind, looking to the courts for protection, and expecting such commissioners to discredit themselves and the law and to provoke a reaction, as had been the case with the Potter law in 1876, rather than see the first commission appointed by the present governor. It is felt on all sides that the character of these first appointments will, more than anything else, decide the fate of the new law, and it is expected that each biennial election of a governor preceding the biennial appointment of a commissioner will keep the voters awake on the railway question. The nature of the duties and powers of the commission also indicates that selection by appointment rather than by election will more likely secure men of the qualifications required.

THE ROADS STILL FREE TO MAKE SPECIAL RATES.

These duties and powers are stated in the broadest terms, with very little that is mandatory and very much that is discretionary. In

the first place, a break again is made away from the trend in other States, in that the commission is not required to fix a classification of goods or a schedule of all rates to be charged, but is authorized to review any or all rates made by the roads, and then, after a full hearing, to substitute a reasonable rate. The commission does not lay down any rule for arriving at a tariff, but takes into account every element that has a bearing or influence on the rate. The law in this respect is less radical than other recent legislation, for in twelve years the number of States in which the commission *must* make complete schedules of freight rates for each railroad has increased from seven to thirteen, while the number in which the commission *may* make specific rates has decreased from eight to seven.

This, too, is a change from the tenor of the bills hitherto introduced in the Wisconsin Legislature. Perhaps no part of the proposed law aroused more discussion throughout the State than the one that led to this feature of the adopted law. It was on this point that many of the manufacturers and other shippers were aroused and were led to join with the roads in opposition to any legislation whatever. It was contended that a State commission could not take into account competitive and market conditions, because it could establish a schedule only upon a rigid mileage basis,—a "distance tariff," so called. This would interfere with many industries and localities which had been built up through "special," or "commodity" or "group," rates, in which distance was ignored in order to place competitors on an equality in the great markets. There were also "transit" rates, "concentration" rates, "local" rates, and "terminal" rates,—altogether, a bewildering variety of peculiar rates not amenable to the mechanical classification and inelastic schedules which a public body was assumed to be bound by. The governor had recommended that the commission be given power to make commodity rates, and to vary them with the requirements of any situation, "assigning upon their records their reasons for any special exception made." In the final outcome, the law definitely states that "nothing in this act shall be construed to prevent concentration, commodity, transit, and other special contract rates, but all such rates shall be open to all shippers for a like kind of traffic under similar circumstances and conditions, . . . provided all such rates shall be under the supervision and regulation of the commission." Thus, by leaving the initiative to the roads, they are free, as before, to adapt their rates to industrial conditions, but the commission is at hand to check their acts if they are

unjustly discriminatory. The roads can even make non-compensatory rates in order to stimulate business and increase other forms of traffic if they see fit to do so,—an act which, if ordered by a State commission, would be overruled by the courts.

One feature of the law which, however, is the same as that in sixteen of the twenty States that regulate rates is the power of the commission to fix an absolute rate rather than to declare what shall be a maximum rate. It thus is made unlawful as much for the company to charge less than the commission rate as to charge more than that rate. This naturally follows from the intention to prevent unjust discrimination between shippers and communities,—an object equally important with that of preventing excessive charges.

RATES MUST BE PROVED UNREASONABLE BEFORE ACTION IS TAKEN.

The theory of the new law seems to be that the railroads have their experts with years of experience in making rates and handling traffic ; but that no body of men, however expert, can be trusted in all cases and at all times to use their uncontrolled power, upon which the wealth and prosperity of the State depends, in a manner fair and reasonable. On the other hand, no body of men selected by the State can have the expert qualifications and the detailed information that come from daily contact with the problems. On this account, the rates made by the railroads are in effect held to be, *prima facie*, reasonable and lawful. This is a radical distinction from the laws in those States which require the commission to fix a complete schedule of rates, the evident assumption there being that the road's rates are, *prima facie*, unlawful and unreasonable.

These rates in Wisconsin, however, may be challenged, but the burden of proof is upon the complainant to show that they are unreasonable. The railroad commission is the board of review to investigate the complaint, with all the powers over witnesses, books, and testimony intrusted to a court of record. It gives the railroad company and the complainant ten days' notice of a hearing ; upon which, if it find proof that the rate is "unreasonable or unjustly discriminatory," it fixes a reasonable rate, and its order takes effect of its own force in twenty days after service on the railway officer. Thenceforth, the legal situation is reversed. The rates fixed by the commission now in turn become, *prima facie*, lawful and reasonable, and the burden of proof is upon the railway company if it goes into court and asks that they be overruled. Upon the several

steps involved in these provisions the contest in the Senate committee, where the principal struggle occurred, was prolonged and intense, and it is most remarkable that, starting with opposing views, that committee reported a bill unanimously which then was unanimously adopted by both houses and signed by the governor.

The first step in the controversy related to the source of complaint against the rates or regulations of the roads. The companies contended that only shippers were affected, and that they only should be entitled to enter complaint. But it was shown that public interests were involved, and that localities might be injuriously affected. Consequently, the law entertains complaints "of any person, firm, corporation, or association, or of any mercantile, agricultural, or manufacturing society, or of any body politic or municipal organization." A railroad itself is permitted to make complaint against another railroad, and there is nothing in the law to prevent the commission from raising the rates of a road that is resorting to a destructive rate war.

THE COMMISSION ITSELF MAY TAKE THE INITIATIVE.

Next, the railroads, continuing the idea that the commission should be a quasi-judicial body, held that, conceding that it might decide on complaints, it should not itself initiate investigations. But the committee decided that the commission should be actually, what the courts have supported legally, an arm of the Legislature, and gave it power, "upon its own motion," to investigate any rate or charge. It thus becomes the organ, as stated by the governor, "of the great body of the people of Wisconsin, who bear in the aggregate the principal burden of the freight rates," but who "could not appear before the commission to make complaint," nor "state their complaint or allege the measure of the wrong imposed upon them." The procedure, when initiation is by the commission, is the same as when a complaint is made.

THE RAILROADS AND THE COURTS.

After the commission has made its order to substitute a rate or to change a regulation, the question arises as to the status of the interested parties before the courts. The railroads asked that they should have the right of appeal, and that such appeal should operate to stay the order fixing the rate until a judicial decision was reached. They conceded that where the findings of the commission are sustained by the court the rate should take effect as of the date fixed by the commission's order, and that the carriers should make repayment of all freight rates in excess thereof, with interest at the legal rate ;

yet when the roads attempted to draw up a plan by which these repayments could be made, it was found wholly impracticable. It was agreed that they always have the remedy of injunction anyhow. But the committee finally decided against the right of appeal, and provided that the railroad or other party in interest might commence an action in the Circuit Court against the commission as defendant to vacate its order, on the ground that any rate or classification made is unlawful, or that any regulation or practice prescribed is unreasonable. It might then be carried to the Supreme Court of the State. Provision is made for speedy trial.

The grounds for this procedure were constitutional in character. If an appeal were taken, the court would open the case *de novo*, would review the proceedings of the commission and pass upon its reasons, while the railroad's rates would continue to be, *prima facie*, lawful, and the burden of proof would rest upon the commission. But by the procedure adopted the commission's rates are, *prima facie*, lawful, the burden of proof is upon the railroad, and the court passes upon the lawfulness of the rate itself exactly as it would pass upon the constitutionality of a statute. The commission retains its rights as a legislative arm, and the court acts in its strictly judicial capacity of determining, under the constitution, whether the commission has exceeded its powers in establishing a rate that is unreasonable,—that is, unlawful. Incidental to this reasoning, but of great importance in determining the personnel of the commission, the latter is given a greater dignity than would be the case where an attorney enters exceptions and simply gives notice of appeal when the commission's rate or regulation is adverse. Of course, the road has the right of petitioning for a writ of injunction, but in that case it also must make out a *prima facie* cause, and the law provides that the temporary injunction, suspending or staying the order of the commission, shall not be issued *ex parte*, but only upon notice to the commission and hearing.

An interesting innovation in this procedure has been adopted, to the effect that if evidence is introduced by the railroad before the court different or additional to that offered before the commission the court shall transmit a copy of such evidence to the commission and shall allow fifteen days for the commission to amend or rescind its order. If the commission rescinds, the action is dismissed; if it amends, then the

amended order takes the place of the original order, as though made by the commission in the first instance. Otherwise, judgment is rendered on the original order. This unique provision is designed to induce the railroad to submit its entire case in the first instance to the commission, and thus to prevent the road from taking advantage of the commission, and thereby bringing discredit on it through repeated reversals of its decisions by the courts. This suggestion arose from knowledge of the treatment suffered by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and by commissions in other States.

A COMPREHENSIVE ENACTMENT.

There are miscellaneous features of the law which can only be mentioned. It, of course, prohibits rebates and discrimination, provides for inquiry into violations, for prosecutions and penalties, thus giving the commission power to enforce its orders. It covers passenger service as well as freight service. It includes express companies, private-car companies, refrigerator lines, sleeping-car companies, and interurban electric lines. It controls all rules and regulations, switching charges, and so on, that in any manner affect the charge for transportation. It requires reasonably adequate service and facilities. It gives the commission power to require accounts, and especially "copies of all contracts which relate to the transportation of persons or property, or any service in connection therewith, made or entered into by it with any other railroad company, car company, equipment company, express or transportation company, or any shipper or shippers, or other person or persons doing business with it." It requires to be filed with the commission a verified list of all passes, tickets, or mileage books issued free or for less than the full established rates in cash, together with the names of recipients and the amounts received and the reasons for issuing them. The commission may employ experts and fix their compensation, and is required to determine the cost of construction and the value of physical properties, as well as various details regarding indebtedness, wages and hours of labor, and accidents. These and the other provisions described place the commission in the possession of accurate knowledge of all facts pertaining to the Wisconsin business of the roads, with both the weapon of publicity and the reserve power of compulsion.



STREET-RAILWAY FARES IN LARGE CITIES.

BY HOWARD S. KNOWLTON.

IN the February number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* there appeared an interesting article by Mr. Edward Dana Durand upon street-railway fares in the United States, based largely upon the late Bulletin 3 of the United States Census Bureau. From the statistics given in this bulletin the author attempted to show that a reasonable profit could be derived from the street-railway business in the larger cities of this country if the present five-cent fare were abandoned in favor of something lower,—presumably, six tickets for twenty-five cents, or, possibly, a straight four-cent fare. He further contended that a still lower fare would be just in some individual cases, even at the present time, pointing out the probability that, in most great cities, the future growth of traffic will make further reductions in fare possible from time to time.

The importance of the street railway in the affairs of every-day life in the populous centers of the United States was ably shown by Mr. Durand. He emphasized most forcibly the improvement in transportation facilities which the almost universal adoption of electric motive power has brought about, admitting that the average passenger gets a longer ride to-day for his money than he did fifteen years ago; that the service is accompanied by higher speed and greater comfort; that the overcrowding of our great cities has been lessened enormously, and, finally, that the street-railway service is indeed worth more than we have to pay for it, although he questioned whether we do not have to pay more than it fairly costs. It would seem worth while, therefore, to look into this matter of fares still more closely, and attempt to ascertain from the standpoint of the transportation engineer whether or not the present charges are too high.

Any discussion of the rates charged by public-service corporations is pretty sure to resolve itself sooner or later into the old question, "What is a reasonable return upon an investment of this character?" Manifestly, this is a difficult problem to solve. In Mr. Durand's article, 5 per cent. is considered adequate, on the ground that there is little or no risk in the street-railway business of a great city. There is certainly room for wide difference of opinion upon this point. Granted the economic truth that the rate of return upon an investment

should be directly proportional to the risk, it is by no means clear that risk is conspicuously absent from the street-railway business, when one considers the harm which adverse franchise legislation is capable of doing to the symmetrical development and maintenance of a broad-minded transportation scheme in a given community.

The tendency of legislative bodies to demand heavier and heavier compensation for franchise rights of even very limited life is familiar to every student of street-railway affairs. Even supposing that we should determine 6 per cent., for instance, to represent a just return upon the street-railway investment of a particular city, we have in no sense solved the problem for other cities, for the reason that no two cities in this country are identical in topography, distribution of population, commercial and social conditions. Herein lies the danger of applying average figures to the specific problems of a particular city, as a basis for legislation. Accurate comparisons are out of the question between cities of the peninsula type, for instance, having a comparatively small track mileage and a great traffic density upon that mileage, and cities built upon the radiating plan, having a greater mileage in proportion to the population served and smaller gross receipts per capita. The analysis of traffic problems in New York bears little relation to the dissection of transportation facilities and possibilities in Boston. The density of population has an enormous influence upon street-railway profits, and a knowledge of these differences in city plans and their bearing upon the earnings of transportation companies is absolutely essential to the theory of properly conducted transportation. Hence it is necessary to bear in mind that while average figures are interesting, and in many cases useful in establishing general conclusions, they must not be allowed to decide important questions of detail until the maximum and minimum limits of the special problem in hand are considered.

In connection with the question of an adequate return upon the street-railway investment of a large city, it is worth while to recall the ruling of Judge Seaman in the Milwaukee four-cent fare litigation of 1898. The substance of this ruling was that the best legal precedents forbade the imposition of such burdens that a reasonable rate of return upon the investment

could not be secured. In the case of limited-time franchises, losses of investment are possible and indeed probable at the expiration of the franchise period, and such losses, in common with all other contingencies possible to foresee, should be provided for by annual charges upon the earnings, upon the theory that—whatever happens—the investor must be guaranteed the return of his original investment intact before it is proper to declare annual returns upon that investment. Therefore, the element of depreciation must be taken into account before it can be determined that the apparent earnings derived from an operating enterprise are excessive, and there is much force also to the consideration which must be given to the question of amortizing losses from expiring franchises. A return of 6 per cent. upon loans upon real estate, mortgages, and similar securities is a common rate, and surely a better rate must be afforded for the risks of investment than can be accepted on securities of the class in which there is no risk.

CAN A FOUR-CENT FARE BE MADE TO PAY?

It is only just to Mr. Durand to state that he included an allowance for depreciation in estimating the total annual cost of street-railway service in a city of over 500,000 inhabitants, with the idea of determining a reasonable fare. The allowance which he made, however, will be considered further on with respect to its adequacy in the face of present-day conditions of operation. Meanwhile let us turn to the census figures themselves and see what a five-cent fare means in comparison with a four-cent and a three-cent fare applied to the street railways of the United States as a whole. Table 10, page 11, of the Bulletin gives the income account of the companies reporting in 1902, beginning with gross earnings from operation of \$247,553,999. Assuming these earnings reduced to a five, four, and three-cent basis, the table becomes:

	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
Gross earnings from operation.....	5.00	4.00	3.00
Operating expenses.....	2.88	2.88	2.88
Net earnings from operation.....	2.12	1.12	.12
Income from other sources.....	.06	.06	.06
Gross income less operating expenses.....	2.18	1.18	.18
Taxes.....	.25		
Interest.....	.77		
Rent.....	.51		
Miscellaneous.....	.08		
Deductions from income. 1.57.....	1.57	1.57	1.57
Net income.....	.61	— .39	— 1.39
Dividends.....	.22		
Surplus.....	.29		

It is clear from the foregoing figures that neither a four-cent fare nor a three-cent fare applied on the electric railways of this country would be adequate to support the business on a dividend basis. Neither would be sufficient to pay operating expenses and fixed charges. No allowance except that available from the surplus appears in these figures to cover depreciation charges and other sinking funds. The claim that lowered fares would result in correspondingly greater earnings is not supported by Mr. Durand, who states that in all probability five-sixths of the present patronage of the street railways is so near compulsory in character that it would not be affected by a change of fares, while that traffic which may be attributed to pleasure or convenience is so comparatively small that to double or treble it would increase the total business by only a fraction. Recent experience in Cleveland shows clearly the uselessness of claiming greatly increased business resulting from lowered fares. Tests made by the Cleveland Electric Railway Company in January and February, 1905, showed an actual stimulation of traffic of but 1 per cent. during the three-cent-zone test, and but 1.38 per cent. during the four-cent test. On the other hand, there was a loss in gross earnings of about \$764 per day with the three-cent fare in effect thirteen hours per day, while the decrease in earnings during the four-cent test averaged about \$1,375 per day. Applying these results to the whole system, the three-cent fare would cause the company a loss of over \$1,000,000 per year if it were in effect twenty-four hours per day. In these tests the Cleveland company endeavored to get at the facts, with no intention to prove or disprove contentions that have been made as to the actual results of lowered fares. While the tests were not entirely conclusive, they clearly showed the disastrous results of both three and four-cent fares in so far as the gross receipts were concerned.

LONGEST RIDES FOR FIVE CENTS IN THE WORLD.

The census figures printed in the Bulletin clearly show that, on the average, the cost of carrying a passenger an indefinite distance is less in a great city than in a small town. It must not be forgotten, however, that the average ride is probably far in excess in the case of the former of the distance traversed in the small town. The distance which one may ride for a single fare of five cents is many times greater in the former instance. Even the moderate-sized city offers a remarkably cheap transportation rate per mile. It is difficult to see the grounds that exist for complaint in the matter.

of urban fares when for a single nickel one can ride ten or fifteen miles, transferring with liberal frequency at intersection points.

Mr. Durand's statement that there has been no lowering of fares in most of our great urban communities for several decades is true so far as the flat rate of five cents is concerned, but in reality there have been many instances of the equivalent of lowering fares. The transfer privilege has increased enormously in the last decade, and this, combined with the addition of many miles of new trackage, gives the public so much more for the same money than it enjoyed in the early 90's or previously that the result is much the same as though there had been a specific cutting in rates on the part of operating companies. In 1902, about 20 per cent. of the total passengers carried rode upon free transfers, as compared with a very small number in 1890. The transfer passengers form a still greater proportion of the total in some of the larger cities of the country. During the year ending September 30, 1900, the Boston Elevated Railway Company carried almost 49,000,000 passengers on free transfers, the revenue passengers being about 201,000,000. Over 19.5 per cent. of the total traffic was equaled by the transfer business. Last year the same company carried 139,000,000 transfer passengers, and the revenue passengers totaled about 241,000,000. The percentage had risen to 36.5. In St. Louis, in 1902, the transfers were over 27.5 per cent. of the total, and in Baltimore, during the same year, the percentage was about 22. All this means that five cents will buy more transportation as the transfer facilities and extensions increase, which is only another way of stating that rates have, to all intents and purposes, been lowered. In this connection it is worth mentioning that the American nickel buys the cheapest transportation in the world; that in few large American cities is the average passenger ride less than three miles, or the maximum possible less than ten; whereas, in British cities a three-mile ride almost universally costs six cents.

THE SHORT LIFE OF APPARATUS.

Granted that the cost of carrying a passenger in a large city is less as far as the operating expenses are concerned, it by no means follows that the five-cent fare is too high. The true investment must be considered with regard to a reasonable return in dividends; the amount of service and its quality must be accounted for; and, finally, the cost of operation, including fixed charges, must be realized. These are difficult quantities to determine, in some particulars.

The depreciation problem is, perhaps, the most difficult factor in the case. Unfortunately, little data of scientific value is as yet in the possession of street-railway companies in regard to the proper allowance which should annually be made to cover that deterioration in their physical property which cannot be made good in the regular course of maintenance.

It is evident, upon a little consideration, that no matter how constantly a piece of rolling stock, for example, may be repaired and placed in first-class operating condition, there is certain to come a time when it is cast aside or sold, as unfit for further use. This may be due either to the wearing out caused by usage, or to the outgrowing of the capacity of the equipment, as Mr. Durand well expresses it. The equipment is ever threatened with new and improved forms which may supersede it before it has reached half its theoretical age. It is difficult for the writer to agree with Mr. Durand's statement that a very moderate percentage of the value of the property would represent a sufficient allowance for the depreciation due to future progress in urban transportation. For, within the past decade and long since the trolley car came to its own, the development of the roadbed, track, power stations, and rolling stock has undergone some remarkable changes. To-day, six thousand dollars is a fair estimate of the cost of a new double-truck car equipped and ready for service, against half that sum in 1897, or thereabouts. Four-motor equipments of greater power, longer and heavier cars, increases in power-station capacity, and improvements in the permanent way have in many instances superseded the lighter equipment of but a few years ago.

In some of the larger cities the building of subways and elevated roads by street railways, or their equipment with the so-called "multiple unit" cars, driven by motors far exceeding in power per ton of car weight the equipment of limited express trains on steam railways and battleships on the sea, have introduced expenses literally undreamed of in the early days of electric traction. In our greater cities, the transportation problem is so complex that no single type of equipment is adequate to handle it. Desirable as it is that equipment shall be literally worked to death in meeting the tremendous demands of rapid transit in American cities of the first rank, it is dangerous to assume that the further advance of the electrical engineer and the street-railway manager is not to be expected. All this means that the apparatus now in service is certain to be short-lived, and that the allowance made for depreciation cannot be made low with safety.

A FAIR ALLOWANCE FOR DEPRECIATION.

In the light of present electric railway experience, it is very difficult to see how Mr. Durand's allowance of 5 per cent. simple depreciation or 3 per cent. compound interest on the investment is adequate to meet the conditions of today. Several years ago, Philip Dawson, an English electric-railway engineer of distinguished reputation, published an exhaustive book entitled "Electric Railways and Tramways," based largely upon a visit to this country covering many months, in which he personally studied the American street-railway situation in great detail. The allowances for depreciation which he published as the result of his experience were as follows, omitting several minor items:

	Per cent.
Building	1-2
Turbines	7-9
Boilers	8-10
Engines (slow speed)	4-6
Generating units (direct coupled)	4-8
Transformers	5-6
Batteries	9-11
Rotary converters	8-10
Bonding	6-10
Overhead system	3-8
Cars	4-6
Shop equipment	12-15
Motors	5-8
Track work	7-13

Manifestly, it is a hard problem to select a percentage from this or any other reliable table of the sort which shall be a fair allowance for the component parts' life. From 8 to 10 per cent. would seem to be the minimum which could reasonably be allowed. Three per cent. seems utterly out of the question in any event, as the money would almost certainly be used to extinguish the depreciation charges long before even simple interest began to mount up noticeably. The conditions of street-railway operation do not, as a rule, favor such retention of funds.

THE COST OF A MODERN TROLLEY SYSTEMS.

The determination of the true investment per mile of track in a street-railway system doing business in a great city is also a difficult matter. Mr. Durand concludes that the present electric surface railways of our large cities—five hundred thousand inhabitants or over—including even the small amount of elevated, cable, and underground trolley track owned by railways which operate chiefly on the surface with overhead trolley, could be completely reproduced in their present style at a cost of not more than \$60,000 per mile of track. He bases these conclusions upon his interpretation of Mr. Bion J.

Arnold's "Report on the Chicago Transportation Problem," presented to the government of that municipality in 1902. The writer cannot so interpret Mr. Arnold's figures. According to them, it seems that "the cost of a new, reorganized, and combined street-railway system, exclusive of subways, with everything first class throughout, if constructed new, would be \$69,800,000 for 745.81 miles of track,"—an average of \$93,700 per mile. This estimate is made up by Mr. Arnold as follows:

745.81 miles of single track	\$80,370,587.97
Overhead trolley and feeders	2,985,207.87
Power plant and sub-stations, including machinery for operating 2,000 cars at 50 kw. per car,—power-house, 100,000 kw.; sub-stations, 200,000 kw. (power-house, \$110 per kw.; sub-stations, \$40 per kw.)	19,000,000.00
2,000 double-truck cars at \$8,000	12,000,000.00
250 snow-plows, sweepers, etc.	1,000,000.00
Wagons, tools, and other equipment	169,204.18
Power-house site, centrally located	750,000.00
15 sub-station sites, at \$5,000	75,000.00
Car-shop site	100,000.00
20 car-house sites	400,000.00
Office sites, centrally located	300,000.00
Car shops, buildings, and machinery	300,000.00
20 car-houses, at \$100,000	2,000,000.00
Office building, furniture, and fixtures	400,000.00
Total	\$99,800,000.00
Or per mile	93,700.00

While these figures apply, of course, to Chicago conditions, it is difficult to see wherein it would be safe to figure much lower in estimating the investment cost of a complete modern overhead trolley system of anything like the same magnitude elsewhere. And this is because the allowances for the items in detail fall close to the line of present conditions of expenditure in the practice of street railroading. In the case of a smaller system, the cost per mile would tend to increase.

IS THE FIVE-CENT FARE TOO HIGH?

We have briefly considered the quantity and quality of service sold on the larger street railways, the element of depreciation as a factor in fixed charges, the reasonableness of a 6 per cent. dividend, and the estimated cost of a representative system per mile of track. It remains to discuss the last paragraph of Mr. Durand's article, in which he endeavors to prove that five cents is too high a fare under the conditions of operation in cities of the first class. I venture to quote this paragraph in full, as it seems to contain the crux of Mr. Durand's analysis:

It has been estimated that \$60,000 per mile of track would cover the cost of constructing and equipping the average surface railway in cities of more than 500,000 inhabitants. A return of 5 per cent. on this investment should be adequate, in view of the fact that there is

almost no risk in the street-railway business of a great city. A further allowance of 5 per cent. yearly on the investment should be ample to cover depreciation in all its forms. Interest and depreciation would thus amount to \$6,000 per year for each mile of track. The number of fare passengers carried by surface lines in cities of the first class averages about 450,000 annually per mile, so that 1½ cents per passenger would suffice for interest and depreciation charges. Adding to this amount the 3 cents required for operating expenses and payments to the public treasury, we have 4½ cents as a reasonable fare under average conditions. If, instead of 5 per cent., the allowance for depreciation be fixed at 3 per cent.,—at which rate, by compounding, a fund would be accumulated sufficient to replace the entire plant in about twenty years,—a quarter of a cent could be taken off the fare. It is practically certain, in view of the increase of traffic which would follow a lessening of the charge for transportation, that the rate of six tickets

for twenty-five cents would, in most large cities, return a fair profit on the capital actually invested. In those cities which, like New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, now demand from the street-railways considerable payments for franchise privileges in addition to ordinary taxes, the abandonment of such requirements in favor of lower fares, in accordance with the principle now generally approved, would render a straight four-cent fare reasonable. A still lower charge would be just in some individual cases, even at the present time; and it is highly probable that, in most great cities, future growth of traffic will make further reductions in fare possible from time to time.

Assuming that 450,000 passengers per mile of track represents the traffic per year, it is interesting to see what happens to the five-cent fare under the following six sets of conditions as tabulated:

Investment per mile.	—Per cent.—		Interest and depreciation, cents per passenger.	Balance for oper- ating expenses and taxes, cents	Possible fare re- duction, operating expenses plus taxes = 3 cents.	Operating ratio (taxes, 3 cent.)
	Interest.	Dep'c't'n.				
1....\$93,700	6	8	2.9	2.1	..	36%
2.... 83,700	6	6	2.5	2.5	..	44
3.... 80,000	6	8	2.5	2.5	..	44
4.... 80,000	6	6	2.1	2.9	..	52
5.... 60,000	6	8	1.9	3.1	.1	56
6.... 60,000	6	6	1.6	3.4	.4	62

Case 1 in this table shows conclusively that if we are correct in assuming \$93,700 per mile as the investment, 6 per cent. as a fair dividend, 8 per cent. as an equitable depreciation charge, and taxes as .3 cent, the operating ratio must be only 36 per cent. in order to meet all expenses with a five-cent fare. Insurance has charitably been included under taxes. Under these conditions the traffic must exceed 450,000 passengers per mile, as 36 per cent. is far below the operating ratio feasible, or even possible, on a properly conducted street-railway system. In case 2, assuming 6 per cent. depreciation, the operating ratio becomes 44 per cent.,—still below the average met in good practice. For the sake of illustration, case 3 assumes an investment of \$80,000 per mile, with 8 per cent. depreciation. Still the operating ratio remains at 44 per cent., and thus far there has not been the slightest possible margin for fare reduction, on the basis of Mr. Durand's allowance of 3 cents as the sum of operating expenses and taxes, and our revised figures as to investment, interest, and depreciation. Cutting down the depreciation to 6 per cent. in case 4, the operating ratio becomes 52 per cent., which is reasonable in some cities and inadequate in others. Finally, if we accept \$60,000 as a proper investment per mile for the sake of the resulting figures, case 5, we find that if we neglect the setting aside of any sinking funds to redeem outstanding bonds, or provide

for unusual accidents, strikes, etc., a tenth of a cent can be cut from the five-cent fare with an operating ratio of 56 per cent., enabling the wholesale buyer of transportation to purchase 20.4 rides for one dollar; while in case 6, the allowance of 6 per cent. depreciation means an operating ratio of 62 per cent. and 21.7 fares per dollar. The difficulty of applying such ratios widely is easily apparent from the single case of the Boston Elevated Railway Company, whose operating ratio closely approximates 70 per cent.

It is only necessary to investigate the peculiar conditions of operation which exist in different cities to become convinced that the haphazardism of averages is an unsafe basis of fare reduction. Lowering of fares on urban systems cannot be undertaken under present-day conditions without gross injustice to both the public and the street railways. To the street railways the pinch would come in unreasonably low returns upon the investment, while the public would be forced to endure inferior service because the companies could not afford to continue their business on the present liberal scale. The writer believes that any considerable reduction in fares from those at present in force would ultimately lead to the demand for the restoration of the old rates, on the ground that the American people,—at least, those living in the great cities,—prefer good service at five cents to poor accommodations at any lower rate.

THE NEW MORTGAGE TAX IN NEW YORK.

BY EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN.

(McVickar Professor of Political Economy, Columbia University.)

ON June 3, 1905, a mortgage-tax law was enacted by the State of New York, to take effect on July 1, 1905. This tax has aroused widespread interest. It may best be discussed under four heads: (1) What is the mortgage tax? (2) Why was it imposed? (3) What will be its probable effects? (4) What are its relations to the problem of tax reform in New York and throughout the country?

In New York, as in most of the American States, mortgages have always been taxable as a constituent element in a man's property. Under the general property tax, individuals are assessable upon their entire property, personal as well as real. As a matter of fact, however, the attempt to assess personal property has become more and more unsuccessful, until in the larger industrial centers of the United States practically no attempt is made to assess mortgages. In some States, mortgages are now specifically exempt by law. In other States, more or less strenuous but equally unavailing attempts are made to reach mortgages. Under the "hit-and-miss" method of most of the American commonwealths, mortgages are sometimes assessed when they are brought to the specific attention of the assessor, but otherwise escape.

The new law frees mortgages from taxation under the general property tax at the local rate, which is changed from year to year and varies in the different counties in New York from \$1.50 to \$2.50 per \$1,000. In place of this an annual specific tax at the rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. is imposed upon all new mortgages after July 1, 1905, with the exception of bonds and mortgages issued by the State or local divisions, mortgages issued to the commissioners of the United States Deposit Fund (which consists of a few million dollars remaining from the distribution of the surplus revenue of 1836), mortgages of corporations or associations organized exclusively for charitable, religious, or educational purposes, and mortgages to the extent of \$3,000 executed by the members of local building, loan, and saving associations. The tax is computed from the date of recording to the following July 1 or prior due date of mortgage, and is payable at the recording office when the mortgage is offered for record; a receipt for the tax must be indorsed upon the mortgage

and recorded therewith. Thereafter the tax is payable annually at the same recording office until the mortgage is satisfied. If there is any understanding or agreement by which the mortgagor is bound to pay the tax, the mortgage is rendered void. This provision, which does not apply to corporate mortgages, is unfortunate in that it is apt to put the lender at the mercy of an unscrupulous borrower.

The point to be emphasized is this: That whereas the old tax was honored in the breach rather than in the observance, the new tax is so carefully framed, and the provisions for collection and administration are so elaborate, that there is no doubt but that the tax actually will be paid. Some doubt is expressed, however, as to whether the tax can be collected from non-resident holders of New York mortgages. The law attempts to give the debt a situs for taxation in New York. It does not do this in the same way as the Oregon law, which was upheld, nor in the same way as the Pennsylvania law, which was successfully resisted by non-resident holders of the bonds of a Pennsylvania corporation.

A NEW SOURCE OF REVENUE FOR THE STATE.

The second question now arises,—why was the tax imposed? The answer is simple. The policy of the State of New York, for reasons to be mentioned further on, has been, for the past few years, to separate the sources of State and local taxation, or at all events to restrict the imposition of the general property tax to local property and to obtain State revenue from other sources. Under this scheme, the State revenues were secured from the inheritance tax, from corporation taxes, and from a part of the liquor-license tax. The expenditures of the State have, however, been increasing faster than the revenue from these sources, and it has become necessary to supplement the State revenue by new taxes. Thus, a year or two ago a tax was imposed upon trust companies and savings-banks, and this year upon stock-exchange transactions. Even these, however, did not suffice, and it was for this reason that a new source of revenue was sought in the mortgage tax. As mortgages were, however, sometimes assessed in the country districts, the local "up-State" divisions were

loath to abandon entirely that source of revenue, and a compromise was reached whereby the proceeds of the new mortgage tax are to be divided equally between the State and the local divisions. The country districts calculate that half the proceeds of a tax at the rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. will be greater than the proceeds of the old tax as a part of the general property tax at the threefold or fivefold higher rate; for the new tax will be collected, while the old tax was collected only in very small part.

HUNDREDS OF MILLIONS IN MORTGAGES.

Thirdly, what will be the probable result of the tax? That is, what will be the revenue from the tax, and who will bear the burden? So far as the revenue is concerned, nothing but vague calculation can be made. It must be remembered that the tax applies only to new mortgages, although there is a provision whereby the owners of old mortgages can take advantage of the law if they so choose. What the actually existing amount of mortgages in New York State now is, it is almost impossible to estimate with accuracy. In all probability there are between two thousand and three thousand millions of dollars of mortgages. From this amount, however, must be deducted the railway and other corporation mortgages, as well as other mortgages of long standing. The value of new mortgages that are recorded in New York varies from year to year. In 1904, mortgages to the value of about four hundred and fifty millions were recorded in Greater New York, and as it is commonly estimated that the New York City mortgages comprise considerably more than two-thirds of the entire amount in the State, this would mean somewhat over six hundred millions for the entire State. During the first five months of the year 1905, the value of mortgages recorded in New York City was considerably greater, owing to the real-estate boom in the Bronx and elsewhere. A conservative estimate of ordinary new mortgages during the next few years is therefore between six hundred and eight hundred millions of dollars for the whole State. This is, of course, exclusive of any new bond issues by important corporations owning real estate in New York. On this basis, the total yield of the tax at the rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. would be between one and one-half and two millions of dollars the first year, and between four and one-half and six millions of dollars the second year, increasing annually until the maximum is reached in from seven to ten years, when the revenue will be from ten to fifteen millions of dollars a year. The revenue which would accrue to the State would be in every

case one-half the total revenue. The first year, the revenue to the State will be less than one million dollars,—a rather insignificant sum when compared with the total State expenditure, and far less than is secured from the corporation tax, the transfer tax, or the liquor-license tax. If, however, the law stands the test of litigation and remains in force for five years, the proceeds will be so large that the mortgage tax will assume a place as the most important revenue-producing tax in the State.

WILL THE INTEREST RATE BE RAISED?

The other point is one of considerably greater interest. Who will bear the burden of the tax? Here there are two sharply defined opinions. The ordinary man thinks that a tax on property must be borne by the property-owner, and that therefore a tax on mortgages must be borne by the man who owns the mortgage,—that is, by the capitalist who lends the money to the owner of the real estate. The advocates of the other view, however, claim that this is a very naïve opinion. As all those who are acquainted with economic principle, and who have made a study of the incidence of taxation, well know, a special tax on mortgages, they think, is borne by the borrower, and not by the lender. If all property were taxed with mathematical equality, as is the theory of the general property tax, there could be no shifting of the tax, because there would be no other property in which the lender could invest and thus escape taxation. But there can be no such present equality in practice, and especially under existing conditions of taxation in America there is not even an approach to the equal taxation of all property-owners. There are a thousand and one ways in which a capitalist can invest his money without being taxed. The consequence is that the lenders will refuse to invest their money in mortgages unless the tax be paid by the borrower. Thus, we see these two opposite opinions,—one that the tax will be borne by the lender, the other that the tax must be borne by the borrower.

As between these two theories, the truth lies somewhere in the middle. Where the mortgage tax is newly imposed as a special and exclusive tax, there is no doubt that the second opinion is correct,—i.e., that the tax is borne by the borrower. But in the case of the new mortgage tax in New York there are some important and interesting countervailing circumstances. In the first place, while it is true that mortgages have been almost entirely exempt in New York City, they have sometimes been assessed in the country districts. There has always been the risk that the assessor would hit upon that particular

mortgage, and up-country lenders have always insisted upon being insured against this possible risk. Competent authorities have estimated this insurance premium at about $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent.,—that is, the interest rate on country mortgages has been about $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. higher than on corresponding property elsewhere. Under the new law, this insurance premium against risk will disappear; but its place will be taken by the tax, so that, to the extent that this element is concerned, the interest rate is not likely to rise much. If it were not for the fact that this argument of insurance premium does not apply to the cities, where the great mass of mortgages are recorded, there would be no rise at all in the interest rate.

NO APPRECIABLE INCREASE LIKELY.

But now comes a second consideration. Every year, large fortunes are left in trust by people who die. Under the law, these trust estates can be invested only in government bonds, certain prime railway securities, and mortgages on real estate. It is notorious that the great mass of personal property that is actually reached in our large cities consists of such trust estates. As the income from government bonds is very small, and as corporate bonds in general are subject to the local property tax at the ordinary high local rate, it is probable that mortgages bearing from 4 to 6 per cent. interest will become a favorite investment with trust estates, inasmuch as even if they were to pay the new tax there would still be a substantial surplus. The increasing supply of capital loanable on mortgages in this way would in itself tend to reduce the rate of interest, or at all events to prevent the entire amount of the tax from being added to the rate of interest. If, therefore, we consider both these points,—i.e., the elimination of the insurance premium in country mortgages and the increased supply of loanable capital for city mortgages,—we reach the conclusion that under actual conditions in New York there is little likelihood of any appreciable increase in the rate of interest due to the tax. There is, indeed, no doubt that an effort will be made by the lenders to add the tax to the rate of interest.

Most of the mortgages in New York are taken out by builders of tenements and flats. It might seem that the usury law in New York, which restricts the rate of interest to 6 per cent., would prevent the borrowers from paying more than 6 per cent., and in some cases from procuring loans at all. This difficulty, however, can easily be overcome by the incorporation of building companies, for the usury laws, as another absurd result of modern development, are relaxed

in favor of corporations. If the lenders should be able to add the tax to the interest rate, the result would be to check to that extent building operations and to increase rents, which would have as a consequence a still further congestion in housing conditions. But even at the worst, an increased rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. would not make a very decided difference, and if the above analysis has any validity at all, the chances are that the fears of the real-estate interests are largely unfounded, and that there will be scarcely any increase in the rate of interest on mortgages. Of course, it is quite true that if mortgages were entirely exempt the rate of interest would then fall by the amount of the discontinued tax, so that a complete exemption of mortgages would in the long run somewhat lower rents for the tenement dwellers. So far, however, as the practical results of the new tax are concerned, it is difficult to see an additional hardship upon any existing class.

SOUND BASIS OF TAX REFORM.

We come finally to a consideration of the mortgage tax in relation to the whole problem of tax reform. There is no doubt that the theory of the New York reform methods is in many respects sound. The use of the general property tax for both State and local purposes is undesirable for two reasons. In the first place, where the State rate is based upon local valuations there is always a mad race in each county to keep the valuations down to the lowest figures, in order to diminish to that extent its proportion of the State tax. This has led to all manner of unseemly disputes and bickerings between the counties, and to glaring inequalities which have been only very inadequately remedied by the State Board of Equalization. By abolishing the general property tax for State purposes, all these disputes at once disappear, and each locality is then free to fix its valuation of property at any proportion of true value that it chooses. For as long as only a local tax must be raised, it makes no difference whether we have a high rate with a low valuation or a low rate with a high valuation. It is partly for this reason that the long-continued effort to procure the assessment of real estate at full value in the city of New York resulted, in 1903, in raising the valuations to 80 or 90 per cent. of the true value.

The second point is, that as long as the general property tax is used both for State and for local purposes it is impossible to secure any change in the administration of the tax. Yet it is a notorious fact that the general property tax is everywhere getting to be less and less successful in the United States, as an inevitable

result of economic changes, and that in our large industrial centers it has become a complete farce. Wherever any attempts are made by more inquisitorial methods,—as, for instance, by the listing system or the ferret system,—to enforce taxation of personal property, the only result is to increase perjury instead of increasing revenue. The crying need, therefore, of modern American conditions is to prepare the way for the abolition of the personal-property tax and its replacement by something more equable and more suited to modern economic life.

A DEFECT OF THE NEW SYSTEM,—LACK OF ELASTICITY.

This, then, was the theory of the New York separation of State and local revenues,—the relegation of the property tax to the localities, with a prospect of gradually changing the local method, and on the other hand the dependence by the State on the so-called indirect taxes,—an unhappily chosen phrase of Governor Odell. In the working out of this scheme, however, one serious mistake was made. The older system, vicious as it was, possessed this great advantage,—it was elastic and self-regulative. If the State needed more revenue, it simply increased the rate on the general property. Under the new system, however, specific or percentage taxes were introduced in the place of the old apportioned tax,—that is, a rate of so much per cent. was imposed on inheritances and corporations, and a specific rate on excises, etc., and this rate remained the same from year to year. There was hence a fundamental lack of elasticity. In England, this elasticity is provided by the income tax, the rate of which varies from year to year. Under the old New York system, the elasticity was provided by the property tax. Under the new system, there is no elasticity, and as the State expenditures increase it becomes more and more necessary to search out new sources of State revenue. Under actual political conditions, this means that the Legislature, dominated by the rural representatives, will select taxes that fall primarily on the cities, and we may hence expect that the controversies of the past year or two in connection with the tax on trust companies, on stock sales, and on mortgages will grow in intensity and importance as new taxes are selected from year to year.

This is an unfortunate state of affairs, and will, if persisted in, lead to ultimate disaster. Every modern system of taxation must possess the element of elasticity. There is one scheme that has been suggested by the New York Tax Reform Association in New York and Ohio, and which has been put into partial operation in the State of Oregon, which would bring about this result. This is a method of apportioning the State tax and granting local option in determining the subjects of local taxation. It rests upon the idea that the necessary revenues may be derived by making each locality contribute to the State revenues in proportion to its own expenditures. The scheme possesses four advantages. First, it would provide elasticity, as did the old system; second, it would tend to keep down State expenditures, because each locality would be interested in the control of State finance,—an interest which is now fast being lost; third, it would tend to keep down local expenditures; and, fourth, it would enable each locality to raise its revenues in any way that seemed best to it, and would put a stop to the conflicts between country and city. If the rural districts desired to maintain the personal-property tax, they could do so; if the large cities desired to substitute something else, they would be equally free to follow their bent.

The general conclusion, therefore, is that while the new mortgage tax is by no means so harmful a piece of legislation as is represented by some, and while it is probably destined to become the most important source of revenue in the State, from the broad point of view it nevertheless represents a tendency which has in some respects gone to undue lengths. It is to be hoped that the controversies aroused by the mortgage and stock-sales tax in New York may lead the legislators to reconsider their opinion. The chief sources of present State revenue—the corporation tax, the inheritance tax, and liquor license—have probably come to stay. Would it not be the part of wisdom to rely for the additional revenues of the future upon a method which is at once more elastic and more promising of ultimate reform? The situation in New York is all the more interesting because it is typical of the conditions which will soon confront the other States of the Union, as they evolve from agricultural to industrial communities.



SOME FRENCH BOOKS THAT AMERICAN WOMEN OUGHT TO READ.

BY STEPHANE JOUSSELIN.

(Member of the Paris Municipal Council and of the General Council of the Seine.)

BY far the most agreeable of all the recollections of my recent tour in the United States is the excellent education and the admirable intelligence of the American woman. I was particularly well pleased with her knowledge of and her interest in the literature of France. I know of no other part of the world, with the possible exception of Russia, where the women so generally speak the French language, and where the study of our literature is so closely followed as it is in America. I must say here that I consider the education of the American woman infinitely superior to that given in France. This is especially noticeable in the case of young girls, who, more often than not, are extremely well-read.

Owing to the fact that the American man spends most of his time in business, traveling to his office early in the morning and not returning until late at night, and having, in addition, the attraction of his clubs, the American woman is left a great deal to her own devices. She has a large amount of time to dispose of as she wills. This time she occupies largely in reading and in keeping *au courant* with the events of the day. This fact is largely the cause of the prodigious success of American magazines and reviews, a success which is certainly well deserved. It is the American woman who buys and reads the periodical literature in the United States, and determines its tone.

THE INTEREST IN FRENCH LITERATURE.

The American woman is deeply interested in French literature. The number of women in the United States who speak French fluently is considerable, and I shall never forget the delightful hours spent in many charming American homes in the large cities of the country, discussing art and literature. There is one fact, however, which I cannot explain,—that is, the extraordinary selection of French books which, as a rule, I find lying around in American libraries.

Many times, in positive amazement, I have asked my amiable hostess how she came to possess those copies of some of the most disgusting novels published during the year, the titles of which I do not care to mention for fear of advertising them further. The reply was always

to the effect that the volume had been purchased at a well-known bookseller's as one of the latest Parisian novelties, the lady adding that her nature had more than revolted at its broad, unhealthy tone. This acknowledgment was always followed by the request "Do tell us what French books we ought to read and what ones we can give to our daughters."

It is a difficult and somewhat embarrassing task to answer such a question, for there is no more delicate undertaking than that of counselor in such matters. I, therefore, usually tried to escape responsibility by suggesting a few of the classic novels which every one in France knows by heart. Alas! I was generally met with the statement: "Oh, we read that long ago. The book has been translated into English, and, besides, we read it in the original text. What we really want is a list of new books, moral ones; for, surely, all the actual literary productions of France cannot be like this example."

THE EROTIC TENDENCY IN FRENCH.

Of course, all our French writers to-day are not indecent; but I must acknowledge that most of our modern writers, unlike those of England and America, have almost entirely abandoned the sentimental novel, to devote themselves to illegitimate love in all its phases. I might add, that a large number, also, make a far too realistic and too attractive picture of vice; that the "*naturaliste*" school has been a little too prominent of late years, and, finally, that certain French writers have manifested an unhealthy talent for depicting and exaggerating the hidden side of Parisian life. But, happily for our moral and for our literary excellence, these writers are in the small minority. We have a brilliant circle of authors who hold it their duty to defend our literary prestige, and who are proving worthy of their task.

Why is it that the very books a French woman would not admit to her home must be the ones that find their way across the ocean into the homes of American women, who, half the time, do not understand them, but upon whom they leave a most deplorable impression of our French literature? I have searched in vain for an explanation. Here is the only possible one: as a

rule, the publishers bring out a larger edition of their immoral novels, and evidently they prefer such to form the greater part of what they call "*littérature d'exportation*."

AUTHORS OF GOOD FRENCH NOVELS.

But to answer the questions of my American friends who are anxious to read good French novels. Need I recall, even briefly, the names already so well known in America—Paul Bourget, Anatole France, Pierre Loti, René Bazin, Paul Hervieu, Marcel Prévost, and others? These are the worthy successors of Maupassant, Goncourt, Zola, and Daudet, although I certainly would not say that their works ought to be left in the hands of the young and unsophisticated. A judicious selection can easily be made. For example, it is certain that some of Zola's books, such as "*Le Réve*," "*La Faute de l'Abbé Mouret*," "*Une Page d'Amour*," give us a delightful impression of the charm and poetry of the author's genius, whereas "*Nana*," "*La Bête Humaine*," "*L'Assommoir*," and others, notwithstanding the real talent they display, can only sicken a delicate mind by their too-evident search for degrading realism. Is there any more charming book than "*Lettres de Mon Moulin*," by Alphonse Daudet? I looked for them in vain in America. No one knew them. This is a great pity, for they are each one a veritable jewel in its way, and far superior to "*Sappho*," the presentation of which on the stage recently caused such a tempest of indignation in New York.

While speaking of Alphonse Daudet, I must not forget to mention his son, Léon Daudet, who has so richly inherited from the paternal genius. Although still young, he is a member of the Goncourt Academy, and his triumphs are innumerable. It would almost seem as if the name of Daudet brought with it literary gifts. The brother of Alphonse, Ernest, is a remarkable historian and a charming novelist; while Madame Daudet, the widow of Alphonse, has published a book of "*Souvenirs*," the inspiration of which proves an undeniable literary temperament. Everything, indeed, written by a Daudet is worth knowing.

George Sand is, to my mind, not so well known in America as her great genius merits. Even in this great Paris, where every one and everything is so quickly forgotten, her books are still extremely popular. "*La Petite Fadette*," "*Claudie*," "*François le Champi*," "*Consuelo*," and "*La Mare au Diable*" are masterpieces which should be in every library, and which old and young alike can read.

But, my questioners will say, none of these are exactly novelties. Very true. But what is really beautiful remains eternally beautiful, and, in order to speak of modern authors, we must turn our attention to those, unfortunately, very much inferior to George Sand. While I still speak of past works, however, let me not forget one whose success has not diminished by lapse of time. I refer to "*Le Crime de Sylvester Bonnard*," by Anatole France, a delicious story full of tenderness, charm, and emotion.

I want to mention André Theuriet, a true romancer, whose novels are full of poetry and sentiment, and can be left unhesitatingly in any hands. Gustave Droz has amused us, and can amuse any who will give themselves the trouble to read his "*Monsieur, Madame, et Bébé*" or "*Mme. Femme Génante*," but he is especially captivating in a delicious volume entitled "*Tristesses et Sourires*." This last is not a novel, but a series of observations so cleverly and daintily penned that it can be reread many times.

Victor Cherbuliez and Léon de Tinseau can be recommended without hesitation, as can also Edouard Rod, who becomes more and more eminent as a psychological analyst. And Huysmanns, what an admirable writer he has become within the past few years! His "*Cathédrale*" is a treasure of learning and beauty.

FRENCH WOMAN WRITERS.

I must not forget to remind American women that our women of France have not remained outside the literary movement. Among the French writers of the gentler sex, I would first mention Jean de la Brété, whose book entitled "*Mon Oncle et Mon Cure*" is a dainty masterpiece which has been crowned by the French Academy. But especially would I speak to Americans of Madame Bentzon, who has written two books of notes and observations, "*Femmes d'Amérique*" and "*Les Américaines chez Elles*." I have heard a number of American women say that these volumes show on the part of the author, not only a clear insight into the feminine nature, but also a particular discernment into the special complexities of American feminine nature.

Before concluding, let me say once more how deeply I admire America's young women who, in the never-ceasing desire to improve their minds, cultivate their literary tastes and capacities to such a high degree. What an example for our young French women, whom I would like to see take more interest in the literature of England and America and appreciate both as they deserve. French women need just such a stimulus.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

WHAT TOGO'S VICTORY MEANS TO US.

ANALYZING the victory of Admiral Togo in the battle of the Sea of Japan, Mr. Park Benjamin (writing in the *Independent*) finds a number of lessons for us of the United States in



ADMIRAL TOGO.

(From a sketch made by a French artist before the battle of the Sea of Japan.)

the actual battle and the conditions which made it possible. In the first place, he refers to Japan's well-known rule that her ships shall fight as near as possible to her own coast. Pointing out the advantage to the Japanese ships to be near their home ports, and the disadvantage to the Russians to have to sail around the world, Mr. Benjamin applies the lesson to the American navy in these words:

One of the strongest parts of our navy is the Atlantic Ocean; another is the Pacific. Hostile fleets, to attack us, must cross them. Clearly, it is better to do our sea fighting at home—as Togo did. That also makes for a smaller navy, since two fleets, one to go off on excursions and the other to defend the coast, will not be needed.

He analyzes the Russian losses, and revises the estimate of Japan's position among naval nations. Russia failed, he points out, because she regarded a great navy as being made up of many ships, forgetting that it must also be made up of good sailors. The replacing of ships alone can never insure an efficient navy, he says.

A battleship can be built in forty months, but it takes seventy-two months to render a man, otherwise qualified, fit for the lowest naval rank, and nearly twenty years to educate a competent naval commander. These are the periods required, observe, when the raw material comes from a stock bred to the sea, and when training is conducted under the traditions and discipline of the natural sailor races. To these the Russians do not belong, nor have they ever followed the Anglo-Saxons in sea discipline and traditions. . . . It is a new navy of men that Russia will have to raise up; not merely a navy of ships.

Continuing the analysis, and dilating upon the importance of the part played by torpedo boats and submarines in the action, he says:

Again has been proved the vulnerability of the huge battleship. Again it has been proved that the most complicated aggregation of mechanism that the human mind has ever produced can certainly be sent to the bottom by a few score pounds of explosive detonated against her under-water hull. Another fact to be noted is that the heavy superstructures of the battleships did not prevent wholesale slaughter of their crews and prompt destruction of ammunition hoists and other vital mechanisms. The men who escaped from the *Borodino* liken her decks to shambles, and yet here was a vessel in which the crew were mainly disposed in no less than eight separate armored turrets. Conceive the frightful slaughter which would occur in such vessels as our *Kearsarge* or *Kentucky*, where most of the crew is massed in a single huge, weakly protected compartment. . . . And, finally, this great action was won, not by a huge fleet of battleships, but by four, supplemented by eight armored cruisers. No stronger evidence could be adduced in favor of the contention that what we need is not a vast battleship force capable of overwhelming that of any foreign nation by mere numbers, but an adequate fleet, far smaller, but of the highest possible efficiency in both material and men.

He compliments the Japanese upon their preparedness for war and the astuteness of their strategy. The personnel of the Japanese navy, he declares, has much to do with the dash and vigor of the Japanese attack. Togo's victory was won by his men, he reminds us.

The average age of the Japanese commanding officers is between forty and forty-four years. All the Japanese rear-admirals are less than fifty years of age. Togo himself is forty-eight. [This is an error. Admiral Togo was born in 1851. He is therefore in his fifty-fifth year.—EDITOR.] The men who handled the smaller vessels and torpedo boats are much younger. Our navy is officered by old men,—too old to be of any use in war. Our youngest rear-admiral is older than Togo. The average age of our captains is thirteen years beyond that of the Japanese captains. Our youngest captain, if in the Japanese navy, would long since have been superannuated. All of our captains are fifty-five years and over. We are not properly educating the younger men, because we are giving to these old men the experience in command. The first thing that we should do in the event of war would be to relieve them and put the young men in their places. In the great fleet which we have already collected a battleship is commanded by a captain over sixty-one years of age, who has less than a year to serve before he is retired by law. His past service record has been excellent, but what is the use of further educating him? While in most professions a man at sixty-one is far from being worn out, this is not true of the naval career, and less true than ever now, when the strain upon physical endurance is greater than ever.

The remedy for this lack in our navy which Mr. Benjamin suggests is a rather drastic one,

that is to remove at once from the active list of the navy every officer of command rank who is over fifty years of age and promote their juniors to their places. Even then the admirals and captains will have had more than a quarter of a century's service. There is no lesson of the recent great battle which is plainer than this. If the next war must find us with incompetent men in the navy, it is better that they should be filling vacancies in the lower grades than among the commanders, who directly hold in their keeping the honor and safety of the nation.

His last point is the emphasis laid by the Japanese upon secrecy as to their naval plans. Their success in preventing any knowledge of the whereabouts of Togo's fleet getting abroad has been wonderful and a great tribute to the patriotism of the whole nation.

There was probably no information more eagerly sought for by the press of the entire world; and it is certain that to any one able to give it a price would have been paid which might well seem a fortune in itself. Yet out of the thousands of Japanese who could have said where that fleet was, out of the unknown number who must have been tempted with the magnitude of the possible reward, *not one told*. Japan can well be proud of her victory, but she can be even prouder of the unswerving fidelity of her people.

COUNT OKUMA ON THE CAUSES OF JAPAN'S GREATNESS.

THREE reasons are given by Count Okuma, in an article in a recent number of the *Jiji Shimpō*, of Tokio, for the achievements of Japan in her path of progress, and particularly in her present war with Russia. Count Okuma, of course, always uses the term "Nippon," which is the name the Japanese themselves have for their country. In the first place, he says, Nippon is the country of the gods; secondly, she has had a particularly favorable geographical position and peculiarly advantageous characteristics in her people; in the third place, she has reaped great advantages from the centuries she spent under the feudal *régime*.

Ever since the gods established the eight states [the original provinces of the island empire] and sent down into them a race of men,—that is, for three thousand years,—Nippon has never forgotten that she is the land of the gods. This dominant conviction, holding sway, as it does, over the imagination of the people of Nippon, together with that other conviction that the reign of the Emperor is as eternal as heaven and earth, have brought forth a nation and a national consciousness the like of which cannot be found in the rest of the world. "The history of Nippon is innocent of a man guilty of treason." It is true that history accuses a number of Sho-

guns of treason, but they were only guilty of abusing the generous confidence of their sovereigns, and by no means could they be charged with the crime of treason as it is commonly understood by the rest of the world.

Indeed, in the criminal code of modern Nippon there is no form of punishment provided for treason. Of what other civilized state can this be said? Moreover, the person of his majesty and the functions of his government have a sacredness about them such as in other civilized states is ascribed to the holy rites of religion; and the people of Nippon look upon their duty to their sovereign prince and state as something quite as sacred as those to any of the gods of heaven. Our religious attitude was voiced many years ago by Sugawara Michizane in the couplet: "If only your heart be true, even though you pray not the gods will hear."

Geography has been partial to Nippon. "The waters which have separated us from the continent have also protected us from the avarice and struggles of continental states during the Dark Ages."

Because the early ambitions of conquerors found it difficult to invade us in their primitive vessels, we have been saved from many a vortex in political struggle and storm, in which so many of the states of ancient China found their grave.

Equatorial currents, tides, and even monsoons, have contributed to the making of the present

Nippon. Out of the fusion of divers races and the ages of planning and evolution has come the present state.

Through the intermingling of many alien stocks of men, the people of Nippon have been able to take bravery from the make-up of the Tatar of the north, and to extract from the Malay of the south characteristics which have helped us in colonizing and absorbing the literature and fine arts of China. . . . Eclecticism in religion, and the broad-mindedness with which the modern Nippon is welcoming at one and the same time the truths that are in Buddhism, in Confucianism, and in Christianity, is one of the fruits of our ethical and philosophical horizon, which has been widened by the mingling of many peoples. Above all have we been blessed with the most precious gift of the gods, simplicity,—simplicity in taste, in thought, and in life.

One of the prominent characteristics of the people of Nippon is that which emphasizes

loyalty, courage, politeness, and the sense of honor. It is called *bushido*, the way of the Samurai. It is a mistake, however, to speak of this *bushido* as though it were confined exclusively to the Samurai. The ideals soon penetrated to the consciousness of the whole people.

Through many centuries of Nippon feudalism, the fostering of this spirit of loyalty, courage, courtesy, and love of righteousness has gone on, until they have become, not only the peculiar characteristics of the Samurai class, but of all the people of the country at large. With the decline of the Samurai we saw come into flower a number of men famed for their disinterestedness, their unquestioned courage, and their sense of honor. These men sprang from every class of society, and so it is to our feudal days, so unlike those of Continental Europe in many cardinal respects, that we owe in large measure the flowering of the Nippon of to-day.

THE CHIEF OF POLICE OF EUROPE.

APROPOS of the Morocco situation, the new Norwegian magazine, *Vor Tid*, of Minneapolis, the first in the language in this country, has an editorial under the above title. It says:

His name is Wilhelm, and he is German Emperor. Most of the European states generally have more or less of a quarrel on their hands, sometimes among themselves, sometimes with people in other parts of the world. Wilhelm sits in the midst of Europe and keeps watch. If any of the powers get into a fight and others want to "mix in," Wilhelm lifts his police club and says, "Keep away!"

Summarizing the "burning" political questions now agitating Europe, the *Vor Tid* continues:

Europe has time and again been greatly disturbed over the Turkish question. The Turkish question is really only a question of Constantinople. Constantinople is the gate to the Orient, to Asia. Russia would give Siberia if she could get Constantinople. If she could get Constantinople, she would take Asia. And for that reason England can never let Russia take Constantinople. It would be her death-blow. The Suez Canal and India would soon be lost. And so both England and Russia have been flirting with or threatening the Turkish Sultan, according to circumstances. But Wilhelm the Emperor has made his appearance on the scene and taken a hand, and at present he is the Sultan's "best friend" and has greater influence in Constantinople than either Russia or England.

When England was at war with the Boers in Africa, "the whole German people sympathized with the Boers, and the feeling toward England was very bitter. It was the same in Russia. But Wilhelm lifted his police club: Hands off! and the poor Boers got no help." When the war between Russia and Japan became inevitable,

Russia had cause to fear for her western border. There was the turbulent Poland, the restless Finland; they might use their opportunity to seek help from some of the powers and involve Russia in complications in Europe, but "Mr.



KAISER WILHELM: "There is always trouble when I travel."
From the *Evening World* (New York).

Wilhelm promises to keep good watch at the border line, and so Russia feels safe there."

France feels quite an inclination for North Africa, and would have no objection to add Morocco to her possessions there, and had diplomatically arrived at an understanding with England, who would likely get com-

persation somewhere else, for England is accustomed to be paid, not only when she does something, but also when she does nothing. France had also, by her obliging conduct toward the United States in the Perdicaris affair, gained the good-will of this country, and professed to regard this good-will almost as a recognition by this country of her supremacy in Morocco. But just as France smilingly and quietly is spreading her wings over Morocco to take possession Mr. Wilhelm embarks for the Mediterranean and pays a visit to Morocco. He remained only a couple of days, but it was enough. He declares, in an address right there on the spot, that there can be no such thing as French supremacy in Morocco, and that France shall have no privileges

there which Germany does not enjoy as well, and this virtually guarantees the integrity and independence of Morocco. This came almost like lightning from a clear sky. France is, of course, terribly chagrined, but does not dare to complain too loudly, and England pretends to be a little offended, but does not take it all very seriously.

Mr. Wilhelm, concludes *Vor Tid*, has also "tried his police authority on this side of the Atlantic; but it is a little different over here, for here is another chief of police, and on this side of the ocean Wilhelm will not dare to measure clubs."

ALFONSO XIII. OF SPAIN AND HIS INHERITANCE.

THE tour through France and England of the youngest king in Europe has been the subject of much sympathetic comment in the press of the entire world. There is a good deal



KING ALFONSO XIII. OF SPAIN.

(From a photograph taken during his recent visit to Paris.)

of the halo of romance about Alfonso XIII.—the fatherless child born a king, his frail life holding together the loyalty of a disturbed and distracted country, and the burden of government resting upon a woman. No child could have been more longed for, and it was pathetic, in-

deed, that his young father did not live to see his son. Alfonso XII. and Maria Christina of Austria had two daughters, but the King died at the early age of twenty-eight, some six months before his boy was born on May 17, 1886. Fortunately, the widowed queen was a woman of strong character, and she guarded the kingdom for her son with rare tact and discretion during the long years of minority. She was determined to call him Alfonso after his father, and though the superstitious Spaniards objected to the number XIII., the queen had her way, and, further, defied superstition by asking Pope Leo XIII. to be his godfather. The first letter the young king ever wrote was to the Pope to thank his godfather for a present on his first communion. The little fellow wrote seven copies before he made one tidy enough to send. Speaking of the young king's boyhood, the London *Graphic* says:

Little Alfonso grew up amid the greatest affection. The queen never left him, his sisters were his slaves, and wherever he appeared in public, the people went into ecstasies. He was scarcely more than a baby when he first took part in state ceremonies, but his dignity exceeded his years, and almost as soon as he could toddle the juvenile sovereign was most particular about being saluted according to his rank. At first he was a very delicate child, so he was kept in the open air, had more play than lessons, and spent much time by the sea at San Sebastian. There he played soldiers with such enjoyment that a boy regiment was formed of mites of his own age, duly uniformed and drilled, whom he reviewed with much ceremony. In fact, the young king has always had strong military tastes, and is exceptionally well trained in army tactics. As he grew into boyhood his lessons were rather heavy for so young a child, but he worked well under an English governess, and at ten years had a military governor and a regular household of his own. Very wisely, however, the queen insisted on a large share of outdoor pursuits in his education, so the young king learned to ride, row, and fence with much enjoyment. From the time he could first sit a small pony, young Alfonso has been devoted to riding, and a new horse to match his growth was his mother's

favorite present. The King is a steady, intelligent worker, with much aptitude for languages,—he speaks English, French, German, and Italian, besides being a fair Greek and Latin scholar,—and he has been most carefully trained in statesmanship. Like his mother, he is a good musician. According to Spanish custom, the King came of age when sixteen, three years ago, and then solemnly assumed the government.

Alfonso's Strong Character.

In a character sketch of King Alfonso (in the *Fortnightly Review*), Mr. L. Higgin tells this story:

While still a child in the nursery, his governess rebuked him for putting his knife in his mouth. "Gentlemen never eat like that," she said.

"But I am a king," remarked the child.

"Kings still less put knives in their mouths," said the governess.

"This king does!" was the reply.

He is still a youth of decision and unconventionality.

He is extremely fond of motoring, and is said to be an accomplished chauffeur. When remonstrated with on not keeping up the traditional state of a Spanish king, he replied: "I mean to be a modern king, and go everywhere and do everything that other kings do." He also expressed to some of his advisers who had spoken of the advisability of his making an early marriage his determination on this subject. "Of one thing you may be quite certain, I am not going to marry a photograph! I must see my future wife and choose her myself."

As a result of his severe but wise training, continues Mr. Higgin, the young monarch is perhaps singularly well informed on general subjects, and not only in the history and literature of his own country, but in that of other countries. He speaks equally well German, English, and French, and has shown himself a graceful and good impromptu speaker in his own language.

Military exercises have always had the strongest attraction for the young king. When still a child, his delight was to play at soldiers with the children of the Guard, and this led later on to the "Boys' Regiment," as it was called, composed of lads of about his own age, children, for the most part, of the aristocracy, who were drilled and taught military evolutions along with him, and whom he eventually commanded, under the superintendence of his instructors. About three months of each year were spent by the royal family at Santander, and here, the close routine of study being relaxed, the King passed his time very much on the water, learning the management of ships, and becoming, not only a good sailor, but well acquainted with navigation and naval gunnery.

Alfonso, although only a boy, got rid of his unpopular tory minister, Señor Maura, by an exercise of the royal prerogative to which Edward VII. may some day resort if Mr. Balfour continues much longer to set at defiance the wishes of the majority of the nation.

The King objected to the nomination of a certain general as chief of the staff, and expressed his desire

that General Polavieja should be appointed, a man who is an excellent soldier and well known for honesty and straightforwardness, since, it is said, "he remains a poor man though he has occupied high posts." Maura insisted on the ministerial candidate, and the King, at a meeting of the council, simply refused to sign the decree. There was nothing for it but resignation on the part of the ministry.

The King is very sympathetic, very fond of travel, full of interest in all things, and a great admirer of England.

In the troubles and sorrows of his people Alfonso XIII., like his father, takes a warm interest. In the recent disastrous accident to the new reservoir of the water-supply at Madrid, he was on the scene as soon as he heard of it, and his remark to those who greeted him on his arrival was characteristic. A number of the people who had already reached the ground rushed to meet his carriage, giving loud cries of "Viva al Rey;" "Nada, nada de vivas," he said—"no vivas; to work, to succor the victims." Stores of all that could be useful to the wounded were instantly sent from the Palace, and the King, later, visited in the hospitals the wounded who had been rescued alive from the ruins.

Has the Qualities of Greatness.

A sympathetic sketch of King Alfonso, "who is now surprising Europe by his maturity of thought and high ideals," appears in the *Revue Bleue*, contributed by G. Desdèvises de Dezert. This writer points out how Spain had fallen from her high estate after the death of Alfonso XII., and how the disasters continued under the regency of Queen Maria Christina, mother of the present king. The young monarch has shown that he possesses more than one quality of greatness. He is, moreover, the first military king that Spain has had since Philip V.

The Young King's Prospects and Relations with France.

The same well-known political and economic writer contributes to another number of the *Revue Bleue* an analysis of Spain's foreign policy for the past hundred years, with particular reference to the relations of the kingdom to France and Great Britain. He points out, as a strange political fact, the cordiality of the relations between Spain and England as compared with the usually strained relations between Spain and her neighbor republic. Just why Spaniards and Englishmen should be friends, and Spaniards and Frenchmen all but enemies, this French writer regards as unfortunate, but to a certain extent the outcome of geographical situations and history. "It was England," he points out, "which broke the naval power of Spain at Trafalgar; it was England which incited and aided the breaking away from Spanish rule of the entire new world; England opposed the admission

of Spain as a great power to the Congress of Vienna, in 1815; England pretended to fight Spain's battles in her war for independence, but really it was in the interest of England. Even in 1898, when France tried to help poor Spain, it was England which applauded every American victory as though it had been a British triumph." Despite all these undoubted facts, says this writer, Spain has always shown the greatest of good feeling toward England, and has always looked with suspicion upon France. The Spaniards have treated England with special consideration, and one of their best-known adages is, "*Con todos guerra, y paz con Inglaterra*"—"War everywhere, but peace with England." This writer finds something sympathetic between the *sang-froid* of the English and the hauteur of the Castilians. He says that Spain misunderstands both England and France, to the advantage of the former and the disadvantage of the latter. She knows England for a Protestant country, but believes her to be exclusively Protestant,

while she knows France for the country of the impious Voltaire, of Rousseau, of Renan, and the classic land of free thought. "The Englishman is always trying to make himself out better than he is, while the Frenchman would have you think he is the very devil,—and he is much better than he makes himself out to be." Moreover, England is to Spain the "type of the conservative nation, respecting her rulers, her laws, and her customs; while France has revolutions without number, and a complete change of government every few years." This writer goes on to point out how France has been of real help to Spain, and how the younger generation of Spaniards is beginning to realize this. France is the isthmus which connects Spain with the rest of Europe. France has conferred many benefits upon her neighbor. France, he hopes, will contribute still further to the development and advancement of Spain, under the reign of the progressive young king who now governs south of the Pyrenees.

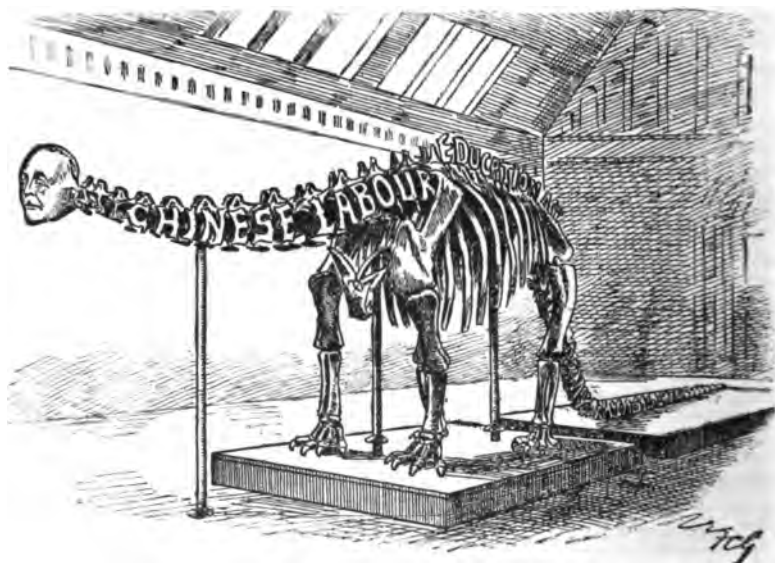
MR. BALFOUR AS FABIUS MAXIMUS.

AN article which is characterized by Mr. Stead, in the *London Review of Reviews*, as "one of the most ingenious of the year" is the essay entitled "A Political Fabius Maximus," which Mr. Wilfrid Ward has contributed to the June *Nineteenth Century*. Says Mr. Stead: "An abler and more gallant attempt to glorify an English ruler for the very things which have discredited him most has not been published since Mr. Froude found the crowning proof of the disinterested patriotism of Henry VIII. in the invincible patience with which he persisted in his matrimonial experiences."

Taking as his text the declaration made by the *Spectator*, October 3, 1903, after the Sheffield speech, that "Whatever else may happen, Mr. Balfour's day as a great British statesman is over," Mr. Ward says:

The events which the *Spectator* regarded as the occasion of the downfall of a great statesman have proved to be his op-

portunity. His policy will live for posterity as a classical instance of a statesman who kept his head when hardly any one else succeeded in doing so, who believed in himself in spite of the ridicule and invective of assailants from both sides, and who gradually restored confidence and won back the faith of his party.



ELONGATED AND FOSSILIZED: THE STICKTOLOCUS BALFOURII.

It is a matter of question whether the collar-bone which is represented between the two shoulders really belongs to this creature or whether it is a portion of some other organism.—From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

THE HIGHER CRITICS AND FISCAL REFORMERS.

The soul of Mr. Ward's paper is to be found in the brilliant conception of the fiscal reformers as the "higher critics" of political economy. Mr. Balfour's position is that of the head of the Church who, when confronted by the speculative theories of the Wellhausen school, refuses either to indorse all the vagaries of the enthusiastic scholars or to ban them with bell, book, and candle. The time is not ripe for a definite pronouncement.

The wise ruler will not silence the Liberals. He knows that it is they who have hold of the materials out of which the true developments in theology are to be effected. He will have none of the dogmatism of the obscurantists. To treat speculation as heresy is as bad as to treat it as newly won dogma. Change can only be safely made by very gradual steps, the wisdom of which is completely ascertained. It is only thus that its dislocating effect can be avoided. Yet the nature of these very steps can be satisfactorily ascertained only by the freest discussion. Provisionally, the dogmas of free trade must be largely disregarded in the discussion, as theological dogma is disregarded by the biblical critic. That such dogma exists and is sound, he does not doubt. A return to pre-Cobdenite protection would, indeed, be to attack an irreformable decision in economic orthodoxy. But to condemn measures as protectionist, in the sense in which protection is disastrous, before their nature and consequences have been fully sifted is obscurantism and not orthodoxy.

"THE NOBLEST ROMAN OF THEM ALL."

Mr. Ward rapidly draws a vivid picture of the confusion and dismay which Mr. Chamberlain as the fiscal Wellhausen caused among the true believers in the orthodox fold. Of Mr. Chamberlain's impatient plungefulness Mr. Ward speaks with chastened severity. Mr. Chamberlain, he says,

aroused party feeling, and gave the signal for strife, not only before his colleagues had agreed that the war was wise or practical, but before he himself had seen how it could be carried on. In this trying position Mr. Balfour showed virtues truly Roman. He did not despair of the Republic. And he saw that the only hope lay in a Fabian policy of delay. Tantalizing and irritating though it inevitably was, ineffective necessarily before the public eye, he persevered in it. The world held it impossible that the cabinet could survive the removal of its strongest members. The loss of prestige attaching to great names was appalling. Nevertheless, Mr. Balfour faced the situation as the alternative to the death of the party, and carried his policy through. Probably no other man living except Mr. Balfour could have effected even the partial reconstitution of the party.

HOW HE WORKED THE MIRACLE.

This great Fabian thaumaturgist worked the apparently incredible miracle by his unique

combination of qualities, which Mr. Ward analyzes with skill and sympathy.

His aloofness and imperturbability, in the first place, enable him to carry out the decisions of an acute and highly critical intellect, undistracted by any disturbing force, either from the undue influence of others or from unregulated impulses in himself.

His power of attracting personal devotion is like Pitt's, and has been an important factor in his success.

He is marked by great tenacity in friendships, alliances, undertakings. He knows well the value of small things, as answering letters or a kind word, and measures out such gifts with care and judgment.

The complications caused by unnecessary initiative Mr. Balfour instinctively avoids, aided, perhaps, by a certain constitutional indolence.

His perception of public opinion is as accurate as is possible concomitantly with a certain deficiency in emotional sympathy.

Drive him into a corner, and with his back to the wall he will fight with a vigor and pertinacity astonishing to those who are accustomed to his normal imperturbability.

The net result is great insight, tenacity, and persistence, and the strength arising from these qualities. The main aim is never lost sight of. He acts on the motto, "More haste, less speed."

A touch of pessimism runs through his thought and work, yet not the profound pessimism which leads to inaction. Rather his pessimism goes with a certain philosophic contentment,—for he looks, in this imperfect world, for no great results, and is therefore not easily disappointed.

"All that," says Mr. Stead, "is true enough and very well said. But what of Mr. Ward's essay as a whole? Never was there a more subtle, sophistical, attempt made to prove that our King Arthur actually underwent an apotheosis when he forsook his Table Round in order to sit himself as an 'accomplished whist-player' at the card-table with Mr. Chamberlain. But irresistible are the attractions of paradox, and the formula 'I believe because it is impossible' has naturally great attractions for controversialists of Mr. Wilfrid Ward's school."

"Most Laughed at and Most Loved."

Mr. Balfour is addressed in the *Atlantic Monthly* in an open letter by "Alciphron." The writer says that Plato, who dreamed of a day when philosophers were kings, would surely have hailed a philosopher as prime minister. Mr. Balfour is credited with a Platonic fondness for verbal dialectic, and an extraordinary adroitness and resource in its use, which reminds the writer of what Jowett said when asked whether logic was a science or an art—"It is neither; it is a dodge." The writer proceeds:

This astuteness, this immensely clever handling of an immensely difficult situation, your bitterest enemy cannot deny you. If you have carried water on both shoulders, you have at least carried it, not spilled it on

the ground. Your assailants should have taken warning from your profuse confessions of ignorance and your smiling good-nature. They had heard you profess so often in the House of Commons, "I am but a child in these matters," and should have had in mind, as possibly you had, the prophecy, "A little child shall lead them."

You offer to-day, Mr. Balfour, the great paradox of being the public man of England most laughed at, and at the same time most loved. . . . So there has broken through your philosophy a great kindness, with a high distinction, a wide humanity, a lettered sanity and ease, which have endeared you to the men of your day in both parties. If fall you must, you will leave office behind, but will always bear your friends with you.

An Unconstitutional Premier.

"Mr. Balfour and the Constitution" is the title of a suggestive study by Mr. J. A. Spender in the *Independent Review*. Mr. Spender admits that the premier's retention of office in spite of indications that he no longer retains public con-

fidence is legal, but denies that it is constitutional. By deft citations he maintains:

The true doctrine is, as stated by Mr. Bagehot, Professor Dicey, and Sir William Anson, that a ministry should retire or dissolve Parliament "when it is shown to have lost the confidence of the House or the country,"—one or other, or both of these things. Mr. Balfour's claim is, on the contrary, that the House of Commons itself should be the sole judge.

Mr. Spender protests against this inversion of the constitutional doctrine, but frankly admits that the remedies are not easy to apply. He says:

The suggestion that the King should revive the prerogative of dissolving Parliament of his own initiative is not one that a Liberal can entertain. The principle that the King acts on the advice of his ministers needs to be guarded against all encroachment. My own opinion is that the Septennial Act should be repealed, and the legal duration of Parliament reduced to five, or even four, years.

HAS ENGLAND FAILED IN EGYPT?

A DETAILED analysis of the balance sheet of the English occupation of Egypt is contributed to *La Revue* by Jehan d'Ivray. This



THE RT. HON. EARL OF CROMER.

(British minister plenipotentiary at Cairo, and financial adviser to the Khedive.)

French writer admits that the British occupation has been in the interest of the Egyptians themselves, although, of course, he contends that France has been ill-used in the entire affair. He condemns the English, however, for introducing alcoholic liquors into Egypt, and criticises the occupation in other minor points. In general, he says that in the matter of material wealth and the immediate satisfaction of physical wants, Egypt has gained much from the English occupation; but, while her system of colonization is excellent from the material viewpoint, England, "I believe, has failed deplorably from the humanitarian standpoint. The English have created new wants in Egypt, and, it is true, have provided the means in many cases to satisfy these wants." To aid a people in paying their debts is good, "but to teach them and help them not to contract other debts would be much better." The best work which the British have accomplished in Egypt is to be found in the military reforms, in finance, and in the irrigation works. Far otherwise, however, are the British efforts at judicial reform. The writer protests against the introduction of Englishmen into judicial tribunals to the exclusion of the natives. The British justices, he says, not only have no knowledge of the Arabic language, but many of them know very little about law. In the schools, the French language has been suppressed and replaced by English, and the native justices are required to study English, as it is easier for

them to learn something of that language than it is for the British to acquire a knowledge of theirs. The result is, the new native justices have given up the practice of studying in France, and are satisfied with an inferior training in their own country. Thus, the judicial condition of the country has returned to the deplorable ignorance complained of twenty years ago.

BRITISH INFLUENCE DISASTROUS TO EDUCATION.

While Britain has been happy in the reforms she has brought about in the domains of agriculture and finance, her influence in the domain of education has been disastrous. Nearly all the French professors of Cairo and Alexandria have been replaced by Englishmen, and even in the provinces, native teachers who have passed some time in England, or have acquired a knowledge of English, are chosen. The curriculum of

studies has been lowered, and all the pupils are adepts at football and tennis. The school of medicine has recently had to close its doors owing to lack of pupils, with the result that in 1904 only twenty native doctors, against eighty foreigners, applied for permission to practise their art in Egypt. In every domain, the British fill the best posts, and the doors are closed to the natives. "The Egyptian is kept in a veritable state of servitude. He is taught nothing which could awaken in him ideas of justice and humanity. Alcoholism has spread like a train of fire. The British have introduced their bars. Whiskey is sovereign on the banks of the Nile, as in India brandy takes the place of bread." As with Malta and India, and all the conquests of Albion, Egypt is regarded as a source of revenue, and little concern is shown for the condition of the worker or producer.

"THE PHILIPPINES FOR THE AMERICANS."

IN several articles in one issue of the *South China Weekly Post*, a British journal of Hongkong, the American administration of the Philippines is taken to task severely. The condemnation is, chiefly, not on the score of undue severity or of corruption, but of insufficient firmness, of too great consideration for the native Filipinos, who, the editor of the *South China Weekly Post* insists, are an inferior race and must always remain so, no matter how well educated. In speaking of the Samar revolt, the writer deplores the mildness of American methods. He says on this point:

Unfortunately, the American Government has adopted the impossible and quixotic theory of the Philippines for the Filipinos; and, until it learns wisdom in the hard school of experience, the white planter or merchant is almost an impossibility. . . . The pity of it all is that the American Government has been sincerely anxious to rule the natives for their own good, that it has neither exploited the islands unfairly nor willingly oppressed any man. Its failure has been due to inexperience. It is the failure of the amateur, of the man totally unversed in ruling subject races, of he who tries to govern mankind by formulæ. When the United States realizes that East is East and West is West, then it will cease to be troubled by such revolts as that in Samar, but it will find the lesson difficult to learn.

In another article, entitled "America's Refractory Child,—A Contrast," a comparison of our methods in the Philippines is made with Great Britain's policy in her Asiatic colonies. The Briton, we are reminded, has learned in the bitter school of experience how to rule subject nations. "Phrases and formulæ have no part

in framing his policy,—it is guided by stern, concrete facts."

The American, however, has but lately embarked on the dangerous path of colonial government, and is endeavoring to prove that Great Britain, with her three hundred years of experience to guide her, is, none the less, both ethically and practically wrong. The Philippines have cost the people of the States an immense sum, and the lives of thousands of soldiers, yet the federal government declines to countenance any policy which aims at treating the islands as an asset of the republic. The Philippines are for the Filipinos, it proclaims. Any attempt to treat them as an American possession, in the British sense of the term, is decreed as an infraction of various formulæ regarding the rights of man; although the obvious injustice of using the national funds for the benefit of an alien race, despite the opposition of a large tax-paying minority, is conveniently overlooked. Had the entire expenses of the Philippine experiment been borne by those who were in sympathy with the theory, the world might well have applauded; but as the matter stands the opposition may very plausibly claim that the government is violating those very ideals of liberty which it professes to regard so highly. The American has come to the far East with no previous experience of dealing with subject races. Despite the evidence of history, even of his own senses, he has declined to recognize the Filipino as an inferior. The native is, in the words of the late governor, "the little brown brother." Disregarding concrete facts, ignoring natural laws, the federal government has shut its eyes to the manifold weaknesses of the native. It has drawn no distinction between white and brown; it has denied the very existence of the eternal barrier of color. The Filipino is not regarded as a being altogether lower in the scale of evolution, but merely as an equal who has been debarred from the privileges of education. Officially, all the little brown

brother needs is schoolbooks. Cram him with education learned by rote, and, theoretically, he will become equal to the European, to the product of countless generations of civilization. Once educated, he will—still theoretically—be able to govern himself.

Such is the general scheme of American education in the Philippines, according to the *South China Post*.

This idea, it is admitted, has been carried out with righteous consistency.

It comes as a shock to the Britisher in the Philippines when he first sees an educated white man fraternizing with a semi-savage; when he finds that native judges may try Europeans; that all the best official billets go to the colored man; that natives can be elected governors of provinces by a native electorate; that the towns are ruled, and a *sot-disant* justice administered, by native presidents, who are far removed from all white supervision. In Africa, from the Great Lakes to Cape Agulhas, there is not a single colored official, not even a colored clerk, save in Cape Colony, and there only in the most subordinate positions. But the American believes he knows, intuitively, more than the Briton has learned since the day of Elizabeth, and that theories and platitudes form the essential basis of true liberty.

Dire have been the consequences of this policy, we are told.

No attempt has been made to develop the marvelous natural resources of the islands. The government has set its face against any exploitation; and, instead of encouraging the influx of white men and capital, which would lead to an increased prosperity for both European and Filipino, it has successfully endeavored to keep out would-be planters and merchants. Heavy import duties and the total prohibition of alien labor bid fair to bring the islands to the verge of ruin, despite their wonderful possibilities. Under the new *régime*, the native has lost all sense of proportion. He imagines himself the equal of the white man, and is so fully occupied with political vamping and seditious schemes that he is losing the habitude of honest labor. Consequently, Indian and Chinese coolies being prohibited, every form of industry is languishing.

In consequence, says this British editor,

the Americans here are, for the most part, bitterly hostile to the Government; and, very naturally, view the preference given to the native as an outrage. Even the chartered company, the most unpopular and inefficient government permitted under the Union Jack, has never been the subject of so much hostile criticism from its own subjects as the Philippines Commission to-day.

The end it is not difficult to see, in the opinion of this writer:

The more the Filipino is given, the more he will demand; and before long a point will be reached when even the present nerveless administration will cease to make concessions. Then, being a pampered and unreliable individual, the Filipino will endeavor to take what he desires by force. The large numbers of native troops and constabulary, some twenty thousand in all,

will furnish many recruits, armed and trained, to the new insurgent party, and a sanguinary war will result. Ultimately, the insurrection will be crushed; and by that time the federal government will probably have learned that the ruling of native races requires something beyond mere copy-book platitudes for guidance. The army will be in control; and it is unlikely that the direction of affairs will again be taken out of its hands. In the past, the American officer proved himself a capable administrator, clean-handed and just; and probably when he is reinstated he will not belie his past reputation.

These views find an echo in the earnest words of one of our correspondents, who writes us from Hongkong. Because we print here a portion of his letter, it does not necessarily imply that this REVIEW indorses the following paragraphs from this communication, whose author wishes to be known as "An American Drummer in the Orient":

The Philippines I believe to be one of the richest countries in the world in natural resources. The natives have been there for centuries, but have done nothing toward their country's development. And they never will. Why they should have this beautiful country to waste is beyond understanding. The life of the United States is its commerce. At the present rate of increase in production of manufactured goods, ten or twenty years will see an end to the increased demand. And then what will happen? Factories must be closed, laborers thrown out of employment, and capital must lie idle. What is the remedy? The Philippines.

The East, China especially, is slowly awakening, and in twenty years will have reached a point when her demand for goods will be enormous. The Philippines are geographically the distributing point for the Orient. Then, let our country awake to the possibilities before it, and in the next twenty years do everything possible to build up the Philippines and trade with the Orient. Establish free trade with the United States. Put Americans in charge of all departments of the government. Make it possible for American planters and investors to find safety there. Allow the importation of Chinese labor, so the resources can be developed.

And just let me say a word about Chinese labor. I remember seeing in the different papers of the United States articles condemning the action of the British Government in taking Chinese coolies to Africa to work in the mines. The question of humanity was played upon strongly, and virtual slavery, etc. Now, let me say that whatever you do to a Chinese coolie, you cannot make his lot worse than it is in China. Any change to any clime is a benefit to him. Why, the men who had charge of sending the coolies to Africa received a bonus from the mine-owners in Africa, and also took pay from the coolies for a *chance* to go. The applications were far in excess of the demands. How our lawmakers can sit in Washington and say that it would be detrimental to the Philippines to bring in Chinese labor is beyond comprehension. It will be the means of salvation. Every labor union in the United States having the interests of its members at heart should pass a resolution of The Philippines for the Americans, first, last, and all the time.

JAPAN AND THE KOREANS VERSUS THE KOREAN GOVERNMENT.

THE vital question in the Korean policy of Japan is how to deal with the Korean people, not how to cope with the Seoul government, says Saburo Shimada, a member of the Japanese House of Peers, in the *Taiyo*, of Tokio.

The Korean Emperor and the court cliques surrounding him are thinking of nothing but their own selfish interests, with little apprehension as to the fate of their country. Such a ruler and such courtiers are not difficult to control, if Japan's strong hand puts an end to their almost unceasing plottings and intrigues.

The real question is, How can Japan rule and guide the ten million souls which constitute the Korean nation? Many who have business interests in the peninsula, and those who are experienced in political affairs at Seoul, often arrive at the sweeping conclusion that the Koreans are shiftless, lazy, jealous, fickle, and utterly devoid of conscience. Mr. Shimada asserts that the Koreans are not vicious by nature, but have been made such as they are at present through the influence of political and social environment. Assuming that the present Korean nation is nothing but a degenerated form of a once sturdy and vigorous people, Mr. Shimada holds out a promise of its regeneration.

The despairing view that the Koreans are not sus-

ceptible to uplifting influences is generally voiced by politicians and business men. Educators and religious workers, on the contrary, are hopeful of the regeneration of the Koreans. Between these widely different opinions, where are we to find the truth?

Mr. Shimada believes that under a sound rulership and a trustworthy government the Koreans can be made reliable and industrious. As an example of the possibility of improving the Korean nation he mentions Christian churches which are now being established in a considerable number. It has been considered imprudent to save money in the Hermit Kingdom, because the exacting official might come at any moment to deprive people of the reward of their toil. But where the gospel of Christ has been preached there have come into existence a number of churches supported by the contributions of the thrifty and industrious. Thus, Christianity is teaching the Koreans the value of industry and money as well as the principles of humanity. Unfortunately, such civilizing agencies have been neglected by the Japanese. Politically, Japan has done much for Korea, but political influence is merely on the surface, and does not reach deep into the minds of the people.

IS THE RUSSIAN PEASANT REALLY AROUSED?

A CAREFUL study of the entire peasant agrarian movement in Russia appears in the *Russkaya Vedomosti*, by Dr. Maksimovich, a condensation of which is made by the monthly, *Obrazovanié*. We summarize the version of the latter.

The general features of the agrarian disorders have been practically the same all over the country, we are informed.

The peasants usually informed the landlord in advance as to their proposed visit to his estate. In some cases a committee of peasants came and inspected the place and then announced that the peasants would come on a certain day. At the appointed time a stack of straw was set on fire, a bonfire built, or merely a large bundle of straw tied to a long pole and ignited, and at this signal a crowd of peasants gathered with their wagons. In some cases there were from five hundred to seven hundred of the latter. In one case (at Romanovka) the signal was given by sounding the fire alarm. The assembled peasants advanced on the estate, discharged guns at their approach, broke the locks of the granaries, loaded the grain on their wagons, and departed. The presence of the estate-owner, or of the

manager, did not at all embarrass them. They permitted him to witness the proceedings, and made no attempt to drive him off the place, yet they offered no explanations to him. They pillaged mainly the grain stores; other farm products were taken by them only in rare instances. Hence, they seldom disturbed any of the other farm buildings. In Prilyepy, the peasants carried off the grains, but did not molest the sugar refinery; in Petrovsk, they did likewise without disturbing the whiskey distillery. They made no attempt, as a rule, to enter the dwellings. They demanded no money, with perhaps one exception. No violence was attempted, although in Vitich the local constable received a slight wound. As a rule, the peasants behaved with moderation. The same attitude was observed toward the government liquor stores. The peasants came there at night, previous to the descent on some estate, and demanded that the store be opened. After drinking whiskey, at times in great quantities, they paid for it and departed. No violence was attempted against schools and hospitals, so that in a number of cases the estate-owners sought refuge in schoolhouses. The pillage was participated in by entire villages—men, women, and youths. Among those arrested for robbery and confined in the prison at Syevsk there is a blind beggar. His fellow-villagers had supplied him with a horse and



THE CZAR (between the Japanese and a constitution): "I give up!"—From the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

wagon and helped him to load it with grain. In some cases only a part of the peasants in the village engaged in the pillaging of some estate, but later the remaining peasants, tempted by the example of their fellow-villagers, made a similar descent on some other estate. There was no systematic apportionment of estates among the different villages, the pillaging being done by peasants of various villages, who at times came from distant places. It is stated that single peasants were compelled to join these pillaging expeditions under threat of violence, yet it is difficult to determine whether this was really so.

As stated above, the peasants endeavored, on the whole, not to exceed certain limits, though they were not always successful in this. At times, under the stress of excitement, or under the influence of liquor, moderation was thrown to the winds and riot ran its course unchecked. In Glamazdin, the peasants not only pillaged the granaries, but set fire to the dwellings, out-buildings, and distillery. The same fate overtook the distillery at Khinel, and the sugar refinery at Mikhailovsk. The riot at Khinel assumed a terrifying character. The mob, mad with drink, destroyed everything in their reach. The effect of these disorders on the estate-owners may be easily imagined. No one dreamed of resistance. With the arrival of larger bodies of troops the disorders ceased, but many dis-

quieting rumors still persist. The peasants are said to have openly declared that they would not permit any spring operations on estate lands, and it is also stated that they are trying to secure money in advance on work to be performed later in the season, boasting, meanwhile, that they would make no attempt to do that work.

The causes of the disorders, both general and local, are quite complex, and are difficult to determine in all cases. One of them, indirectly, is the war. The mobilization in the district of Dmitriev caused marked discontent among the peasants. Moreover, there are many wounded there returned from the far East, who are in a miserable condition and desperate over their fate. Finally, something should be attributed to the belief prevailing among the peasantry that but few soldiers now remain in European Russia, for "they are all in the far East."

Why These Movements Fail.

One of the questions that must have occurred to every one who has given any thought to these peasant movements is why we do not see more far-reaching consequences from them. Mr. Wolf Dohm, writing in the *Hilfe* (Berlin), points out that the occurrences in one place have

ceased being news before reaching the next one.

This became strikingly manifest during the disorders in Gomel. The property where I was stationed at that time is situated about one hundred kilometers from the town, a steamer running daily up the river, and the steamboat office is thirty kilometers from the estate. Yet the news about the massacre reached us first after a period of three to four weeks. Who is going to care any more about it after such a long time? People shake their heads, comment and criticise, but for prompt action the urgent necessity of the moment is gone. The impulse dies before it has been awakened. It is necessary to keep in memory the fact that 80 per cent. of the whole population in Russia is scattered over the waste plains in little villages protected by the popes (priests). If there is revolution in Paris, it is revolution in France. Not so in Russia. The cries of flogged and massacred people in the cities are not heard on the immense plains.

The Russian peasant, the writer declares, is pious, patriotic, and devoted to the Czar. When the fall comes and the harvest has been gathered in, the functionaries of the government arrive and rob him of the toilsome profit of his work. During the winter he suffers, consequently, great need. Yet the peasant is patient and hungers through the winter with his cattle. In the spring, weakened by the long fasting, it often happens that the cattle fall to the ground and die on green meadow. The peasant suffers thus because he does not know anything else, and because he is by no means able to see the connection.

And how can he? In this century of public-school education anybody would realize that the government is the cause of the evil. The Russian peasant thinks different. No, he says, the Czar and the government are not guilty. Guilty are the tax officers, because they steal; guilty are the judges, because they are bribed;

guilty are, above all, the landlords, because they have much land, much corn, and many horses. If we only had more land, it would be different; but why do we not possess more land? The country is great, but it is divided since many years. Our children must go to the factories or emigrate to Siberia or the West. Land is too small, harvest is too small, and if I did not work in the woods during the winter I could not support my family. And why is this? Did not Czar Alexander give us land, and did he not take it from the landlords? Why does not Czar Nicholas do the same? Whence does the landlord get the land? Land belongs actually to man, and not to landlords. Does my field belong to me? No, it is county property. But why does the landlord own his land?

Thus reasons the Russian peasant. When he is hungry, or when the military commission levies all men able to work and nobody is left to cultivate the land, he does not raise the cry of the intelligent laborers for a constitution, but calls for—bread. The peasant goes now to the property of the landlord and demands corn. If it happens to be no holyday and the peasant is sober, he is satisfied if he gets it and returns home. Furthermore, much will depend on how the new military commission will go to work. If they only take a few out of every village, the writer claims, everything will remain quiet. If they take many, the peasant will say, and we hear it already, If the government takes our men, we will take corn from the landlords, for how shall our wives and our children live?

Here is indeed the key to the great Russian problem. So long as the government has nothing to fear from the peasantry, it can without conscience continue the foul play of promises of improvements. This is the truth, and it is serious for many that are ready to sacrifice life and liberty for their country. On the waste plains sleeps the future of Russia,—but where is the man to awaken it?

AN ENGLISH DISCUSSION OF LIFE ASSURANCE.

IN view of the recent crisis in the affairs of one of the great life insurance companies of New York, it is interesting to follow the discussion that has been begun in the pages of the *Grand Magazine* (London) on the wisdom or unwisdom of life insurance. In the June number of that periodical, Mr. John Holt Schooling maintains that the civilized world has agreed that life assurance is wise, as is proved by the vast amount of life-assurance business done, £33,000,000 (\$165,000,000), or nearly £650,000 (\$3,250,000) a week, having been paid in 1902 in the United Kingdom alone for premiums.

The population was 42,000,000, and the premium-paying part of the population may be regarded as per-

sons aged fifteen and older,—namely, 28,000,000 persons, who among them paid the £33,000,000. This means, approximately, a yearly and voluntary payment of £1 8s. 6d. per head of the population of this country, aged fifteen and over, as practical proof that in their opinion life assurance is wise. In this country alone, there is accumulated evidence, to the value of £289,000,000, of the truth that life assurance is wise. And in addition to the facts just stated, we have all the friendly societies doing life assurance, and sickness assurance, whose accumulated funds are approximately £40,000,000.

Now if life assurance is wise, why is it wise? Primarily, because it is prudent. "It enables a man to rid himself of some injurious effects of an adverse chance that is always present while he lives,—the chance of death coming to him

unexpectedly." The insinuations that life assurance is but a form of gambling Mr. Schooling indignantly and, most people will think, successfully repudiates.

The man who assures his life ceases to be engaged in a gamble with death, in so far as relates to money, and he takes upon himself a contract that involves a certain yearly payment, for a certain amount to be paid whenever he may die. The nature of this contract constitutes the radical difference between life assurance and betting. For in life assurance you replace a chance by a certainty, and in betting you continue to take the risk of a chance.

A certain small minority, he admits, whose death would entail no hardship on any other person, may without much harm continue taking the chances of betting, and let the book-makers and not the life assurance company have the profits. But, as Mr. Schooling says, there are very few persons so situated.

It appears from Mr. Schooling's article that the great English companies have been subjected to criticisms very similar to those which the "big three" of New York have been called upon to answer.

As to the "palatial offices" of life assurance companies supposed to have been paid for out of lapsed policies, Mr. Schooling says :

These are usually the growth of years of successful and wide-spreading business, and inside inspection of them will disclose the fact that they are a very hive of industry, directly promoting the thrift and prudence of the nation, and in no way out of proportion to the vast business that has to be got through daily. These buildings, palatial or otherwise, are simply adapted to the most efficient performance of the work that has to be done in them.

Insurance Declared Unwise.

Mr. Bellot's view is that insurance is but a form of gambling, and that if gambling is unwise, so must life assurance be unwise also.

So far, therefore, as the assured puts down his money

with the certainty of repayment sooner or later, either to himself, if it is an endowment policy, or to his representatives, if it is a life policy, whereas the gambler runs the risk of losing, not only the increase he expects to gain, but the sum wagered as well, insurance and gambling are not on all-fours. But, subject to this distinction, the practice of life assurance is as much gambling as backing a horse on a race-course or bulling or bearing shares in a bucketshop.

Even Mr. Bellot, however, concedes that, "apart from the morality of the question, it must undoubtedly be admitted that life assurance is economically beneficial, not only to the individual, but to the community at large." But, he asks, is the benefit conferred commensurate with the outlay, and are the companies' profits legitimate in the sense that the shareholders receive no more than a fair market return for the use of their money? Profits exceeding 5 per cent. on the original capital he considers excessive; and there is not one of the large number of well-known companies he instances whose profits do not exceed, often very greatly exceed, that sum, one (Sun Life) even reaching 95 per cent. ! His remedy is the fixing of a maximum rate of interest, which he does not propose to impose on present companies, though he thinks that by a system of graduated taxation it might in course of time be brought about.

Or the state might extend and expand its present restricted post-office system of life assurance, or, better still, take over bodily the whole business of life assurance in the United Kingdom.

In which connection it is strange that he does not mention the long-tried experiment of state life insurance in New Zealand. His objections are not to life assurance in itself, however, but merely to the way in which it is often conducted. It is not free from the spirit of gambling; profits to shareholders are excessive, and require state limitation.

JEWISH IMMIGRANTS DESIRED IN ENGLAND.

IN connection with the aliens bill before Parliament, the British reviews are discussing the pros and cons of an open-door immigration policy. In the *Fortnightly* for June, Mr. M. J. Landa, who writes from close practical acquaintance with the Jews of Whitechapel, London, states "The Case for the Alien." He shows that the Polish Jewish immigrant is, physically and morally, a better man than the London East Ender. Of one lot of Russian reservists who arrived in January we are told: "They are

well-developed, well-fed, big-chested men, with legs like molded pillars." Major-General Moody declared that he had never seen a finer lot of men, taken as a whole. Their health is so excellent that there has been only one case of illness in the shelter in six years.

The Jewish mothers are better mothers than English mothers. They feed their children from the breast, and not from the bottle. Jewish children at twelve years of age weigh seven pounds more than English children of the same

class, and stand two inches higher. Whitechapel is the best-vaccinated district in London.

THE JEWS MORE MORAL THAN THE BRITONS.

Their death rate is low, and they are so moral and sober that they have converted East End hells into respectable homes. The Rev. W. H. Davies, the rector of Spitalfields, told the Alien Commission :

The Jew has wiped out whole areas of vice and infamy. Where once we had houses in streets like Flower and Dean streets, and various streets of that kind, now dwellings like the Rothschild Buildings stand. I suppose it was as near a hell upon earth as it was possible to make a place, and all that has been wiped out. There are streets, too, where they have gone into houses of ill-fame, notoriously bad houses, and they have taken one room and lived there. They have been insulted and persecuted, but they have held their ground. They have never quarreled. Then they have taken a second room, or some other Jewish family has taken a second room, until gradually they have got the whole house, and so purified the whole street by excluding the objectionable people who lived there. It is a most marvelous thing, but they have done it.—(Minutes of Evidence, Cd. 1,742, answer 9,768.)

THEIR ZEAL FOR EDUCATION.

The Jewish passion for education is notorious. But it is not generally known how much more regularly they attend school than do the Gentiles.

The average school attendance in the country is 85 per cent. ; in Whitechapel, it is about 95,—it is never less than that in a group of schools in the heart of Whitechapel of which I am a manager,—while the Leylands Jewish school at Leeds some years ago won a prize of a piano for the best attendance in the kingdom for a year with the wonderful figure of 99.47 per cent. The schoolmaster, Mr. J. Watson, a non-Jew, claims a world's record in attendance for this school ; for seven years it has not been under 98 per cent. There are nearly one thousand children in the school, and in a letter dated January 13 last Mr. Watson writes to me : "I am proud of my scholars, most of whom will make citizens whom any nation may be delighted to possess." The same enthusiastic tribute to their Jewish scholars was paid by every East End schoolmaster—all non-Jews—who gave evidence before the Alien Commission.

BAD RECORD OF AMERICANS IN LONDON.

The criminal alien is more often an American than a Jew. The Americans, who are only 6 per cent. of the alien population, contribute 23½ of the alien criminality. The Russians and Poles, who are 33 per cent. of the alien population, only contribute 17 per cent. of the crime. As for the accusation that they add to London's pauperism and increase the poor rate, the very reverse is the truth. Whitechapel is the most Jewish alien district in the country. It is almost the only district where the number of outdoor paupers has been reduced to almost nothing,



JEWSH EMIGRANTS FROM RUSSIA—FATHER AND SON.

ing, while the increase of indoor paupers is only 29 per cent. in thirty-three years, as against 89.5 per cent. in the rest of the metropolis. Clearly, if this be so, the more Jewish aliens England can import the lower will be the poor rate.

THE JEWS CREATE NEW INDUSTRIES.

But it is urged that these Jewish aliens black-leg, undersell, and oust the British workingman. To this Mr. Landa replies that they have created work for the workingman. He quotes from the commission's report as follows :

The development of the three main industries—tailoring, cabinetmaking, and shoemaking—in which the alien engage has undoubtedly been beneficial in various ways ; it has increased the demand for, and the manufacture, not only of goods made in this country (which were formerly imported from abroad), but of the materials used in them, thus indirectly giving employment to native workers.

Wages have gone up instead of going down after the Jews came. He says :

During his election campaign in North Leeds in July, 1902, Mr. Rowland Barran, M.P., a member of what is probably the largest firm of ready-made clothiers in the world, stated that the Jews had enabled England to maintain practically a monopoly of the clothing trade of the world. Within the last twenty years huge factories have been erected in Leeds, and it is computed that fully twenty thousand non-Jewish workers are engaged there in an industry which the city owes almost entirely to the aliens.

It was the Jews who introduced the ladies' tailoring industry into England. Now twenty thousand persons are employed in this business in England, doing work that formerly was sent abroad. So it is in the cigarette and waterproof industry. The only "industry" that seems to have suffered from the coming of the Jews is the trade in drink and the keeping of houses of ill-fame.

GLASGOW AND BOSTON: A STREET-RAILWAY COMPARISON.

ONE of the most conspicuous instances of street-railway municipalization in the world is in the city of Glasgow, where the city not only owns, but operates, the tramway lines. Because Glasgow's experiment is believed to be the most favorable for municipal ownership that could be selected, it is chosen by Mr. Hayes Robbins (writing in the *American Journal of Sociology*) for comparison with the experience of Boston, where in place of ownership of the transportation lines by the city there is an efficient system of public control.

Probably the public is as much interested in the question of fares as in any other phase of the street-railway problem, and American readers will be especially interested in the data presented by Mr. Robbins under this head. Any comparison of fares involves, of course, a consideration of the amount of service furnished in the respective cases. As between Glasgow and Boston, there is really less difference than might at first sight appear. Glasgow has a graduated scale of fares, ranging from 1 cent for a little over half a mile to 8 cents for 9 miles. A five-cent fare carries a passenger 5.8 miles in Glasgow. Mr. Robbins concludes that "the confusions and complications of such a system, for the varying distances traveled, would prohibit it from meeting the demand for the utmost possible expedition on our large American city transit systems. Even more serious is the increasing rate of penalty it imposes upon the wide distribution of traffic, and hence upon the building up of workingmen's homes in the suburbs." Mr. Robbins makes this latter point clear by means of a detailed comparison, as follows:

In Boston, the uniform fare is 5 cents, and by means of the free-transfer privilege it is possible, for this sum, to ride from one end of the system to the other, fully 20 miles. Wage-earners and clerks employed in the busi-

ness districts can live 8 to 9 miles out and ride to and from their homes for 5 cents, while the Glasgow "suburbanite," to travel equal distances, if the lines extended that far, would have to pay 7 and 8 cents, respectively. A journey of 15 or 16 miles out from central points in Boston, by connection with outlying suburban lines, may be taken for 10 cents, and 20 to 25 miles for 15 cents. The same distances, under the Glasgow rates, would cost 13, 14, 18, and 22 cents, respectively.

The short-ride and congested-district character of the Glasgow service must be borne in mind in connection with the fact that the average amount received per passenger, based on the returns of annual earnings, is a little less than 2 cents. In Boston, counting the free-transfer passengers, it is about $3\frac{1}{4}$ cents. But what is the effect of the sliding scale on Glasgow traffic? Simply that the great bulk of the travel consists of short rides within the city limits. *Thirty-six per cent.* of the passengers pay one-cent fares,—that is, ride only half a mile; 56 per cent. pay the two-cent fare, covering 2.33 miles; only 8 per cent. pay fares of 3 cents and upward; in other words, only 8 per cent. make journeys of more than 3.5 miles.

To be even more explicit: The most distant suburban point to which the Glasgow tramways extend is Paisley, 6.95 miles. To get there costs 6 cents, or 7 from the center of the city. The next farthest point is Clydebank, 6.39 miles; fare, 6 cents. Three other suburbs are between 4 and 5 miles, and one about $3\frac{1}{4}$. From Park Street station, Boston, a passenger may ride 9.53 miles to Arlington Heights for 5 cents; 9.83 miles to Charles River Bridge; 8.23 miles to Arlington Center; 8 miles to Waverley; 7.9 miles to the Melrose line; 7.36 miles to Milton; 7.3 miles to Neponset; 6.32 miles to Woodlawn; and 6.04 miles to Lake Street; and the uniform fare for any one of these journeys, or for any two of them in combination, through free transfer, is 5 cents.

To show that the Glasgow system is not doing what it should to relieve the congestion of population in the crowded portions of the city, Mr. Robbins cites the results of a recent investigation, which brought to light the fact that 30 per cent. of the families in Glasgow were living in single rooms, as compared with about $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. in Boston.

A WARNING TO AMERICAN ART COLLECTORS.

A CABLEGRAM which appeared in a New York newspaper a few weeks ago announced the seizure, by the police of Paris, of numerous "faked" pictures in the sale-rooms of the Hôtel Drouot. The seized paintings, it was said, bore the forged signatures of Boudin, Corot, Courbet, Harpignies, and Jongkind. American picture-buyers, reading the announcement, must have been amazed by the revelation that it made of the utter lack of protection against

fraud in these Parisian sale-rooms. Apparently, the American connoisseur is quite at the mercy of the official "experts" who control the picture sales. This shady side of the Parisian picture trade, which seems to be little known in the United States, is the subject of an unsigned article in the *North American Review* for June. The writer of this article maintains that these fraudulent practices in picture-selling have never been so barefaced as during the last few years.

IMPORTANCE OF THE "EXPERT."

The auctioneers are admittedly ignorant men. There are no necessary qualifications for this calling except a sum of money large enough to purchase a post. "A Paris auctioneer need have no artistic knowledge." He may, of course, acquire knowledge after a few years' practice, but in the meantime "fakes" are passing through his hands and being sold as genuine. He is assisted, it is true, by an expert, and as to this functionary the writer of the *North American* article remarks:

The expert in a Paris picture sale has no responsibility whatever. Yet he it is who presides over the sale, who draws up the catalogue in any manner he thinks fit, and who packs the sale-room with his friends and accomplices, with whom he is frequently agreed as to the opportune moment of putting up this or that work of art. The interests of the venders, and these are often widows or minors, are entirely in his hands, and, if he is so disposed, he can sacrifice them without fear of anything worse than reproach. On the occasion of a recent sale at the Hôtel Drouot, a certain expert, who, as is frequently the case, is also a dealer, placed a value of 150 francs upon a picture. One of the spectators, recognizing that the canvas was a good one and worth much more than the price placed upon it, bid again and again. The expert was also very anxious to have the picture,—so much so, in fact, that he bid up to the sum of 1,200 francs before securing it. No sooner had the picture been knocked down to him at this price than a well-known Parisian art critic rose and reproached the expert with offering 1,200 francs for a work which he had valued at only 150 francs. It more frequently happens, however, that the "expert" is distinguished for his crass ignorance.

SPURIOUS PAINTINGS FOR THE AMERICAN MARKET.

This writer declares that in the Montmartre and Montparnasse quarters there are many "manufactories" in which artists are employed on salaries copying the canvases of the great masters. These copies, duly stamped as authentic, are sent to the United States and sold "for their weight in gold" to American millionaires. The forger no longer waits for an artist's death before realizing on his masterpieces. Not long since, a consignment of twenty-nine paintings, all copies of works by three living artists, was seized at one of the ports just before shipment to the United States.

Twenty years ago, when pictures of the 1830 school were all the rage, thousands of copies of canvases by Corot, Diaz, Dupré, Daubigny, Théodore Rousseau, Troyon, and others were sent in that way to America. Dealers had in their employment a small army of imitators of those great painters. These *pasticheurs* worked, some, near Fontainebleau; others, in the neighborhood of Cernay, every week bringing in their work, signed, of course, with famous names. All the canvases by

pupils of Corot, Diaz, and the others—men who had worked more or less in the style of their masters—which could be found were collected and re-signed. How is it that nowadays so few pictures by Villers and Mazon can be found? The many works which those excellent painters produced have not been destroyed. No; they have not been thrown away as worthless because of the greater renown of Millet and Corot; they are hanging at this very moment in the galleries of great collectors, but baptized with other names than those of the men who painted them!

Here is another instance of what used to be done about the year 1880. A certain dealer in Paris bought one picture by each of the following painters: Corot, Daubigny, Diaz, and Théodore Rousseau. Engaging a clever copyist at a salary of one thousand francs a month, and providing him with a house and garden in the country, he set him to work to copy each picture twenty-five times, slightly varying the subject in each case. The hundred copies were produced in ten months, during which time, according to agreement, the painter saw no one save his servant. All these copies were sent to the United States and sold as originals from the collections of this or that well-known Parisian.

Very much the same thing is done nowadays in the case of eighteenth-century pictures. As in 1880, huge fortunes are being made by dealers who ten years ago were unknown in the picture trade. In forging old pictures, generally portraits, not only the copyist, but the painter-restorer, plays a part. The way in which the latter proceeds about his work will be seen from what follows.

A dealer collects together a number of pictures by one or other of the numerous old masters whose works are not in vogue,—if possible, pictures by a painter who worked somewhat in the style of this or that famous artist; and from these, by means of skillful retouching, the painter-restorer produces works which are signed Rembrandt, Ruysdael, Hobbema, Raphael, Boucher, or Watteau. Placed in the shops of dealers who are supposed to be honest, these canvases find a ready market among wealthy collectors, who almost invariably trust another person's opinion in preference to their own. In the case of portraits and pictures containing figures, such as those by Largillière, which, like Nattier's works, are just now rising in value, a similar method is adopted, only care is taken to select pictures the light parts of which are uninjured and as near as possible in the style of the master whose work is to be imitated. With the assistance of good engravings, the drawing is slightly altered; half-tones and shadows are added; and, by means of glazes, the necessary piquancy and effect are produced. Naturally, canvases of the correct period, and genuine old stretchers—or panels, in the case of painters who usually painted on wood—are selected. Thus, a worthless portrait of, say, an old woman is turned into a picture of a pretty, bright-eyed damsel, which, under the name of either Nattier or Largillière, will "embellish" the gallery of some transatlantic connoisseur.

The patina and cracks of old pictures require very skillful imitating. Some picture-forgers use saffron, bistre, licorice, or black coffee, which have now replaced bacon rind, so much used in former years. When this has been applied and is quite dry, the picture is varnished. Sometimes thick oil is added to the varnish, or it is colored with bitumen, yellow lac, and red ocher, which give almost exactly the tone of old varnish.

Lest some of his readers should be inclined to think that he has exaggerated the perils to which the American collector is exposed, this writer states that many of his facts have been

obtained from a well-known French collector who on more than one occasion has detected the numerous tricks to which these unscrupulous tradesmen resort.

COLLEGE ATHLETICS AND "SUMMER BALL."

THE amateur code of college ball-players is a subject of heated discussion during the summer months. For this reason the treatment of "summer ball" by Henry Beach Needham in the July number of *McClure's* is especially timely. By summer ball is meant baseball played by collegians on teams of a semi-professional character which are organized to furnish entertainment for the guests at summer resorts. It is said that these "summer nines" had their origin at the White Mountain resorts about fifteen years ago. In those days, college players gave their services on the diamond in exchange for entertainment at the fashionable hotels. At the season's end it was customary to make up a purse by popular subscription for the players. Such conduct was not at first deemed incompatible with proper amateur standards. The players did not forfeit their eligibility to a college team. In 1898, however, when the Conference on Intercollegiate Athletics met at Providence, there was a vigorous pronouncement against the summer nines. All students receiving any emolument, direct or indirect, by reason of their connection with such nines were debarred from college athletics.

Notwithstanding this rigid prohibition, applying to all the leading colleges of the East, the rule has been repeatedly evaded, if not openly violated. It is extremely difficult, as Mr. Needham shows, to obtain legal proof of this form of offense. Circumstantial evidence is seldom accepted by the judicial athletic committees. As the players will not furnish evidence against themselves (regarding the rule as a hardship), the committees are compelled to rely largely on the managers of the teams, who "lie manfully," Mr. Needham says, when asked for evidence. "Thus, in summer ball there is more lying and subterfuge than in any other evil connected with intercollegiate athletics."

Practically all of the colleges which have adopted the Providence rules require athletes to sign an eligibility certificate. The collegians step up and sign without hesitation, but with a mental reservation, for many of them, including men of all colleges, are ineligible.

The universities of the middle West have adopted a rule under which the burden of proof

does not rest with the athletic committee, as it does in the East. "Common report" may be accepted as a "basis for action." If this rule were enforced in the East, declares Mr. Needham, a majority of the college baseball-players would be debarred from further participation in athletics.

FACULTY RESPONSIBILITY.

Not the undergraduates themselves, but the college faculties, according to Mr. Needham, are responsible at most institutions for the evils of athletics.

The college faculties are responsible, because they have usurped responsibility to themselves. Several years ago, college athletics were entirely in the hands of the undergraduates. Professionalism crept in, and conditions, in some respects, were worse than they are to-day. Instead of delivering this ultimatum to the student body, Purify your athletics or intercollegiate contests will be abolished, the faculties of the colleges, one after another, proceeded to take control into their own hands.

The University of Pennsylvania committee on athletics is a good illustration. Half of the members of the committee are professors, and the student body has but two representatives. For some time there were no undergraduates on the committee. "Undergraduates seemed reluctant to serve on the committee," said Professor Smith, the chairman. "They do not care to be informers against their fellow-students."

The average college professor, it is asserted, does not take the trouble to inform himself on athletic matters. Furthermore, many professors appear lacking in backbone when it comes to dealing with problems in college athletics. That is why athletes rejoice in so many special privileges which are denied the ordinary student. But here and there, on college athletic committees, appears a man with abundance of backbone. Mr. Needham admits as much when he says:

It takes an uncompromising fighter like Professor Hollis, of Harvard, to stand up before an athletic mass-meeting and enunciate this wholesome doctrine: "The athlete who, when indispensable to his team, suffers himself to fall behind in his studies and is put on probation—that man is in the same class with the man who breaks training." There is a growing undergraduate sentiment in favor of this principle, and it is one of the hopeful signs of approaching regeneration in athletics.

RECENT EXPLORATIONS OF THE SOUTH POLE.

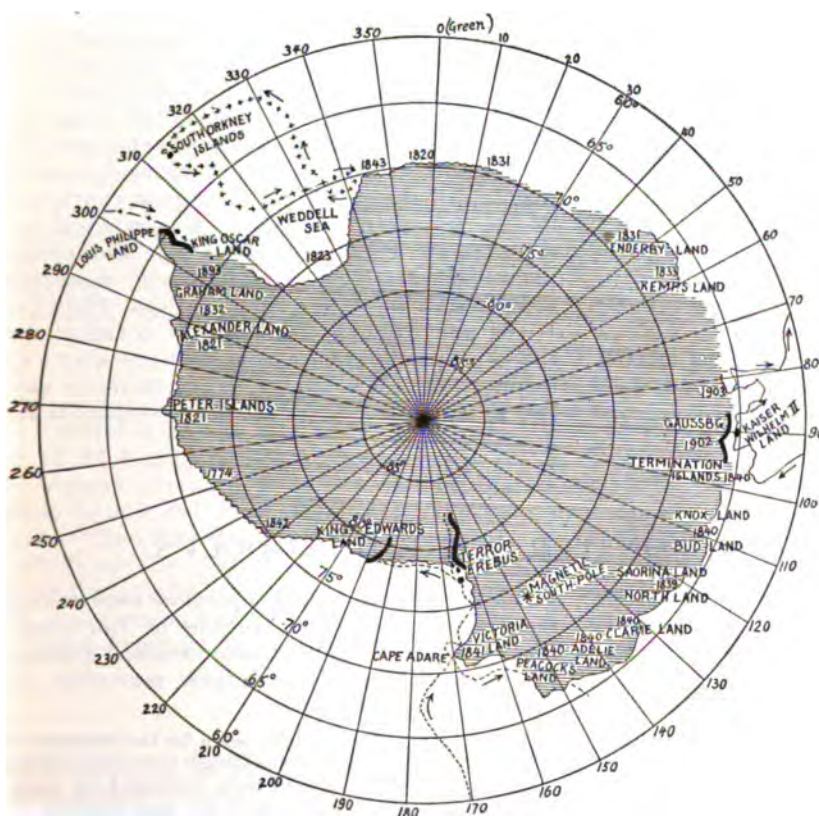
THE three South Pole expeditions from England, Germany, and Sweden are the subject of an article in the German monthly *Umschau* (Frankfort-on-Main), by Dr. F. Lampe. The results from the international work in the arctic regions, the writer says, cannot yet be fully elaborated, but they have so far considerably increased our geographical knowledge of those parts of the earth.

There was a difference between the English and the German expeditions, which we find set

the South Pole, where there was an unexplored place on the map extending for about forty degrees of longitude. There they expected to find a stream that would convey them near to the Pole and bring them to the Weddell Sea, but on the other side. Instead, however, they discovered a hitherto unknown land, and undertook there close examinations the full value of which will be seen in the future.

The crew of the *Discovery* were at first greatly favored by ice and weather, and they soon espied

an unknown land, naming it after King Edward of England. Later, they were entirely surrounded by ice and compelled to remain there over winter. Great stress was laid upon sleighing expeditions, which brought the English expedition nearer the Pole than any former explorers. The winter camp of the *Discovery* was laid near Mount Erebus, where Borchgrewink had passed the winter, and from there Captain Scott and Lieutenant Shackleton undertook, in November, 1903 and 1904, their admirable journeys toward the south. The provender for the dogs proved so unsatisfactory that the animals became sick. One of the leaders, Shackleton, also fell sick. The results attained by the two men are so much more deserving of credit. The lieutenants, Armitage and Skelton, proceeded on a second sleigh tour, penetrating westwardly into Victoria Land, and ascended the ice-fields there up to an altitude of six thousand feet. In the meantime, a relief ship, the *Morning*, under Captain Colback, had started out in search of the *Discovery*. It succeeded in approaching the latter vessel at a distance of eight kilometers, in rescuing the sick among the crew, and in supplying the winter camp with men, coal, and provisions. The *Discovery* was still



MAP OF THE ANTARCTIC REGIONS.

forth in the names of the ships. The German ship, the *Gauss*, carried the name of a celebrated man of science to the antarctic regions, while the English vessel, *Discovery*, was intended for new explorations. The best-known part of Victoria Land was chosen for this latter purpose,—that is, the place where Captain Ross, and sixty years later the Norwegian, Borchgrewink, had already penetrated farther south than any former explorer. The learned savants on the *Gauss*, on the contrary, selected the territory of

tenants, Armitage and Skelton, proceeded on a second sleigh tour, penetrating westwardly into Victoria Land, and ascended the ice-fields there up to an altitude of six thousand feet. In the meantime, a relief ship, the *Morning*, under Captain Colback, had started out in search of the *Discovery*. It succeeded in approaching the latter vessel at a distance of eight kilometers, in rescuing the sick among the crew, and in supplying the winter camp with men, coal, and provisions. The *Discovery* was still

held fast by the ice, and had to remain over winter once more. We see here again a contrast with the German expedition, which after wintering was conducted out into the open sea by the drift ice, and in spite of all efforts to find another haven for winter camp, failed to do so. Notwithstanding the fact that the whole crew of the *Gauss* was in perfect health and provisions still plentiful, the expedition was compelled to return home by order of the Berlin government. Samples of the provisions were sent to the St. Louis exposition, in order to prove the excellence of these German products.

Returning to the English expedition, we find Captain Scott and Lieutenant Skelton, during the second winter, on another two-month sleigh journey into Victoria Land. The journey brought many good results in geographical knowledge, particularly magnetic phenomena. The magnetic South Pole was found to be more to the southwest than Ross had believed. There were also some geological discoveries of petrified vegetables. The Swedish expedition found such fossils, too, which proves that there formerly existed a much milder climate in those regions. It also indicates an ancient connection with the Australian continent.

On January, 1904, two relief ships arrived. It was presumed that the *Morning* alone would not be able to rescue the crew and the cargo of the *Discovery*, whose liberation from the ice was

hardly expected. In the month of February the vessels nevertheless got out of the ice, and they succeeded also in coaling. A violent storm then separated the three ships *Discovery*, *Morning*, and *Terranova*, so that they did not meet again until their arrival at New Zealand. The *Antarctic*, the vessel fitted out by the Swedish Government, had to be abandoned by the crew, which later were rescued by an Argentine gunboat. The results of this expedition prove also of great value, and the scientific material is abundant.

A glance at the sketch of the land around the South Pole shows that the antarctic regions have been explored since 1774. As to the recent discoveries, the German expedition has proved that the so-called island of Termination, seen in 1840, and later sought for by the *Challenger* expedition, never really existed, but that the coast about ten degrees southward extends from east to west. The weather conditions indicated that behind this coast there is a great continent extending toward the south. Geographical results from the Swedish expedition also make plain that what have heretofore been regarded as separated territories, such as Louis Philippe Island and Graham Land, really constitute a single peninsula from a continent probably extending from the south. We can therefore say that antarctic territories are more compact than heretofore believed.

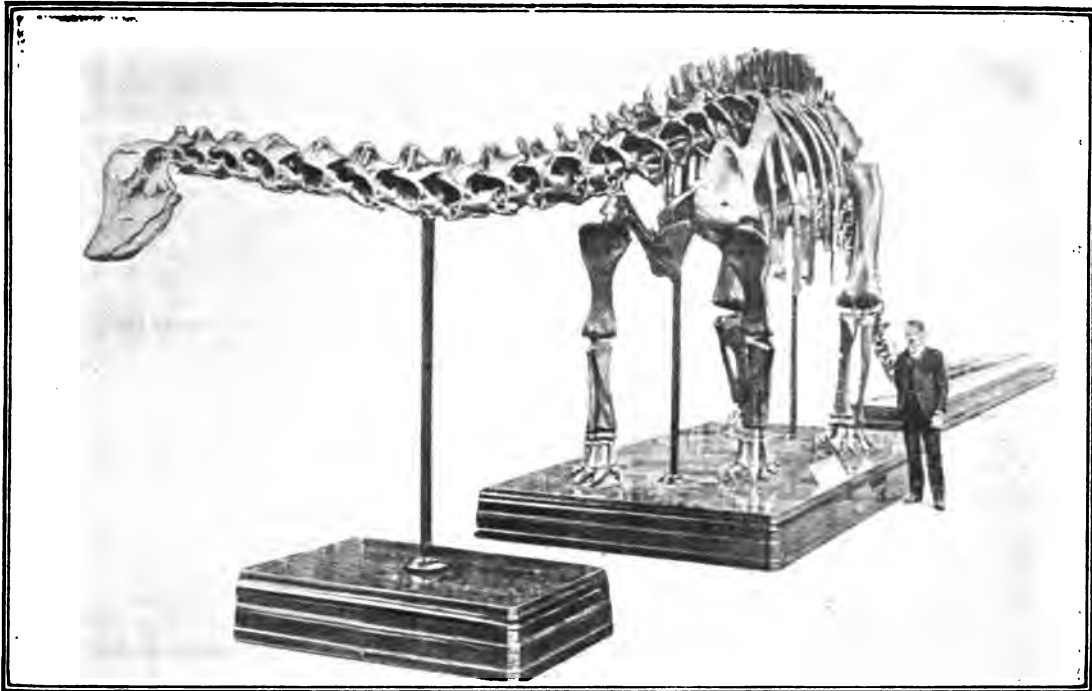
A PREHISTORIC MONSTER: THE DIPLODOCUS.

THE story of the discovery and restoration of the *Diplodocus Carnegii*, the reptile of the order *Dinosauria* which was unearthed several years ago in Wyoming and now has a place of honor in the Carnegie Museum, at Pittsburg, is related in the pages of the *Westminster Review* for June by Director W. J. Holland, of the museum. This monster was secured for the Pittsburg institution through the generosity of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. It belongs to the sub-order of Sauropods, which were vegetable feeders, as is shown by their teeth. They were quadrupeds,—terrestrial in their habits, but capable of movement in water. Professor Holland thinks that they probably haunted the shores of the shallow lagoons and estuaries of the small continent which, in the Jurassic time, lay to the west of the Mississippi Valley as now defined and was one of the nuclei out of which the continent of North America was built. This small continent had a tropical climate, as is shown by the fact that in the very quarry from

which the remains of the *diplodocus* were taken there were also found portions of the fossil stems of palm trees and other tropical plants. Professor Holland describes these sauropods as "condensing machines."

They apparently came into being for the purpose of eating vegetable food and converting it into nitrogenous matter. They were then, in turn, consumed by their carnivorous relatives. They held the same relation to the carnivores which cattle hold at the present day to man. They were the agents for converting grass into meat. No other use for sauropods in the economy of the world at that time suggests itself to the writer. That their dead bodies were preyed upon by carnivorous dinosaurs is a fact which is shown by the marks of teeth upon their bones, and by finding the broken teeth of carnivorous dinosaurs mingled with the skeletons of the herbivora.

Carnivorous dinosaurs are believed to have been numerous in those times. They were not nearly so large in size as the sauropods, but had terrible fangs and jaws, and great feet, and were armed with remarkable talons. Professor Hol-



THE DIPLODOCUS CARNEGII.

land describes them as "veritable dragons, far more terrible than the one which taxed the valor of St. George." The dinosaurs reached their highest development at the end of the Jurassic period and the beginning of the Cretaceous. Then they slowly began to disappear. The whole order is extinct, and the only reptile of to-day which in some parts of its anatomy shows some resemblance to the dinosaur is the little lizard found in New Zealand. The skele-

ton in the Carnegie Museum was restored from material furnished by four specimens discovered in Wyoming at different times during the years 1899-1903. The skull is a reproduction based upon the original skull, first discovered by Professor Marsh, and a second skull obtained by the Carnegie Museum in 1902. A few of the bones of the fore feet, and a few of the chevrons of the tail, have been supplied by reproductions of materials belonging to other collections.

THE COMMERCE OF LATIN AMERICA.

OUR neglected trade interests in American countries to the south of us are brought to our notice, from time to time, in magazine articles, which apparently fail to gain the attention of Congress. Such articles seem to be needed to remind us that south of the United States there exists an American population of 60,000,000 souls, inhabiting an area greater by 1,500,000 square miles than the United States, Canada, Alaska, and the Hawaiian Islands combined. This and many other striking facts concerning Latin America, so called, are tersely stated in an article contributed to the June *Arena* by Prof. Frederick M. Noa. Taken in connec-

tion with Minister Barrett's account of Argentine progress, in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, Professor Noa's article throws new light on trade conditions in the southern half of our hemisphere.

According to the latest statistics published by our own Bureau of Statistics (the figures for 1902), the total foreign trade of Latin America with the entire world was, in round numbers, \$1,198,000,000, against \$728,000,000 for the far East,—namely, China, Japan, and the Philippines. The foreign commerce of Latin America is nearly one-half that of the United States, while that of the far East is less than one-third. The

opening of the Panama Canal will undoubtedly make that trade far more valuable than it is now.

Pursuing his analysis of the figures given by the United States Bureau of Statistics, Professor Noa shows that the total exports of Latin America for 1902 were, in round numbers, \$713,384,000, of which \$286,792,000, or only about one-third, came to the United States. The imports in the same year amounted to \$484,660,000, of which the United States contributed only \$114,636,000, or less than one-third. Taking a rapid survey of the leading Latin-American countries, Professor Noa begins with Mexico and shows that 76 per cent. of the exports of that country for 1902 came to the United States, while of her imports the United States contributed 63 per cent. This may be regarded as a fairly satisfactory showing, although Professor Noa holds that there is room for improvement even here, considering that Mexico lies in close proximity to the United States, with which it has close railroad connections.

OUR BEGGARLY SHARE OF THE LATIN-AMERICAN TRADE.

Cuba sends 80 per cent. of her exports to the United States and receives from this country 44 per cent. of her imports, the United States being the best market for Cuban sugar and tobacco. Cuba and Mexico are the only Latin-American republics which have commercial relations with the United States at all commensurate with the importance of their general trade. Brazil, for example, sends considerably less than one-half of her exports to the United States, and receives from this country less than 10 per cent. of her imports. The exports of the Argentine Republic are almost as extensive as those of Brazil, but of the grand total of \$173,205,000 only about 5 per cent. reaches the ports of the United States. Of Argentina's imports, amounting to nearly \$100,000,000, the United States supplies less than 13 per cent., and yet, as is clearly shown in Minister Barrett's article, on page 49, the Argentine Republic is justly regarded as one of the most progressive, prosperous, and enlightened countries of Latin America. It has been frequently shown that American manufactures require for their fuller development all the raw hides and wool that Argentina can supply, and it is believed that the Argentines would be only too glad to have, in exchange for their hides and wool, such manufactured products as America can supply, if only they were offered to them on as advantageous terms as those of European competitors. In Chile, the proportions of American trade are almost the same as in the case of Argentina. Chile's foreign trade is, of course,

only a fraction of that of her wealthier neighbor. The same thing may be said of the republic of Uruguay.

The trade of the Central American republics is destined to become highly valued and coveted because of their proximity to the Panama Canal. At the present time, 42 per cent. of their total exports reach the United States, and this country sends to them 43 per cent. of their total imports. As regards the balance of Latin America, considerably less than one-fourth of its total export trade reaches the United States, while about one-fifth of its imports is supplied by this country.

UNJUST DEPRECIATION OF OUR SOUTHERN NEIGHBORS.

One of the reasons why Europe and not the United States is in almost absolute control of the foreign commerce of Latin America is to be found in the fact that Americans are too thoroughly absorbed in the conflict now going on in the far East, to the neglect of their interests in Central and South America, the control of whose commerce, as Professor Noa points out, would be infinitely more valuable to the United States than that of the far East. Another reason lies in a certain racial incapacity on our part to estimate properly the strength of Latin-American peoples.

Anglo-American conceit is not yet ready to admit that, in spite of adverse circumstances, a noble civilization is steadily and silently developing in the portion of the western hemisphere originally colonized by the Spanish and the Portuguese. There exists among Americans a wholly unwarranted distrust as to the general honesty and sense of fair play of their Latin-American brethren. The latter are keenly, and even absurdly, sensitive in matters of honor. Their methods are often lax, but they will beggar themselves to the point of starvation in order ultimately to pay every cent of their honest debts. It is quite true that their environment and centuries of evil training and conditions render too many Latin-Americans unpunctual in keeping appointments, extravagant and lavish in their tastes, easy-going in their ways, and dilatory about the repayment of their obligations. Such habits are the cause of endless friction in business dealings with their English-speaking neighbors of the United States, whose brusque manners and direct ways make them impatient with the Latin-American temperament. As an inevitable result of mutual misunderstandings, and for want of ordinary tact, valuable trade is lost because American exporting and commission houses are simply too careless and indifferent to exert themselves to take the necessary steps to secure it, and, accordingly, their competitors in Europe profit enormously by such colossal blunders.

American manufacturing and commercial firms generally send down to such a metropolis as Buenos Ayres, which has nearly a million inhabitants, representatives, drummers, and traders who have no proper training, are wholly ignorant of the Spanish language or have a

very superficial, smattering knowledge of it, are lacking in tact and courtesy, and receive such a small, pitiful salary that they can scarcely eke out a respectable living. When they endeavor to catch some of the profitable trade constantly flowing into European coffers, they find themselves tied down by rigid instructions to do no business except on a strictly cash basis. The British, French, or German representative, on the other hand, who is a sharp and expert judge of human nature, conforms to the customs of the country in which he is stationed, extends to a reputable firm in Buenos Ayres or Valparaiso a year's credit, if necessary, and brings to the home establishment in Great Britain, France, or Germany a rushing and extremely profitable business with Latin America. In addition to having *carte blanche* to conduct affairs in whatever manner he thinks will best promote the interests of his firm, he receives a large salary, not only that he may prop-

erly advertise his wares, but live in a style befitting his position.

Another very serious obstruction to the advancement of American trade with Latin America pointed out by Professor Noa is our unscientific customs tariff. It has long been recognized by protectionists as well as by tariff reformers that Germany and France, protective countries, like the United States, have so arranged their tariffs that the duties fall upon finished products, while raw materials, such as wool and hides, are admitted free of duty,—the very reverse of the policy of the United States. This is why the feeling in favor of liberal reciprocity with the Latin-American republics is daily gaining strength.

SOME OF THE LEADERS OF THE FIRST RUSSIAN PARLIAMENT.

THE congress of Russian zemstvos, held in Moscow, early in May, is characterized by Dr. E. J. Dillon (in the *Contemporary Review*) as the first Russian parliament. He says:

On Friday morning, May 5, the most important, imposing, and influential of all the revolutionary convocations, the Zemsky Congress, was opened in Moscow by Count Heyden, the president of the Imperial Economic Society. It was neither more nor less than a Russian parliament, elected and authorized by a large section of the people, to discuss bills and enact fundamental laws to which nothing but the imperial sanction is lacking. But they are likely to be obeyed with as much alacrity and perhaps more generally than the average statute framed by the Council of the Empire.

This first of Russian parliaments was presided over by Count Heyden, of whom Dr. Dillon says:

An elderly, benevolent-looking old gentleman, who is the very embodiment of an iron hand in a velvet glove, Count Heyden was an ideal chairman. It may well be doubted whether in any parliamentary land, not excepting England, a firmer, readier, more affable, or impartial president could be found. Had it not been for the skill with which this Speaker, who looked for all the world like a Nonconformist minister, economized the time of the congress, it would probably still be sitting.

The readiest debater at the congress was Mr. Kokoshkin, a new man, young, hard-working, and zealous for the people's cause. Secretary of the Moscow Provincial Board, he had been a member of the committee which drew up the programme and organized the assembly; and it fell to him to defend, explain, or modify the various bills discussed. "This he did with admirable terseness, logical force, and remarkable knowledge of details," speaking on one occasion for three hours on end.

He advocated as the best form of representative government two chambers, of which the lower would be

filled by deputies returned on the basis of universal suffrage, while the upper would consist of delegates sent by the zemstvos,—as soon as they are reformed on democratic lines,—in the rural districts, by the municipalities in the towns, and by national bodies like the future Polish and the present Finnish diets in the autonomous provinces.

The most inspiring speaker in the congress, according to Dr. Dillon, was Nikolai Nikolayevich Lvov, a nobleman still young, very earnest, modest and altruistic.

His eloquence was not based upon rhetoric,—its source was warm fellow-feeling for his people, its aim truth and justice; and his appeal to the workers who thought and felt as he did produced an immediate and a powerful effect. Enthusiasm was then revealed for the first time in the assembly, and men felt impatient that they could not proceed from words to helpful deeds. N. N. Lvov, the member for Saratov, is well and favorably known in Russia, and his well-merited reputation for high-souled patriotism imparted weight to his words. Dr. Dillon speaks most enthusiastically of Petrunkevich, the well-known economist. He says:

But if one could conceive a social worker in whom were blended in one harmonious personality the most sympathetic mental and physical qualities of St. Bernard and Mr. Gladstone, the result would offer a tolerable resemblance to the impression one has of I. I. Petrunkevich after a seven hours' sitting or a ten years' acquaintance. If I were asked to put into the fewest words the essential tendency of Petrunkevich's political teachings and strivings, I should define it as the quickening of politics with morality.

One and all, says Dr. Dillon, these are public men of whom Russia, and indeed any other country, might well be proud. Yet one and all they are misdemeanants, if not criminals, in the eyes of the autocracy.

SOME MILITARY LESSONS OF THE FAR-EASTERN WAR.

THE German reviews are devoting considerable space to the tactical and strategical lessons of the Russo-Japanese war. In the *Militärische Wochenblatt* (Berlin), an anonymous German staff officer points out the exaggeration of the terrible nature of modern warfare, comparing the losses in the battles in Manchuria with those of other wars. Even military experts, he says, believe that the losses in modern battles will increase to such a degree that war will soon make itself impossible. In other words, "the technical perfection of modern armies will establish the eternal peace." While admitting the severity of the losses in the battles in Manchuria, particularly in that at Mukden, this writer denies that the figures of these losses are to any noteworthy degree greater than those of former wars. From the 26th of February to the 14th of March, he points out, the Russian losses in the battle of Mukden were: killed, 26,500; sick and wounded, 63,500; prisoners, 40,000; total, about 130,000. [These figures are based on the latest obtainable reports, and are probably correct.] In case the Russians had engaged the whole strength of their army, says this writer, the losses would be somewhat more than 33½ per cent., but if we reduce the effective strength to 300,000 combatants, the losses would be about 43 per cent.

Comparing these figures with the entire losses of armies defeated in former battles, we find something like this, the figures including prisoners taken: Zorndorf—Russians, 50 per cent.; Renensdorf—Prussians, 48 per cent.; Waterloo—French, 42.9 per cent.; Königgratz—Austrians, 20.6 per cent.; Gravelotte—French, 41.1 per cent.; Sedan—French, 42.2 per cent.; Mukden—Russians, 43 per cent. We are not able to intelligently discuss the Japanese losses, as we are not sufficiently informed as to their strength. It would also seem that the moral impression during a battle of more than two weeks could by no means be so tremendous as during the engagements referred to, where these losses were incurred in from six to twelve hours. Yet the effects of a fortnight's battle must be terrible; nerves and consciousness lose their elasticity; man becomes hardened and indifferent. As a whole, the impression will perhaps be more far-reaching than in the case of shorter engagements. The officer will suffer more in seeing half-a-dozen of his men fall one day after another during a two weeks' engagement than when he loses half of them in an assault.

Defects of Russian Strategy.

An analysis of Russian strategy, particularly the tactics of the land battles in Manchuria, is contributed to the *Preussische Jahrbücher* by Professor Delbrück. The characteristic Russian tactics up to the present, says Professor Delbrück, have been the heavy massing of troops. On the

other hand, most modern battles (a fact particularly shown by the Boer war) had depended upon the smaller units, taking advantage of the ground in the case of every single man. With the Russians, the old spirit of Suvarrov and the bayonet attack survive, and one of the most brilliant living representatives of the Russian soldier, General Dragomirov, never tires of insisting on the precept, "Never strike with spread fingers, but with the clinched fist." This, he says, is the only reasonable method of fighting for the Russian soldier. General Kuropatkin, no doubt, lost his first two battles because he kept his troops too closely together, and because, for the sake of concentration, he posted his reserves behind the center of his front line instead of disposing them as much as possible behind the wings, which is the rule in the German army. Troops which are too closely massed are outflanked and kept under fire from two sides by surrounding movements, and this is possible even if the enemy be not numerically stronger. During the campaigns of Napoleon, these tactics—those of the Germans—would become disastrous, as the most closely concentrated line would break through and annihilate the weakened front of the enemy. The defensive power of modern armies, however, is so great that it is almost impossible to overthrow even a very weak front by a greatly superior force. This is the reason for the outflanking movement in modern warfare. By it we obtain the advantage of a two-sided attack, with two fronts able to use their firearms on a larger scale.

All this depends largely upon the psychology of the people. Modern tactics call for individuality, and in Russia state affairs and the people are made dependent upon the subjugation of individuality in ecclesiasticism and government.

The Russian soldier can have no more independent thought than the Russian citizen. The Russian citizens are not independent individuals, but races of many origins, kept together by means of power. How can these Poles, Finns, Georgians, Armenians, Kalmucks, and whatsoever the others may be, be brought to fight for Russia unless under strong discipline and in forcibly massed bodies? It is evident that the Russians made, at the battle of Mukden, the same tactical mistakes that they made during the entire first year of the war. On the other hand, the Japanese surpass even the Germans in the perfection of individual discipline, as they connect offensive advance by strategy and spade-work, which is used only defensively in the German army.

Professor Delbrück's conclusion is, "A slavish people will succumb on the battlefield just as they must do in the competitions of peace."

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF GERMAN EXPANSION.

WHEN Prussia conquered France, in 1872, she believed that her conquest of the world would follow. If she still preserved the old national air, "Die Wacht am Rhein," she added to it the triumphant "Deutschland Über Alles"—"Germany Over All."

Since 1872, the Germans have set themselves to the task of disputing with other nations the sovereignty of both the land and the ocean; and they have employed in this work an activity bordering on the prodigious. They have become an industrial people,—tradesmen and navigators. They have spread themselves abroad, both among adjoining nations and among those at a distance from the empire. Oceans and continents have seen the new German colors, and everywhere a place has had to be made for these confident, energetic people. They are now engaged in trade, they are emigrating, they will very shortly be known as colonists in various sections of the world. It is thus that, thanks to this triple expansion—colonization, emigration, and commerce—a new Germany, a Germany beyond the seas, will be formed. It is of this future Germany that a French writer, M. Gaston Rouvier, writing in the *Monde Moderne* (Paris), wishes to tell us.

The Morocco incident furnishes an admirable instance of this, says M. Rouvier. The visit of the German Emperor to Tangier was certainly significant.

Every one knows that France, with the consent of the other European powers most interested in the matter—England, Spain, and Italy—has undertaken in Morocco the difficult task of pacification and civilization. The vicinity of that country to the French protectorate of Algeria, and the necessity of safeguarding the security and tranquillity of the French possessions in northern Africa, have made it imperative that Morocco should not only be properly governed, but that no other European nation should secure an ascendancy of power in that section of the continent. It was to protect these interests that M. St. René Tallandier, the French minister at Tangier, was sent by his government on a visit to the Sultan at Fez, a mission that ended disastrously for France. Certain members of the Makhzen (a kind of advisory board to the Sultan), vacillating between their scruples, their fears, and their personal interests, refused to receive from French hands any offer tending to the amelioration of the country.

THE KAISER'S VISIT TO TANGIER.

It was at this critical juncture that, without any previous indication of his purpose, the German Emperor announced his visit to Tangier. As proof that this visit was not the caprice of an imperial mind, we have the comments published by the German newspapers, and—what

is even of greater importance—the statements made by Count [now Prince] von Bülow, the German chancellor of the exchequer. The papers, which for some time had been reproaching the Berlin government for not declaring war against Morocco, were loud in their expressions of satisfaction at the visit. The *Deutsche Zeitung* considered "the moment a favorable one for taking action." The entire German nation was unanimous in applauding the initiative of their Emperor. Count von Bülow remarked that "In Morocco, as in China, we have an important interest in maintaining the open door,—that is to say, equality of treatment for all nations engaged in trade." The chancellor spoke only of "economic interests," and we will, in fact, see what place these interests occupy in the actual expansion of Germany. The arguments of Count von Bülow are such as a British prime minister might have offered. German imperialism is a mercantile imperialism, a fact that explains the Anglo-German antagonism.

It cannot be denied that at Morocco there are German interests which do honor to her ability as a commercial nation. In fifteen years her trade with Morocco has attained the large sum of \$8,000,000, which represents 14 per cent. of the total trade of Morocco, 6 per cent. of its imports, and 24 per cent. of its exports. This business, facilitated by the existence of numerous German firms at Tangier, Rabat, Casablanca, Mazagran, Safi, and Mogador, and by two lines of steamers, is developing under the protection of a commercial treaty which cannot be annulled without the consent of Germany.

GERMANY'S "WELTPOLITIK."

The most important of the von Bülow remarks, however, is his reference to the Sultan—"For this reason we must at once enter into relations with the Sultan." France, after her understanding with England, Spain, and Italy, after her solemn declaration to respect, in Morocco, the economic interests of all the powers, had some reason to believe that she was negotiating with the Sultan of Morocco in the name of Europe and in the name of civilization. To this, however, the German Emperor is opposed. It is not his wish that in any part of the world an important negotiation should be conducted without his influence being felt therein. Hence it is that the visit to Tangier is of political importance.

In 1897, the Emperor thus expressed himself at Cologne: "Since the consolidation of the empire by our great ancestor, other tasks have been imposed on us. It behooves us to protect the

interests of Germans now settled abroad. German honor must be maintained in foreign countries. *The trident has fallen into our hands.*" Let us see what are the facts that serve as pedestal for this theory.

It is reported that at the surrender of Metz Prince Frederick Charles pronounced these words: "We have just conquered on military ground; it is for us now to fight and conquer on industrial ground." For this new battle the country was equipped by nature. It had coal, and it had an increasing population. In coal, Germany comes next after England and the United States; its supply is four times that of French production. Add to this the fact that the working of the German pits is comparatively easy, and a noticeable difference in the producing value is apparent. This first advantage is multiplied by the abundance of manual labor. The Germans are more numerous than their hereditary foes, the French, by nearly twenty millions (in 1876, not thirty years ago, the difference was only six millions), and still the increase goes on. But if the subsoil of Germany is rich in coal, the soil itself is little more than middling in quality. It cannot support its increasing population. It produces only one-third as much wheat as France. The consequence is that the surplus population have had to turn their attention to the cities, to the large factories that have sprung up on all sides since the war. They have become workmen; others, going farther, have emigrated.

But with the rapid advancement of Germany into the front rank of the nations producing sugar, hardware, machines, fabrics, alcohol, etc., the country found itself confronted by the important question of how to dispose of the very goods she was manufacturing in such abundance. Her anxiety was not so much to manufacture the best as to manufacture the quickest. It was necessary to dispose of the merchandise that accumulated in her warehouses and on her docks. It is thus that Germany, now become an industrial nation, was forced to look beyond her frontiers, to mingle with foreign nations, to transform herself anew, to become a nation of traders. In this evolution she was aided by the merchant marine she had created, by her mercantile spirit, and by those of her children who had gone abroad.

The sudden elevation of Germany to the rank of great maritime power is one of the most curious economic phenomena of our times. The German coasts are miserably adapted to commercial purposes; they are low, dangerous, and inhospitable, and they are cut in halves by the Danish peninsula of Jutland. And yet, following the birth of unified Germany, the industrial improvement was followed by great maritime achievements.

In thirty years, the tonnage of the German merchant marine has increased by 124 per cent. This "commercial fleet" has passed from 642,000 tons to 1,700,000 tons. Almost three-fourths

(70 per cent.) of the foreign trade of Germany is now carried on by sea. In October, 1899, the Emperor, at a dinner given in his honor by the city of Hamburg, proposed this toast:

The development of the gigantic *entrepôt* of commerce, the city of Hamburg, is evidence of what the German people can do when their forces are united. It proves, too, how necessary it is to our interests abroad that our navy should increase in power. If, during the first eight years of my reign, they had not refused, in spite of my prayers, my urgings, and my warnings, to grant the necessary credit with which to increase our navy, we would to-day be in a position to lend an entirely different means of support to our flourishing commerce and to the interests that we have across the seas.

It is precisely this support that the Emperor intended to give, by his recent visit, to German interests in Morocco. Thanks to her colonists, Germany to-day has interests in every corner of the world. Her example is proof enough that the formation of colonies does not depend on the mother country. Germany possessed an immense population (the majority poor), and she had no colonies. That her colonists were satisfied with their positions abroad is shown by the increase in the number of emigrants. From 1871 to 1878, 472,983 persons quitted the mother country; from 1879 to 1887, 1,198,284; from 1887 to 1896, 732,482, making a total of 2,403,750 in twenty-five years. Of this number, 96 per cent. have settled in the United States. The present tendency, however, is toward the Brazilian republic. Thus, we have the curious phenomenon of the foundation of a colony in the midst of another nation. In 1899, the Reichstag voted a law the real object of which was to direct the emigration of agriculturists to southern Brazil, to the provinces of Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catharina, and Paraná. The motive for the enactment of this law was plainly disclosed by its wording.

There [in Brazil], not only will the German preserve his nationality, but he will find . . . all the conditions favorable to a prosperous existence. He will, moreover, become a consumer of the products of German industry, and, consequently, a commercial and political intermediary between his new country and his mother country.

In this respect, official efforts are being strenuously seconded by the Hamburg Society for the Colonization of Southern Brazil. The experiments made have proved so encouraging to the Germans that the Brazilian Government has already manifested signs of anxiety and alarm.

GERMAN COMMERCIAL INVASION OF RUSSIA.

To complete this picture of German expansion it is necessary to speak of the German invasion of Russia, where more than two hundred thou-

sand immigrants have established themselves in the Baltic provinces, in Volhynia, and in the valley of the Don; of Turkey, where German friendship for the Sultan has secured, each year, some advantage for the empire; of Asia Minor, through which the German line connects with the great railroad to the Persian Gulf; of Syria, where the harbor of Jaffa is a German port, and where, since the spectacular visit of William II., German influence has made considerable progress; of Argentina, where England is already supplanted in the sale of iron wire and bar and flat iron; even of India, and, within recent years, of China and of the Pacific Ocean.

In the last named, the attitude of the German colonists has raised a new "Pacific question." Since her awakening to commercial conquest, and especially since her creation of the two most powerful instruments in foreign expansion,—a navy and a merchant marine,—Germany has also directed her ambitions toward certain islands in the Pacific Ocean. Flanked on the east by Kiao-Chau, on the Chinese coast of Shangtung, the German colonies of the Pacific—Marshall, Brown, and Providence islands in the northeast; German New Guinea, with the Caroline, Palaos, and Mariana groups to the north; the Solomon and Bismarck archipelagoes to the east; and even Samoa, which, still farther to the east, dominates the route from New Zealand to the Hawaiian Islands,—all form a kind of arch which commands the great ocean road to Australia. In all these islands, colonization is in its most active condition; thousands of plantations are being exploited, and a naval base has been established in the Bismarck Archipelago. In fact, it is evident that the absorption of the Dutch West Indies is a dream familiar to the German colonial party. A tendency has already evinced itself in these German colonies to protect by prohibitive measures the development of the national commerce. Hence it is that the Australians, who until recently were in close relations with the Marshall Islands, have found themselves confronted by strong fiscal barriers. They complain especially of the heavy duty (doubled in the winter of 1904) which is laid upon all Sydney vessels trading between that port and the Marshall Islands.

THE TEUTON IN THE FAR EAST AND IN AFRICA.

As regards German expansion in China, one fact may be noticed. At a meeting of the German Asiatic Society, in March, the president of the society, Dr. Vosberg Rewok, declared that "Germany must build a navy strong enough to resist the Japanese fleet in the far East." Here, too, as in the Pacific and in Morocco, the German policy of expansion is bent upon success. Even in other directions there are signs of this commercial activity. Recently, a German mission was sent to the court of Emperor Menelek, with whom an important commercial treaty has since been arranged.

The industrial power of Germany, the development of her foreign trade, the importance of her emigration, her efforts to extend her influence in all directions,—these indicate the birth of a new and greater Germany. If the German colonies are of least importance in this tremendous undertaking, it is nevertheless impossible to overlook them in considering the expansion of the empire. However disappointing were her initial attempts at establishing a foothold in Africa in 1870-80, her progress four years later was certainly an achievement. In that year (1884) she extended her commercial supremacy to the Kameruns, to Angra-Pequena, and to the coast of Guinea. She also founded in the territory of the Sultan of Zanzibar the *Ostafrikanische Gesellschaft*. In twelve months she had selected and marked the positions she intended to hold in Africa. In 1885, the Marshall Islands were annexed and occupied. They became the "point of departure" for new annexations in the Solomon and Bismarck archipelagoes, and in New Guinea. In two years the German colonial empire was established. The acquisition, in 1897, of Kiao-Chau, in China, and of the Mariana, Caroline, and Palaos islands in 1899, was simply an extension of this colonial ambition.

The most important of all these German colonies is that on the east coast of Africa. In 1886, Dr. Peters, the president of the German Colonization Society, purchased from the native chiefs an extent of territory some one hundred and fifty-five thousand kilometers square. Two years later, Germany secured from the Sultan of Zanzibar the administration and all the commercial rights of the districts that still disputed his authority, from Wanga to Rovouma. Thus, seven ports came under the jurisdiction of Germany, Dar-es-Salem and Bagamayo (the latter the headquarters of the caravan companies) being the most important. On June 14, 1901, an agreement with England defined the German zone. This now forms a quadrilateral of nearly one hundred thousand kilometers square, extending from Lakes Victoria and Tanganyika to the sea. Watered by the Indian monsoons, this vast extent of territory, which rises gradually from the sea to an altitude of five thousand meters, produces an abundance of colonial staples,—cocoa, mangoes, bananas, palms, sago, tapioca, rice, maize, tobacco, cotton, vanilla, and elephant tusks. It has been estimated that two-fifths of the land is cultivable. The construction of a railroad through the interior is advancing rapidly, and at Dar-es-Salem a floating dock has recently been completed. In all these colonies, as in the United States, in Brazil, and in the Argentine Republic, the Germans have carried with them their indomitable spirit, and, with true industrial energy, are working zealously in promoting the commercial world supremacy of their empire.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Personal Sketches.—The July magazines are notable for the number and interest of their portraits of eminent living Americans and foreigners. Among these are Mr. Robert Mayhew's article in *Leslie's* on Henry C. Frick, whose report last month on the condition of the Equitable Life Assurance Society attracted the attention of the whole country; Miss Ida M. Tarbell's character study of John D. Rockefeller, in *McClure's*; the sketch of Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture, by J. Herbert Welch, in *Success*; Mr. George Archibald Clark's article in the same magazine on Luther Burbank, "the high-priest of horticulture;" Mr. Joseph Dannenberg's analysis of the personality of Senator Gorman, of Maryland, in *Tom Watson's Magazine*; the study of Admiral Togo, in the *World's Work*; the brief article on Mayor Dunne, of Chicago, by Richard Fairchild, in *Munsey's*; the sketch in the same magazine of "The Panama Triumvirate," Messrs. Shonts, Magoon, and Wallace; the pen picture of Commander Eva Booth, of the Salvation Army, by Rheta Childe Dorr, in *Leslie's*; and "Henry James as a Lecturer," by Olivia Howard Dunbar, in the *Critic*.—In the *Century Magazine*, Madame Blanc ("Th. Bentzon") writes on the late Princess Mathilde.

The Story of John Paul Jones.—John Paul Jones is the subject of two articles in the July magazines, in addition to Mr. Lincoln's contribution to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Each of these,—one appearing in *Munsey's* and the other in the *Metropolitan Magazine*,—is the work of Mr. Cyrus Townsend Brady, the author of a popular life of Jones. In his *Munsey's* article, Mr. Brady throws new light on the reasons which actuated the assumption of the name Jones by the youthful John Paul.—In the July number of *Scribner's* appears a full account, written by John Kilby, a quarter-gunner on the *Bon Homme Richard*, of the great sea fight in which that ship participated under Jones' command. The account was written by the old sailor in 1810. Kilby stood by Paul Jones when Pierson surrendered, and gives an interesting account of the incident of the sword. The whole story is now published for the first time.

Historical Notes.—One of the most interesting contributions to modern history that has recently appeared is Mr. John S. Sewall's story of the Perry expedition to Japan, in 1853, which is published in the July *Century*. Mr. Sewall was the captain's clerk on the ship *Saratoga*,—"a youngster just out of college," as he describes himself, "serving Uncle Sam presumably out of patriotism, but mainly in quest of the wherewithal to pay off college debts." His narrative of the reception of the fleet by the Japanese, and of the various diplomatic stages which led to the opening of the country to foreigners, is perhaps the most intimate and realistic record of those important events that has been given to the public.—Miss Agnes C. Laut's sketch of

"Gray, of Boston, Discoverer of the Columbia," in *Leslie's*, is a striking account of the first American to voyage around the world. The story is based wholly upon original material, and many of the facts are now set forth for the first time.—Mr. Cyrus Townsend Brady contributes to the *Cosmopolitan* an account of three of the great sieges of history,—Saragossa, Drogheda, and Londonderry.—The Fourth of July is the subject of two articles in the July magazines—"The Real Fourth of July," by Paul Leland Haworth, in *Harper's*, and "The Fourth of July a Century Ago," by F. W. Crane, in the *Metropolitan*, the latter article describing some of the features of the celebration in New York City customary in the early years of the nineteenth century.—"The Outlook in History" is the subject of a thoughtful paper by Mr. William Roscoe Thayer in the *Atlantic Monthly* for July.

Bits of Travel and Description.—Some of the interesting scenery about San Francisco Bay is described in a paper on "The Land of Tamalpais," contributed to the July *Scribner's* by Benjamin Brooks.—"Mexico, Our Neglected Neighbor," is the subject of a remarkably well illustrated article by Robert Howard Russell in the *Metropolitan*, while "The Land of the Half-Shut Eye" is briefly treated by Broughton Brandenburg in *Leslie's*, his paper being accompanied by a series of pictures of modern Mexico in tint.—Miss Martha Craig, the only white woman who has explored Labrador, writes in the *Cosmopolitan* of "My Summer Outings in Labrador."—In the same magazine, Edward John Hart describes "The Fishers of the Dogger Bank."—Thomas Wentworth Higginson writes entertainingly in the *Atlantic* of "Wordsworthshire,"—the famous "Lake Country" of England, and Ralph D. Paine describes in *Outing* a "bank holiday" on Hampstead Heath.—New York and its environs in summer are pictured in a variety of ways for the readers of the July magazines. In *Harper's*, Mr. James B. Connolly gives an excellent description of the harbor; in the *Metropolitan*, Montgomery Schuyler writes discriminatingly on "Architecture in Manhattan;" "New York from the Flatiron" is described by Edgar Saltus in *Munsey's*; and "The Human Need of Coney Island" is the subject of a readable paper by Richard Le Gallienne in the *Cosmopolitan*.

Art Topics.—A piece of serious criticism is the paper by Albert Kinross in the July *Century* on "The Secession Movement in German Art," illustrated with reproductions of a number of masterpieces of such painters as Thoma, von Uhde, Scheurenberg, Klinger, Stuck, Firlé, Böcklin, Leibl, Liebermann, and Menzel.—Annie Nathan Meyer contributes to the *World's Work* a hopeful article on the growing appreciation of American art, as evidenced in modern collections.—The July *Harper's* contains an appreciative article by Christian Brinton on the work of the American painter, J. J. Shannon.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

"China, the Warlike."—A new phase of Chinese history is set forth and analyzed by Captain d'Ollone, a French military writer, in the *Revue de Paris*. To the Occidental world in general, China appears as a hoary mummy, existing from time immemorial, unprogressive, immobile, conservative, buried in tradition and prejudices,—a nation and a people deep in slumber. In reality, however, this French writer maintains, China is of comparatively recent origin, is in perpetual transformation, is made up of peoples diverse of race, of tongue, and of customs, held together only by force. Progressive, warlike, and conquering,—this is the China which reveals herself to historians. He quotes from Cordier's "Review of the History of Religions" to the effect that "no other country has had more revolutions, or submitted to more frequent overturnings of its government. China has had experience with all political systems, from socialism to tyranny; she has known all philosophical doctrines, and her manners and customs have been more than once profoundly changed." This, however, says Captain d'Ollone, is not known except to historians. He goes on to outline the history of the Chinese Empire from the year 722 B.C., at which date historic accuracy may be assumed. Wars and rumors of wars, revolutions, conquests, and violent political upheavals have been without number. In fact, the history of the Chinese Empire, he declares, resembles in its general lines the history of the whole continent of Europe. He points out that China has gone through a feudal development just in the same manner as has the Western world,—with one important difference. While in Europe and in Japan the royal monarch triumphed over the feudal lords,—the Mikado over the Shoguns,—in China the emperor became merely the valet of the military chieftains, and there it is that the course of Chinese history separates from that of Japan and the West. China, he concludes, is not a country, but a world. There is a China,—not in the sense that there is a France or an Italy, but in the sense that there is a Europe. The conquest of Cæsar, Charles V., and Napoleon have not endured, but the results of the Chinese great men of Hoang-ti, of Ou, of Koubilai, and of Kang-si,—these, it might be said, have almost become permanent. "China is one to-day; how many states will she form to-morrow?"

Will the "Yellow Peril" Ever Come?—Baron Pierre de Coubertin finds significant and impressive similarity in the international happenings of the present year with those of the year 1453. In *Figaro* (Paris), he compares the defeat of a European race by an Oriental in both of the two years,—the capture of Constantinople by the Turks (1453), and of Port Arthur by the Japanese. The fall of Russia's great stronghold in the far East, he contends, marks the close of one era and the commencement of another. And yet, he reminds us, although, after the Turks had taken the city of Constantine, for many years Europe dreaded a Turkish triumph all over the continent, yet this never came. Therefore, he bids those who are quaking at the idea of the yellow peril to take heart. For three centuries, he continues, our forefathers had the dark peril in their mind's eye, but it was never actually realized.

What the Rise of Japan Means.—The chief result of the Russo-Japanese war, Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu

believes, will be that the powers of Europe will cease political aggression in the Orient and will be content with the economic and industrial exploitation of such regions of China as they can acquire influence in. In a long analysis of the economic future of China, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Leroy-Beaulieu points out that the day of territorial aggrandizement in China by European powers is over. The rise of Japan means the racial and international consciousness of Asiatic peoples.

The Guardianship of Weaker Nations.—An editorial under this title appears in *New India*, in which it is set forth that "the parental theory of government is a ridiculously false theory in politics. It is the creation of cunning despots, designed to cover the hideousness and immorality of all irresponsible administrations." No individual, says the editor of *New India*, can be intrusted safely with the interests and guardianship of any other individual not related to him by ties of blood. Much more is it impossible for any nation to be the guardian or trustee of another. Applying this philosophy to India itself, the editor says: "If this theory be so utterly untrue and absurd even in national autocracies, how much more must it be so in regard to alien bureaucracies like that which governs India. Individuals are far more likely to be moved by occasional fits of large humanity than nations and communities. An individual conqueror may adopt a strange people as his own, and may feel, as the Mikado does, that his own self-realization, as both individual and king, depends upon the self-realization, in the highest sense of the term, of his subjects, and then he may truly stand in the position of a father to them."

Poland's Tragic History.—A clear and forceful restatement of the tragic history of Poland during the past half-century under the Russification processes is contributed to the *Revue de Paris* by Victor Bérard in a series of discussions under the general title "The Russian Problem." In considering Poland and Lithuania, M. Bérard recalls the liberal views and theories of Czar Alexander I. This monarch, he reminds us, realized very little of the practical consequences of his liberal theories. He had regarded the strip of annexed territories along Russia's western border, Sweden, Finns, Baltic Germans, Lithuanians, and Poles, as a sort of buffer or protection,—at least a political separation,—between Catholic or Protestant Christianity and Russian orthodoxy, between old Europe and new Russia, between the liberal nations of the West and the Muscovite autocracy. Far from attempting to Russify these peoples or their civilizations, he tried his best to preserve their languages and national religions, their liberal institutions and traditions. In Finland and Poland, he affirmed the constitutional régime already existing. He, Autocrat of All the Russias, became constitutional king in Poland and constitutional grand duke in Finland. He little realized the change of policy which would come in with later emperors. According to the treaty of 1815, Poland was given a parliamentary assembly, with an autonomous council of ministers; her church was left to her, her Catholic clergy, her schools, her national language, her post-office, her customs, and even her army. All these public functions were reserved to Poland. The

kings alone, who were the Czar's, and their two representatives at Warsaw, the viceroy and the imperial commissioner,—these alone were Russian. But Polish patriotism demanded an independent Poland, and when the Czar Alexander was succeeded by Nicholas I. the policy of repression and Russification began. Gradually the rights and privileges were taken away from the Poles, until, after the revolt of 1863, all the ideas of Alexander I. were renounced and St. Petersburg began to treat Poland and Lithuania as conquered territory, enforcing the same government, the same language, and the same religion as obtained in the rest of the empire. One Czar, one religion, and one language was the motto, and the Poles and Lithuanians have suffered from this Russification policy even until to-day.

Scandinavia and Russia's Defeats.—One of the best known of the Danish reviews, the *Dansk Tidsskrift* (Copenhagen), has an editorial article on the effects of the Russo-Japanese war upon Europe, particularly upon Scandinavia. If Russia had triumphed, says the *Tidsskrift*, Sweden would have regarded the victory with considerable anxiety,—an anxiety of much the same kind as that of England in the matter of India. Referring to the idea that Russia's defeat will be detrimental to Denmark, the writer says: "The idea that Denmark could ever make common cause with Russia against Germany is an erroneous one, yet the weakening of Russia would result in a more moderate development of the German navy, and therefore Denmark would have less cause to fear her powerful neighbor."

"The One Capable Russian Minister."—A description of the operation of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, by Mr. Julius Price, war correspondent, which appears in the *Fortnightly Review* for May, will be good supplementary reading to our "Leading Article" on the Russian minister of railways, Prince Khilkoff, in our March number. One could not help being deeply impressed, says Mr. Price, by the unflagging zeal, and one might almost add enthusiasm were not such a word so foreign to the Russian temperament, of the railway officials all along the line. It was a remarkable antithesis to the indifference and conceit of the military authorities. No description of all this wonderful organization would be complete without some reference, however brief, to the remarkable career of the man who engineered the entire formation of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Under the high-sounding cognomen of Prince Khilkoff, which is his title by right of heritage, and "Imperial Minister of Railways and Transportation," one would hardly recognize the whilom "John Mikale" who many years ago under this assumed name emigrated from Russia to the United States without a penny in the world and started earning his living in Philadelphia as attendant of a bolt-making machine at a dollar a day. After a few years in the machine shop, where his remarkable talents soon attracted attention, and learning much of the practical side of engineering, a knowledge which was to stand him in such good stead later on, he worked his way up by dint of indomitable energy successively from brakeman on a freight train to the position of locomotive engineer on the Pennsylvania Railroad. Shortly afterward, a break-down on the line gave him the opportunity of his life. His remarkable skill in averting what might have been a very serious accident attracted the atten-

tion of one of the passengers, who happened to be no less a personage than the minister of railways of one of the South American republics, the result being that the young engineer went off to South America as superintendent of a new railway in Venezuela, and ended eventually by becoming the manager of the line. This almost continuous run of luck would have probably turned the brain of many men, but John Mikale was not of that sort. To return to his native land and make a position for himself among his own countrymen had always been his ambition, so he decided at last to throw up his fine position in South America, and returned to Russia, still under his assumed name,—though by this time he was probably more American than Russian. By good fortune, as it again turned out, he managed to get an insignificant berth in a small country station, and here he might have vegetated indefinitely had not his wonderful luck again helped him. This unimportant little place on the line had always been the center of a serious dislocation of the traffic,—no one could exactly explain why. He asked for and obtained permission to try and remedy it, succeeded instantly, and from that moment became, not only a marked, but also a made, man in Russia, where such initiative genius is rare. From this moment there was no looking back for John Mikale. Having once attracted the attention of his superiors, that of the Emperor followed as a matter of course; he was promoted to the headquarters at St. Petersburg, and from there to the staff. The general managership of the line followed, and was succeeded by honors and appointments sufficient to satisfy the most ambitious of men, not the least being the restoration to him by the Emperor of the title and estates which he had voluntarily renounced when as a mere youth he had emigrated to America.

A Russian on Russo-Polish Relations.—One of the most thoughtful of the Russian magazines, *Mir Bozhi*, contains an article by F. Batiousschikov upon the subject of closer and more cordial relations between Russians and Poles. This writer is inclined to believe that there will be a *rapprochement* between the two Slavonic stocks. He does not see any reason why there should not be many reforms granted the Poles—political, social, and economic—as the best of the Polish leaders do not advocate separation. With the Poles placated, he says, Russia would have an ally surer and more valuable than France.

The Best-Known Australian Cartoonist.—A character sketch of Australia's best-known cartoonist, Livingston Hopkins (better known as "Hop"), appears in the *Review of Reviews for Australasia*. Mr. Hopkins was born in Ohio, and educated at Toledo, in that State. He began his work with *Scribner's Magazine*, when it was under the editorship of Dr. J. G. Holland. In 1882, he went to Sydney, and soon became the best known of Australian caricaturists. His political cartoons now have an international fame.

Dangers and Possibilities of Psychic Investigation.—In an elaborate paper, in the *Annals of Psychical Science*, Mrs. Laura S. Finch insists upon the duty of recalling the dead, if they can be recalled, in order to instruct the living. She says: "If spiritism can prove survival, we dare not allow considerations of danger in the investigation thereof to weigh with us, to stay our quest. At no matter what price, we must

push forward; as pioneers, we may suffer from ignorance and inexperience, but others will reap the reward and will benefit by our efforts. Let us not put aside this work—forego our efforts to enter into communication with the departed—from any cowardly fear of the moral and physical dangers we may be incurring. The development of what is called mediumship is only the development in ourselves of that psychic element in nature which is identical with the eternal. Mediumship is by no means a force at the disposal of a privileged few; it is a faculty more or less latent in every man; for we must bear in mind that no faculty is bestowed on one individual and entirely withheld from another. All development is unsettling, and is accompanied by danger to a greater or lesser extent. Life is one continuous example of this. I am aware of the nature of the dangers besetting the use of the psychic faculties. The man whose will is weak, who cannot control his passions and his impulses in ordinary life, cannot hope to escape either the dangers of his normal existence or the dangers of the spiritual surroundings he may create for himself when he begins to develop his latent psychical faculties.”

Improving Commercial Museums.—Dr. Tito G. Roncoli, after visiting the commercial museums of Italy and those at Vienna, Leipsic, Dresden, Berlin, Antwerp, and Brussels, expresses, in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome), his belief that all except the one at Brussels are founded on the wrong principle. All gather together the products of a country or a region with the idea that outsiders or foreigners will visit it and get ideas of new things to import to their markets. But, says Dr. Roncoli, the importer has behind him an army of retailers and consumers whom he would like to keep the same habits of consumption, as introducing new products means much work and little profit, and he is not likely to go off to foreign countries to seek trouble for himself. It would be more sensible to plan the museums for the benefit of the exporters, who are the initiators of commerce, seeking new outlets and new customers. The museums should gather products imported into other countries with which the national products might compete. Consular representatives, commercial *attachés* of embassies, members of foreign exchanges, and firms established in foreign countries should be asked to send samples of imported products, with full particulars as to their origin, prices, manner of packing and sale, principal importing houses, and anything else that would be useful to an exporter wishing to compete in the sale of similar products. With such information, exportation could be begun with every show of meeting its competition successfully.

A New Departure in Aëronautics.—In an article on “The New Tendencies of Aëronautics,” in *Natura ed Arte* (Milan), Franco Mazzini says that really, in principle, no progress has been made in air-navigation since 1884, when the Tissandier brothers, with a balloon furnished with a motor of a little more than one horse-power, maneuvered and went against the wind, while Kennard and Krebs, with a more powerful motor, succeeded several times in bringing their balloon back to the starting-point. The declaration of Hervé Mangon, in the Academy of Sciences of France, in 1884, that, with the Tissandier type, lines of airships could be established, is echoed after the performances of Zeppelin, Santos Dumont, Lebaudy, and

Baldwin, but the lines are not established. This is due, he thinks, to two causes,—the error in choice of type of aërostat and the difficulty experienced by inventors in making known or getting tested any different type. The error in choosing the single-balloon type was pointed out by Dr. Mario Schiavone at the International Aëronautical Congress, in Paris, in 1900, when he declared for a form as elongated as possible, and in which there should be coincidence of the axes of motion and of resistance. With this Signor Mazzini concurs, and he says that the time has come to leave behind the mono-aërostatic form for the bino-aërostatic or the multiple type, which, aside from other advantages, can conform to the law just stated. A complete discussion and investigation of this should precede any further airship-building, he thinks, as “empiricism should cease to reign in a field which should above all be examined exclusively by the scientific method.” A great lack is the absence of any institution for the examination of the many projects from among which might spring the true dirigible type.

Weekly Rest Day in Italy.—Some months ago, the Italian parliament voted down a bill providing for a weekly day of rest for employees, supported by several associations and leagues of several years' standing. In the *Riforma Sociale* (Turin-Rome), E. Loli-Piccolomini discusses the reasons for this defeat, the general principles of a rest day, and the practical conditions necessary for probability of success for future legislation. The defeat of the bill offered by Deputies Cabrini, Nofri, and Chiesa he ascribes to its too wholesale and arbitrary character, overloaded, as it became, with impractical amendments. In principle, it was almost universally approved. The writer insists that individual liberty to work or not must be respected. Though for various practical reasons Sunday rest is preferable to the fixing of any other one day, or of leaving the choice of day optional, “the state should be entirely lay, and should take no account of the dogma of any religion, because all should be free to exercise their own moral action.” The chief difficulty lies in application to the varying conditions of industries, the railroads and newspapers being most complex in their problems, into which the writer goes extensively.

Interesting Postal Comparisons.—The agitation for the reduction of postage in Italy causes A. Semenza to make an interesting summary of postal statistics in the various countries in an article in the *Riforma Sociale* (Turin-Rome). Italy at present, with postage at 20 centesimi (four cents) for fifteen grams, has the dearest rate in Europe for letters, and only France and Spain have two-cent local post-cards, as she does. The countries having a letter rate exceeding two cents of our money are Holland, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Austria-Hungary, Egypt, Germany, Sweden-Norway, Roumania, Spain, France (the last, three cents), and Russia (almost four cents). The countries having less than a two-cent rate are Japan, Portugal, and Denmark. The weight allowed runs from the twelve grams of Japan to the thirty grams of Egypt for most of the countries, with England allowing 113 grams, and Switzerland and Denmark allowing 250 grams. In volume of postal operations, the United States leads with 3,732,031,938 letters, 740,087,805 cards, and 3,806,582,333 pieces of printed matter. England and Germany follow in number of letters, and Germany exceeds in number of cards—1,102,679,460,

this owing to the picture-card craze, doubtless. France is second in printed matter, with about one-third as much as the United States. Italy, with 198,064,428 letters, ranks below Japan, and below Russia in cards, having 77,454,468, which is thirteen million more than France. In number of post-offices, the United States leads with 77,275, Germany coming second with 46,268, and England third with 23,642, while Russia, with two and one-half times our area, has only 12,450 offices.

Is the Submarine Invisible?—A writer in the *Revue Scientifique* (Ernest Coustet) argues that one of the chief defects of the submarine vessel in war-time is the fact that it cannot be made absolutely invisible. Recent mechanical inventions in the French navy, however, will go a long way toward bringing about this desirable result. Means of communication is also a very important subject in discussing submarines, and this writer believes that both observation and signaling will have to be more highly developed.

The German Failure in Poland.—M. Givskov contributes to the *Contemporary* for June a very lucid and instructive account of the total failure of Prince Bismarck's scheme for Germanizing Poland. A committee was appointed, with nearly \$125,000,000, to buy up Polish estates and plant them with German colonists. Polish landlords sold their estates and invested the money in Polish land banks, which bought other estates and planted them with Polish peasants. As the net result, "the Germans have only acquired 3,772 estates from the Poles, as against 5,163 estates bought from Germans by Poles. The area thus lost during these years by the Germans amounts to 32,200 hectares, or about 104 English square miles, and the loss is still increasing, having in 1902 amounted to more than 7,000 hectares, or about 24 square miles." The operations have resulted in planting 16,000 German peasants on the land by the government, while 22,000 Polish peasants have been planted by the land banks.

Pietro Vanni, Versatile Artist.—A notable recent addition to the gallery of modern art in the Vatican, "The Funeral of Raphael," by Pietro Vanni, is given a double-page tinted reproduction in *Natura ed Arte* (Milan), where is also a sketch of the artist, who died January 30, last. The canvas is imposing in size, twenty-three feet by twelve, and required twelve years' labor by the artist. It won a gold medal at the exhibition of Italian art in St. Petersburg in 1902, and later the artist presented it to Pope Pius X., who exclaimed, on seeing it, "This is a truly royal gift," and wrote a warm letter of praise to Signor Vanni, while conferring upon him the knighthip of the order of St. Gregory the Great. Vanni was a native of Viterbo, where he was born in 1847. From 1895 to 1900, he worked, with no assistance, in decorating the chapel of the cemetery of his native city with

his conception of "The Glory of the Cross." The other frescoes of this chapel reveal great mastery of perspective and architectonic problems. In Viterbo is also the tomb chapel of the Vanni family, designed and decorated by the artist, and regarded as a jewel of Renaissance architecture, and a dwelling which in its minutest details is a reproduction of a gracious house of the Renaissance period. Also in Viterbo, Vanni decorated beautifully the Parri chapel, which has also a splendid bronze angel by Giulio Monteverde. As proof of versatility, Vanni worked from 1901 on in etching, and at the recent international exhibit at Rome the wreath and crape attesting his death draped five splendid etchings and a water-color of scenes in the Vatican gardens.

The Race Question in South Africa.—There is a very good article in the *Westminster Review* for June by "An Unprejudiced Observer" on "Black and White in South Africa." His suggestions are: (1) a law, stringently binding on black and white alike, the graver offenses against which must be punishable by death, forbidding any intermingling of black and white races by marriage or otherwise; (2) prohibition of the sale of intoxicants to natives,—a law to remain in force for fifty years and then be reconsidered; (3) regular work compulsory for every able-bodied male native; (4) properly qualified and educated natives to administer local affairs jointly with white men, but white men to vote only for white and black men for black. Answering the question Where shall we then look for labor for the mines, he replies, without hesitation: "Not until the native is educated out of his childish fear of the dark and his animal-like terror of a trap will mine work ever be undertaken willingly as an occupation."

Oliver Cromwell's Remains.—Bishop Welldon discusses, in the *Nineteenth Century* for June, the various theories concerning the fate of Oliver Cromwell's remains, and arrives at the following conclusion: "All the evidence which I have collected and compared establishes the belief that the body of Oliver Cromwell was privately buried, not long after his death, in Westminster Abbey; that his body was taken to Tyburn, and there decapitated and buried; that the trunk of his body remained, where it was buried, beneath the site of the gallows at Tyburn; it has long since moldered away, or has been removed or disturbed in the course of excavation, and it is now irrecoverable; that his head, after being exposed on Westminster Hall for more than twenty years, disappeared; it has never been seen since, and it, too, is now irrecoverable." He confesses that this is to him a disappointment, for when at Westminster Abbey he dreamed of undoing, if possible, the sacrilege of the removal of Cromwell's body by replacing it.



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

SPECIAL studies of American colonial life, begun within the past few years, have made our knowledge of that period in our history far more definite than it was in the days of Bancroft and the earlier school of historians. It is fortunate that some of the results of these recent studies are getting more and more into general circulation. We welcome particularly Mr. George Cary Eggleston's modest little story of seventeenth-century life, entitled "Our First Century" (A. S. Barnes & Co.). This book makes good use of some of the valuable material presented in the more elaborate works of the author's brother, the late Edward Eggleston, describing the manners and customs of the English colonists, and relating their experiences in grappling with new-world problems. It is an intimate story of the daily life of the founders of our national institutions.

Simultaneously with the opening of the Lewis and Clark Exposition there appears "A History of the Pacific Northwest," by Prof. Joseph Schafer, of the University of Oregon (Macmillan). In this volume the stirring narrative of the pioneer settlements in the territory now embraced in the States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho is told in detail, while the organization and political progress of the three State governments are briefly sketched. The author has wisely selected for amplification those phases of Northwestern history which, as he points out, are "not mere replications of what had previously taken place elsewhere,"—the processes by which the wilderness was subdued, homes multiplied, commerce extended to all parts of the world, and a great civilization developed in a portion of our continent that we once called remote and inaccessible.

The very excellent "Mediæval and Modern History," by Prof. Philip V. N. Myers, which has been a standard for the past twenty years, has been revised (Ginn), and now appears so thoroughly up-to-date as to include an account of the first year of the Russo-Japanese war. This volume consists of an abridgment of Professor Myers' two former works, "The Middle Ages" and "The Modern Age." New illustrations, plates, maps, diagrams, and lists add much to the value of this work, which makes history read like a fascinating romance.

An attractively bound historical novelette, by Gen-sai Murai, the Japanese novelist, reaches us from the publishing house of Hochi Shimbun (Tokio). It is entitled "Akoya; or, The Ordeal by Music." Mr. Murai is author of the novel "Hana," which was noticed in these pages some months ago. Just as "Hana" was intended to be a picture of life among the better classes of modern Japanese, so "Akoya" is a representation of feudal days, and the heroine of the tale—a woman thoroughly imbued with the Samurai spirit—is held up as a fair type of the woman of olden-day Japan. The translation is by Unkichi Kawai, and the illustrations are characteristic and effective.

Whether or not Mr. Vance Thompson has really laid bare any actualities in his "Diplomatic Mysteries"

(Lippincott), he has certainly written a graphic and intensely interesting contribution to the literature of diplomatic intercourse. In this volume, among other things, he gives his version of the plot that ended the



VANCE THOMPSON.

life of President Faure, of France; of the methods of the Sultan of Turkey in spreading his net of secret agents over Europe; of the fierce fight between France and the Vatican; and of the real origin of the present war between Russia and Japan. The volume is appropriately illustrated.

A fascinating story of "Paris and the Social Revolution"

(Small, Maynard) is what Mr. Alvan F. Sanborn gives us in a study of the revolutionary elements in the various classes of Parisian society, which is illustrated appropriately and cleverly by Vaughan Trowbridge. Mr. Sanborn's attitude is set forth in the quotation from Walt Whitman which he places on the back of his title-page—"I have no mockings or arguments. I witness and wait." All the life of recalcitrant Paris, with its stirrings and strivings and protests, with the picturesque abandon and volatile earnestness of the French character when intent on demanding a change of *régime*, fairly radiate from Mr. Sanborn's pages. The revolutionist, even the anarchist in his worst form, is, after all, not a bad sort of fellow, you feel, and you are especially grateful to the author for the clear, vivid glimpse at the national character and life which he has given in this book. The illustrations are excellent. The chapters cover the propaganda of anarchy, of socialism, the revolutionary traditions of the Latin Quarter, the freaks, the fumistes, the cabarets, of Montmartre, and the revolutionary spirit in literature, music, and art. The book is "reverently inscribed to the proletariat of America."

A very useful historical volume which ought to have been written years ago is Mr. R. Nisbet Bain's "Scandinavia," issued by the Cambridge University Press in England, and imported by the Macmillans. It is one of the "Cambridge Historical Series" edited by Dr. G. W. Prothero. Mr. Bain, who is author of "Charles XII. and the Collapse of the Swedish Empire," has written an excellent political history of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, from 1513 to 1900. His text proves his fundamental thesis that "the political history of Scandinavia is the history of the frustration of a great Baltic empire." His volume is really an attempt to describe the rise of the Scandinavian kingdoms to political eminence, and their influence on European politics

generally. Scandinavian history, he points out, is largely a record "of surpassing individual genius which seems almost to turn aside, or at least suspend for a time, the operation of natural laws." This heroic process of empire-building on flimsy foundations, however, exhausted the vital forces of Scandinavia. Mr. Bain tells us in his preface that he has studied Scandinavia's foreign relations, not only from Scandinavian records, but from Polish documents and from the Russian historian Solovov's great "Istoriya Rossii." A number of excellent historic maps complete the volume. At the present moment, when Norway and Sweden are at odds, this history will be found particularly useful.

A pleasant little collection of "Historical Tales" (Lippincott) has been compiled by Charles Morris. These are stories of American history illustrating "the romance of reality." The collection begins with "Ponce de Leon and the Fountain of Youth" and ends with "The Home-Coming of General Lee and His Veterans." The volume is illustrated.

The Duttons have brought out the Grant Duff "Notes from a Diary." The Rt. Hon. Sir Mountstuart E. Grant Duff had a most interesting and varied career, and his diary, extending from 1851 for just half a century (to January, 1901), furnishes some remarkable comments on contemporary history. Politics and administration are omitted from general consideration, as these phases of Sir Mountstuart's life have already been handled in books and speeches. These two volumes are devoted principally to the period from 1896 to 1901. A man who has been for many years secretary of state for India, for the British colonies in general, and president of the Royal Geographical Society, has interesting things to say outside of politics. Sir Mountstuart is now in his seventy-fifth year, but is still traveling and writing about his travels.

An incisive study of the part played by Mirabeau in the French Revolution has been written by Mr. Charles F. Warwick and published by Lippincott. Mr. Warwick, who has been mayor of Philadelphia and is a prominent lawyer in that city, intends this volume to be one of several presenting some of the legal and political aspects of the French Revolution, the principal events of which he purposes grouping around the terrible three—Mirabeau, Danton, and Robespierre.

The real romance of Victor Hugo's life was his friendship and closer relations with Mme. Juliette Drouet, existing over more than fifty years. Some years ago, Hugo's letters to Juliette were published in France, but her love-letters in reply have just been issued for the first time, with description and editing by Henry Wellington Wack (Putnams). Mr. Wack has written quite a readable book about these letters, giving a sketch of Hugo's life during his exile in Guernsey, with personal anecdotes and extracts from correspondence, and François Coppée has written an introduction. The book is illustrated.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie has written another book. It is a life of James Watt (Doubleday, Page), and is in an entirely different vein from his "Empire of Business" or "Gospel of Life." Mr. Carnegie has written a biography which revealed to him as he wrote it "one of the finest characters that ever graced the earth."



ANDREW CARNEGIE.

In his series "Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Scientists," Elbert Hubbard has issued paper-bound monographs of Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, Humboldt, and Herschel. A good, suggestive portrait accompanies each issue.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have brought out an English translation of Rosadi's famous book, "The Trial of Jesus." Giovanni Rosadi, a Deputy in the Italian Parliament, and a famous criminal lawyer and advocate in the court of Tuscany, condemns the trial of Jesus as a miscarriage of justice, judged merely by the standard of Roman law. He writes with a fiery, burning earnestness and enthusiasm which imparts a religious stimulation to his book, which has already been translated into a number of different languages. The particular significance of the work is perhaps due to the two facts that it treats the famous trial as a matter of history and gives it its proper legal standing, and also that it portrays the personality of the man Christ in a way that appeals to a class of readers usually indifferent to religious books. The English translation has been edited and prefaced by Dr. Emile Reich, author of "Success Among Nations," "The Foundations of Modern Europe," and other works.

EXPLORATIONS, TRAVEL, AND DESCRIPTION.

A vivid account of two years spent among the snow and ice of the South Pole is given by Dr. Nordenskjöld in his stirring volume, "Antarctica." This book, written in conjunction

with Dr. J. Gunnar Andersson, is imported from London by the Macmillans. Dr. Nordenskjöld tells the story of the whole expedition, and puts the part played by Sweden in its proper setting. He outlines the general scheme determined upon at the International Geographical Congress in London, in 1895, by which the entire South Polar zone was to be explored



DR. OTTO NORDENSKJÖLD.

Frontispiece (reduced).

by means of international collaboration between England, Germany, and Sweden. England was given the task of investigating the tracts south of the Pacific,

Germany that of carrying out similar work south of the Indian Ocean, while Sweden had for her field of labor the lands and seas lying to the south of South America and the Atlantic. It will be remembered that the Nordenskjöld expedition, in the vessel *Antarctic*, left Europe in the summer of 1901, and spent the following Antarctic winter in the South Polar regions. It will be remembered, also, that the German expedition was the only one to succeed, reaching home only with great difficulty. The English expedition did not succeed in getting out of the ice, and was obliged to remain for a year longer than had been calculated on. The *Antarctic* was caught in the ice, "nipped" and sunk, and it took two relief parties to finally rescue Dr. Nordenskjöld and his followers. Notwithstanding the loss of the vessel, with many of the scientific notes, much of the geographical and other scientific results were saved, and, thanks to the financial help of the Swedish Government, the full report is now being edited. This volume is Dr. Nordenskjöld's own story (prepared in collaboration with Dr. Andersson and Captain Larsen, of the *Antarctic*). It is very fully illustrated.

The first work to deal in an adequate descriptive way with our Arctic possession is Mr. J. S. McLain's "Alaska and the Klondike" (McClure, Phillips). Mr. McLain traveled over all the peninsula as a member of the Senatorial committee of 1908, visiting the American and British gold fields, the island districts, Nome, the fisheries, and the Yukon country. His illustrated account of the country, with its history, resources, and possibilities for the future, is a pioneer work, and partakes of the nature of a public document.

Mr. John Fox, Jr., after "Following the Sun-Flag" through Manchuria as American newspaper correspondent with General Oku's army, returned, never having

seen a battle or gone farther than the field of Liao-Yang several weeks after the conflict. His spoils of war after seven months, he declares in this entertaining volume (published by the Scribners), were "post-mortem battlefields, wounded convalescents in hospitals, deserted trenches, a few graves, and one Russian prisoner in a red shirt." Mr. Fox praises his treatment by the Japanese authorities while in Japan, but criticizes those authorities for not informing the newspaper men at once that they could not go to the front, rather than dallying with them and keeping them dangling for months in Tokio awaiting the fulfillment of the promise to go to the front. There are some bits of very fine description in this volume.

A handsome work on Ireland, with illustrations from paintings made especially for the book, has been prepared by Mr. Frank Mathew, who explains and describes the scenes painted by Mr. Francis H. Walker, R.H.A. The book is published by the Blacks, of London, and imported by the Macmillans. Books about Ireland, this artist and author believe, are too much given to controversy and too little to description. Their endeavor is to deal with the nature of Ireland, and with the consequent natures of Irishmen. The text upon which they embroider their discourse is the old legend that Ireland "was separated from the rest of the known world, and, in some way, is always to be distinguished as another world." The very handsome illustrations are in color.

"Shakespeare's London," by Henry Thew Stephenson (Holt), includes, besides a topographical study of the city as it was seen by Shakespeare, some very entertaining chapters on the manners and customs of the people. Good use is made of the descriptions left by contemporary writers.

The report of the Bahama expedition sent out by the Geographical Society of Baltimore in 1908, edited by Prof. George B. Shattuck (Macmillan), contains sixteen distinct papers on various subjects pertaining to the Bahama Islands, all prepared by specialists, most of whom were present on the expedition and directed the work of their respective investigations. As the editor of this publication remarks in his letter of transmittal to President Gilman, the appearance of the book at a time when the work on the Panama Canal is drawing the attention of the civilized world to the Caribbean Sea seems most opportune. All the illustrations have been prepared with great care, and the book gives a wonderfully complete picture of the resources and the physical features of the Bahamas.

A journey through the Jewish centers of the old world, originally taken in the interest of the Council of the Holy Land Relief Fund, has furnished Mr. Elkan Nathan Adler with some most interesting material, descriptive and anecdotal, which he has put in running story form in a little volume entitled "Jews in Many Lands" (Jewish Publication Society of America). Mr. Adler, who is a lawyer by profession, searched for every historic corner in Europe, Asia, and Africa where his coreligionists might be found. He has the journalist's instinct, and knows how to describe what he has seen.

"The Better New York, Its Sights and Insights," is a useful little volume issued by the American Institute of Social Service, with illustrations, tables, and plans. It ought to be useful to large employers of labor, and to all strangers in the great city, indicating, as it does, the uplifting forms of recreation and entertainment available.



JOHN FOX, JR.

SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATION.

It will be remembered that Prof. Edward A. Ross was forced, a few years ago, to resign the chair of economics and sociology at Stanford University, and that he has since occupied a similar chair at the University of Nebraska. Recalling that incident, the sociological heresy-hunters will doubtless examine with particular care the new book by Professor Ross, entitled "The Foundations of Sociology" (Macmillan). Yet the keenest among them will find difficulty, we imagine, in singling out any censurable utterance. The book is of value to the lay reader in that it clarifies not a few of the foggy statements and definitions that have been associated with this newly developed science to its popular detraction. Professor Ross is a clear and forcible writer. His book is published in "The Citizen's Library," under the editorship of Prof. Richard T. Ely.

A number of the addresses of Prof. Felix Adler before the Society for Ethical Culture, in New York, have been collected and published in book form, under the title "The Religion of Duty" (McClure, Phillips). Among the speeches of burning, present-day interest are: "Changes in the Conception of God," "The Ethical Attitude Toward Pleasure," "The Consolation of the Religion of Duty," and "The Essential Difference Between the Ethical Societies and the Churches."

Miss Kate Stephens, formerly occupying the chair of Greek in the University of Kansas, and generally well known as club woman, magazine writer, and newspaper editor, has written a clever book of essays, under the title "American Thumb-Prints" (Lippincott). These essays appeared in the *Bookman* and the *Atlantic Monthly*, and cover subjects of national life calculated to show "the metal of our men and women." The essay on the New England woman is, perhaps, the most incisive of the collection.



KATE STEPHENS.

A series of magazine articles on Russia and the Russian people by writers of different nationalities, among them being Alfred Rambaud, Vladimir Simkovitch, Peter Roberts, and J. Novicow, have been published in one volume by Fox, Duffield & Co., under the general head "The Case of Russia." Most of these articles appeared originally in the *International Quarterly*. The writers are students of the Slavonic race and its home. There is a good deal of psychological interest in the essays, particularly in that of Mr. Novicow.

The first volume of the "Proceedings of the American



PROFESSOR FELIX ADLER.

Political Science Association" has just come from the press. This association was established less than two years ago, for the encouragement of the scientific study of politics, public law, administration, and diplomacy. It has a membership of more than two hundred, and held its first annual meeting in connection with the American Historical Association at Chicago last December. The present volume of proceedings contains papers on "The Beginnings of War," by Theodore S. Woolsey; on "Colonial Policy, with Reference to the Philippines," by Bernard Moses; on "Colonial Autonomy," by Paul S. Reinsch; on "The Reorganization of Local Government in Cuba," by Leo S. Rowe; on "The Regulation of Railway Rates," by Martin A. Knapp, of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and a number of other important essays and discussions.

Prof. John A. Fairlie's book on "The National Administration of the United States of America" (Macmillan) is perhaps the first comprehensive work on this subject that has ever been published. No account of national government as a whole has been attempted, but simply a description of the administrative system, the legislative and judicial branches being mentioned only in their direct relations to the executive administration. There are chapters on the general and special administrative hours of the President, of the Senate and House, of the cabinet, and of the several executive departments and detached bureaus. The only wonder is that this study was not undertaken long ago.

A very handy and valuable legal work is Prof. F. Meili's "International Civil and Commercial Law," which has just been translated and edited by Arthur K. Kuhn (Macmillan). Dr. Meili is professor of international private law in the University of Zurich, and was delegate of Switzerland to the Hague international conference. He treats the entire subject as it is of international law as founded upon thorough legislation and practice. Mr. Kuhn, who is a member of the New York bar, has not only translated the work, but has supplemented it with additions from American and English law. Very useful lists, annotations, and bibliographies complete the work.

A thoughtful essay on "The Japanese Spirit" (James Pott & Co.) has been written by Okakura Yoshisaburo, and to this volume George Meredith has written an introduction. The volume consists of reproductions of lectures delivered by Mr. Okakura at the University of London. The essays take up and discuss most of the peculiarly characteristic national traits of the Japanese people.

It is a pleasure to note that Miss Katharine E. Dopp's book on "The Place of Industries in Elementary Education" (The University of Chicago Press) has passed to a third edition, and that an important new chapter is devoted to ways of procuring material equipment for industrial training in schools and to suggestions for using such equipment so as to enhance the value of colonial history. This chapter will be found especially helpful to teachers who have neither the equipment itself nor a sufficient knowledge of approved methods of utilizing it in their school work.

"Imaginary Obligations" (Dodd, Mead) is the title of Mr. Frank Moore Colby's "attempt to encroach on the zone of moral indifference." He has written on the topics in this volume, he declares, because he enjoys their absurdity; "but incidentally they may show why so many of us grow old rigidly or develop an alarming spiritual pomposity in our middle age."

BOOKS OF NATURE AND OUTDOOR LIFE.

The spirit of revolt that leads men and women in our great cities to throw off the shackles that have bound them to the conventional routine of city life and betake themselves to the joys of the forest and the farm is voiced in "The Life Worth Living," by Thomas Dixon, Jr. (Doubleday, Page). This little book records the author's personal experience. It tells how he learned, after years of experimentation, that the country offers the ideal environment for the home, and how he sought and found his own hearthstone and roof-tree on the shores of the Chesapeake Bay, in old tidewater Virginia, "the most beautiful and least-known spot in our continent." Mr. Dixon sets forth the attractions of the colonial mansion that he has made his home, and compares it with the "nineteen-foot slit in a block of scorched mud with a brown-stone veneer" which served as his abiding-place in New York, to the manifest disadvantage of the latter.

All persons who for any reason have made a special study of American trees and shrubs have become deeply indebted to Prof. Charles S. Sargent, whose monumental work, "The Silva of North America," has long been a standard authority among botanists. The general reading public is now enabled to profit more directly from the results of Professor Sargent's studies through his "Manual of the Trees of North America" (Houghton, Mifflin), a work in one volume containing over eight hundred pages and six hundred and forty-four illustrations from drawings by Charles E. Faxon. In this book, Professor Sargent describes American trees and their uses in a way which appeals to all who find any inspiration at all in outdoor life. It is an excellent book to put in the hands of all who are interested in village and park improvement, while owners of country places will find it indeed a *vade mecum*.

Mr. Louis Harman Peet's "Trees and Shrubs of Central Park" (New York: Manhattan Press) is an excellent manual for the assistance of the New York tree-lover whose explorations are mainly confined to the principal park of his city. The Rambler in Central Park who makes diligent use of this handbook will soon possess himself of a fund of information regarding trees and shrubs, both native and exotic, which he could hardly hope to attain in so short a time by any other method.

At last a book has appeared which does for the wild fruits of the countryside what a dozen modern field books do for the wild flowers,—i.e., it serves as a key, or guide, for the identification of species. "How to Know Wild Fruits" (Macmillan) is the title of this work. The author, Maude Gridley Peterson, has tried to provide a convenient system by which plants when not in flower may be identified by means of fruit and leaf. As in the case of many plants this flowerless condition prevails for a great part of the year, a system of this kind has distinct advantages.

In "Bird Life and Bird Lore" (Dutton) we have a collection of papers by R. Bosworth Smith, which appeared originally as articles in the *Nineteenth Century*, together with several bird studies which were published several years ago in other periodicals. Although written in England and dealing altogether with British birds, these essays have a certain charm of style which should appeal to nature-lovers the world over. The birds particularly treated are the raven, the wild duck, and the magpie.



HERMANN SUDERMANN.

ART AND THE DRAMA.

A sympathetic, suggestive analysis of Japanese painting, under the title "Impressions of Ukiyo-Ye," has been written by Dora Amsden (Paul Elder & Co.). This study treats of the whole school of Japanese color-print artists, and is appropriately illustrated with half-tone reproductions of famous paintings. The whole is printed on Japanese paper, and an appendix shows facsimiles of the most famous signatures of color-print artists, presented in this volume for the benefit of collectors. The art of Ukiyo-Ye, we are told in the first paragraph, is "a spiritual rendering of the realism and naturalness of the daily life, intercourse with nature, and imaginings of a lively, impressionable race in the full tide of a passionate craving for art."

A series of articles which appeared originally in the *Dial*, by Edward Everett Hale, Jr., have been revised and elaborated, and published (Holt) as studies of "Dramatists of To-Day." Mr. Hale presents what he calls an informal discussion of the significant work of Rostand, Hauptmann, Sudermann, Pinero, Shaw, Phillips, and Maeterlinck.

An English version, by Grace E. Polk, of Sudermann's four-act drama, "St. John's Fire," has been issued by the H. W. Wilson Company, of Minneapolis. This strong drama now appears for the first time, we believe, in English.

A collection of "Pictures by George Frederick Watts," with an introduction and selections by Julia Ellsworth Ford and Thomas W. Lamont, has been issued by Fox, Duffield & Co. This is very handsomely illustrated, with full-page half-tone and photogravure reproductions of Mr. Watts' great paintings, each one faced by some appropriate poetic selection from prose or poetry. The introduction is really a warm tribute to the artist.

BOOKS ABOUT TRADE AND BUSINESS.

The official catalogue of the German exhibit at the St. Louis Exposition has been brought out in English translation in elegant typographical form. The work has been edited by the imperial commissioner and the composition and printing done by the imperial printing office from type cast from designs especially made for this purpose. Besides being a catalogue of exhibits proper, the volume contains a variety of articles on trade, industry, and economic conditions in Germany, interspersed with statistical and historical data. We are informed that there are a limited number of copies of this very artistic catalogue and record-book available at the German consulate-general's office in New York. These will be distributed gratis (express charges to be borne by the recipient) on written application.

In "Modern Advertising," by Earnest Elmo Calkins and Ralph Holden, recently published by D. Appleton & Co. in their business series, the authors design to give the general reader a sane and sensible exposition of advertising as it is now understood. The classification of "Modern Advertising" with such subjects as The American Railway, Banking, Life Insurance, etc., in this business series itself emphasizes the importance of the subject. In its modern sense, advertising is said to be that subtle but powerful force whereby the advertiser creates a demand for a given article in the minds of a great many people or arouses the demand that is already there in latent form. In the chapter on the

history of advertising, a brief account of its development during the last half-century is given, and reference is made to many spectacular examples of success, like P. T. Barnum, Robert Bonner, and others. It is estimated by the authors that the annual expenditure for magazine, newspaper, and billboard advertising is something like \$600,000,000, and the preparation of suitable plans, including the designing of attractive and striking copy for this expenditure, is touched upon as an important department of modern advertising. The book is written primarily for the general reader, and as such it will be found to be a most interesting exposition of the subject of advertising and sales-management. In the chapter on the advertising agent, the authors rightfully maintain that the agent has, by making the initial expenditures of the manufacturers effective, built up larger businesses, and thereby increased their advertising accounts to such an extent that magazines have been enabled to purchase superior literary productions, and that in a sense, therefore, advertising has endowed literature. After perusing this work, the reader may not be fully prepared to agree with the authors that "advertising modifies the course of a people's whole thought, gives them new words and phrases, new ideas, new fashions, new prejudices, and new customs," yet he will certainly have removed from his mind any misapprehension that he may have had concerning the importance and dignity of advertising itself, and of the profession of the modern successful advertising writer.

RECENT NOVELS RECEIVED.

Accolade, The. By C. E. D. Phelps. Lippincott.
After the Divorce. By Grazia Dellades. Holt.
American Abelard and Héloïse, An. By Mary Ives Dodd. Grafton.
American Girl in Munich, An. By Mabel W. Daniels. Little, Brown & Co.
Bertram of Beltana. By W. E. Norris. Longmans, Green & Co.
Beyond Chance or Change. By Sara A. Shafer. Macmillan.
Bishop's Niece, The. By G. H. Picard. Turner.
Blockaders, The. By James Barnes. Harpers.
Boys of Bob's Hill. By C. P. Burton. Holt.
Clock and Key, The. By A. H. Vesey. Appletons.
Crimson Blind, The. By F. M. White. Fenno.
Embarrassing Orphan, An. By W. E. Norris. Winston, Philadelphia.
Forest Drama, A. By Louis Pendleton. Winston, Philadelphia.
Four Feathers, The. By A. E. W. Nason. Macmillan.
Freedom of Life, The. By Annie P. Cull. Little, Brown & Co.
Fugitive Blacksmith. By C. D. Stewart. Century.
Golden Flood, The. By E. Lefèvre. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Heart of Hope, The. By Norval Richardson. Dodd, Mead.
Heart of the World, The. By C. M. Sheldon. Revell.
Heda Sandwith. By E. U. Valentine. Bobbs-Merrill.
House of the Black Thing, The. By F. L. Pattee. Holt.
House of Hawley. By E. E. Peake. Appletons.
House in the Mist. By Anna K. Green. Bobbs-Merrill.
Human Touch, The. By E. M. Nichol. Lothrop.
John Van Buren, Politician. Anonymous. Harpers.
Justin Wingate, Ranchman. By J. H. Whitson. Little, Brown.
Knot of Blue, A. By W. R. A. Wilson. Little, Brown.

Langbarrow Hall. By Theodora W. Wilson. Appletons.
Lode-Star, The. By S. R. Kennedy. Macmillan.
Medal of Honor. By Gen. Charles King. Hobart Co.
Miss Billy. By E. K. Stokely and M. K. Hurd. Lothrop.
Modern Legionary, A. By J. P. Le Poer. Dutton.
Mother and Daughter. By Gabrielle E. Jackson. Harpers.
Motormanlacs. By Lloyd Osbourne. Bobbs-Merrill.
My Lady Clancarty. By Mary I. Taylor. Little, Brown.
Nutbrown Joan. By M. A. Taggart. Holt.
On the Firing Line. By Ray Fuller. Little, Brown.
Outlet, The. By Andy Adams. Houghton, Mifflin.
Partners of the Trade. By J. C. Lincoln. Barnes.
Pioneer, The. By Geraldine Bonner. Bobbs-Merrill.
Plum Tree, The. By D. G. Phillips. Bobbs-Merrill.
Prize to the Hardy, The. By Alice Winter. Bobbs-Merrill.
Quakeress, The. By C. F. Clark. Winston.
Return, The. By Alice MacGowan and Grace MacGowan Cooke. L. C. Page & Co.
Sanna. By M. E. Waller. Harpers.
Serena. By Virginia F. Boyle. Barnes.
Silence of Mrs. Harrold. By S. M. Gardenshire. Harpers.
Slanderers. By Warwick Deeping. Harpers.
Smoke-Eaters. By H. T. O'Higgins. Century.
Spirit of the Service. By E. E. Wood. Macmillan.
Sunset Trail. By A. H. Lewis. Barnes.
Tale of the Kloster. By Brother Jabez. Griffith & Rowland Press, Philadelphia.
Tor: A Street Boy of Jerusalem. By Florence M. Kingsley. Henry Altamus.
Two Captains. By C. T. Brady. Macmillan.
Tybee Kroll. By J. B. Connolly. Barnes.
Van Suyden Sapphires, The. By Charles Carey. Dodd, Mead.
Vision of Elijah Berl. By F. L. Nason. Little, Brown.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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COUNT SERGIUS WITTE, RUSSIA'S MAN OF THE HOUR.

(President of the Imperial Committee of Ministers and Russia's leading peace negotiator at Washington. For an outline of Count Witte's career and portraits and sketches of the other peace negotiators, see the article "The Peace Negotiators at Washington," on page 211 of this issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.)

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No. 2.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Peace-making at Portsmouth.

With the coming of August days, the world's diplomatic center shifts itself to the quiet harbor of Portsmouth, on the coast of New Hampshire. For it has been decided that the commissioners who are to try to make a treaty of peace between Russia and Japan under the hospitality of the United States Government will not attempt to do their work in the summer heat of Washington, but will avail themselves of the comfort and comparative seclusion afforded by the United States naval station at Portsmouth, which occupies an island in the harbor, and which boasts a substantial new building that has been made ready for the distinguished plenipotentiaries. The victorious Japanese will be represented by their minister of foreign affairs, Baron Komura, who arrived at Seattle on July 20, and the Japanese minister at Washington, Mr. Takahira. The Russian Government will be represented by the new Russian ambassador at Washington, Baron Rosen, and,—what is most notable of all,—by Russia's ablest and foremost public man, Count Sergius Witte.

Count Witte the Central Figure.

It is surmised that the chief importance of the final decision in Russia to send M. Witte lies in the fact that, in the first place, he is known to have been opposed to the war and as being in favor of peace, while, in the second place, it is asserted that he would not accept this responsibility until a much more complete power to agree upon terms had been granted than the Czar's government had intended at first to confer upon the commissioners. Thus, there were not a few men of experience and discernment in Europe who were of the opinion that the attempt of the commissioners to agree upon terms would not result in the making of peace, but that the war would go on indefinitely. M. Witte's appointment is therefore to be regarded as of favorable omen. It is useless to guess how long the commissioners may

protract their negotiations. Although clothed with great powers, they will undoubtedly have to refer points almost constantly, by cipher cable messages, to their governments at home.

A Business of Vast Moment.

The things they are called upon to decide must affect in a far-reaching way, not only the two nations now at war, but most of the other important powers, European, Asiatic, and American. Thus, Portsmouth will be a Mecca of diplomats and journalists, although the sessions of the commissioners will be anything but public and open. It took many weeks for our commissioners and those of Spain, in session at Paris in 1898–99, to agree upon the terms under which Spain withdrew from Cuba and ceded to us Porto Rico and the Philippines. Ours was a comparatively small war, and its only specific object was to settle the future status of Cuba. The present war between Japan and Russia is of vastly greater consequence, and the responsibilities of the men who are to try to fix the terms of a permanent peace will be correspondingly heavy. Whatever form of agreement may be made, it is not likely that there will be any interference on the part of other nations. Russia made a settlement with Turkey after the war of 1877–78. England and Germany, however, interfered, and the Berlin Congress greatly modified the terms that Turkey had been compelled to accept from the victor. When Japan defeated China, in 1895, the terms of peace as arranged between the contending powers were upset by the interference of Russia, Germany, and France. In both instances, the terms arranged between the combatants themselves were better for the true welfare of those concerned, and far better for the permanent peace of the world, than were the modified terms brought about by outside meddling. In the present instance, there will be no attack upon the general principle that China must be saved from dismemberment; and,—



THE HARBOR OF PORTSMOUTH, N. H.—THE HOTEL WENTWORTH IN THE BACKGROUND.

with that principle respected,—there will be no disposition in any quarter to dispute the conclusions that the commissioners may reach.

*Will Japan
Demand
Too Much?*

Although the Japanese have been sweepingly victorious, they recognize the fact that the latent power of the Russian Empire is a stupendous thing, and that any attempt at overreaching, and any demands that would be generally regarded by neutral nations as grossly immoderate, would only harm Japan in the long run. It is true that Baron Hayashi, at London, is quoted as saying that it is a mistake to suppose that the Japanese are angels and that they mean to demand less than the full measure of a victor's spoil. But, since the Japanese have done everything so brilliantly since the outbreak of this war, it may be expected that their diplomacy in this crowning task of making peace will show the same qualities of clear vision. There will be readiness at all points, and there will be sense and discernment. The skill and precision that the leaders of this marvelous nation have shown in handling their armies and fleets, in managing their war finances, and in maintaining an unexampled spirit of harmony and coöperation throughout the entire nation, will be shown at Portsmouth. Russia's position is a very difficult one, because her defeat

at the hands of Japan was almost as complete a surprise to most of the people of Russia, including the official classes, as the pluck and prowess and long endurance of the Boers was a surprise to the officials and most of the people of England. It is not easy for any nation to accept defeat in war, and the circumstances are peculiarly trying for the very nation that has for so many years been looked upon as more powerful than any other, from the military standpoint. Japan must and will consider these things:

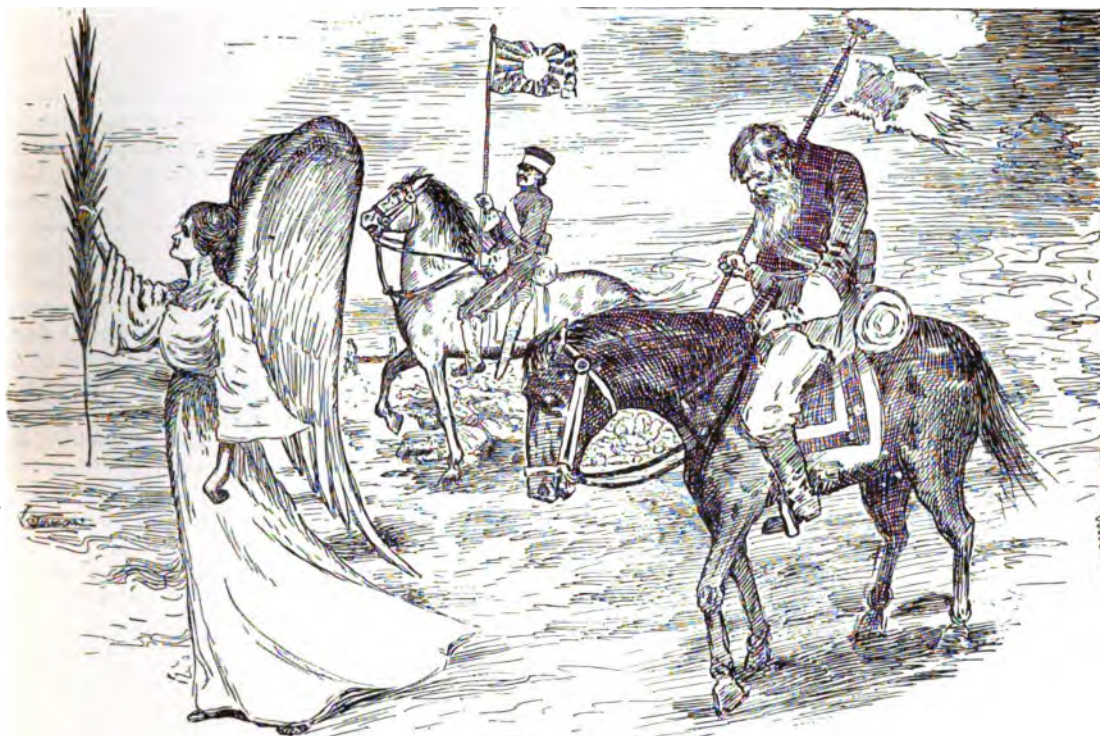
*The Death
of
John Hay.*

The coming of this conference to the United States, as well as its existence through the good offices of our own government, is a mark of the greatly increased regard in which this country's position is held by foreign nations. Another mark of



THE GENERAL EQUIPMENT BUILDING, NAVY YARD, PORTSMOUTH, N. H.

(To be used as a conference hall by the Russian and Japanese peace commissioners.)

ON TO WASHINGTON.—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

that regard has been seen in the tributes paid to the late Secretary of State John Hay, who was regarded as typifying in his own personality and methods the present spirit of the United States in relation to other countries. For many years Mr. Hay had not known firm health, and his public services during the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations were rendered only with pain and difficulty, through rigid care to avoid everything that would produce a break-down. In spite of such constant care, however, Mr. Hay's health had been declining for many months, and he had in April gone to Europe in a condition that showed at least very serious need of rest and medical treatment. He returned in June, and after a brief visit to Washington, retired to his country home on Lake Sunapee, in New Hampshire. It was generally supposed that he was on the high road to recovery; but there was a sudden collapse early in the morning of July 1, and the sad news of his death was announced in the papers of the same day. If he had lived, he would probably have lingered on in the condition of an invalid. As it was, he passed away at the moment of his greatest fame, when all the world took note and felt his loss.

*A Gentleman
at the Helm
of State.*

The tributes of respect and esteem that were paid to his memory were without a single discordant note; and, indeed, they were undoubtedly more widespread and sincere than would have been paid to any other man at present occupying high position in the diplomacy or foreign offices of any nation whatsoever. We publish elsewhere in this number, from the pen of Mr. Walter Wellman, a personal sketch of Mr. Hay which explains very well why he was thus highly regarded at home and abroad. He was a gentleman, not only in all the private relations of life, but also in his conduct of public and international affairs. He carried fine manners as well as high principles into the duties of his great office. He brought to his work not so much a profound or scholarly mind as one highly trained and widely informed, and, above all, a mind of rare cultivation and refinement. With his coming to the State Department there disappeared completely and forever the last vestiges of the old tradition of American "shirt sleeves" diplomacy. With our enlarged and more complicated international position, the business of our Secretary of State has become a far more delicate thing than it was in times

gone by, and the changed conditions will require altered methods. The character and range of this expanded international business of ours is well shown in the article that Mr. John Bassett Moore writes for this number of the Review upon Mr. Hay's career from the standpoint of international law and diplomacy. It would be, in our opinion, a great mistake to assume that Secretary Hay was doing his work in a manner that separated him from the temper and spirit of the administration in which he belonged. Unquestionably, President McKinley was head of the executive government during his incumbency; and in like manner it is true that President Roosevelt has been in all respects at the head of his own administration and the chief master of all its policies, foreign as well as domestic.

*Mr. Root
Again in the
Cabinet.*

If Mr. Hay was the man for the period in which he served the Government as Secretary of State, it is certainly not less true that Mr. Elihu Root proved himself the man for the still more pressing and serious emergencies that confronted the War Department during the five years that he spent as War Secretary. It was not merely that he brought about the reorganization of the army itself, but it fell to his lot to lead in the reconstruction of Cuba and the creation of its new republic, as well as in the organization of government and administration in the Philippines, and the adjustment of relations between the United States and Hawaii in the one ocean and Porto Rico in the other. When Mr. Root withdrew from President Roosevelt's cabinet, in February, 1904, it was because he had accomplished all of the larger tasks which he had undertaken; and after this great work, intense as well as protracted, he felt himself entitled to the repose as well as to the emoluments of private life. He came back at once to the leadership of the New York bar, and to a practice great in the range of its bearing upon the business affairs of the country, and, of course, correspondingly lucrative. But when, on Mr. Hay's death, the President asked Mr. Root to return to the cabinet as Secretary of State, there was prompt acceptance of the new public task.

*A Master
of the
Situation.*

The very nature of the problems with which Mr. Root had to deal as Secretary of War brought him in constant relation with foreign affairs, while his eminence as a lawyer and his wisdom as an adviser had made him all along so close in the confidence of the President in all policy-making situations that he takes up the work of Secretary of State with entire familiarity, and with easy mastery.

Mr. Hay's great qualities as Secretary of State were in the main developed after several years of experience in a position which he held longer than any of his predecessors during the nearly one hundred and twenty years of the existence of this government. It is no disparagement, therefore, to Mr. Hay to remark that Mr. Root brings to the post of Secretary of State more complete qualifications than those possessed by any other man at the moment of first taking up the duties of that particular portfolio. Mr. Hay had rounded out his great career, and his work was done. He was only sixty-seven, but for a good while he had felt himself the victim of declining years. Mr. Root at sixty is as young-looking a man as the entirely new picture of him published herewith would indicate. His mind is as fresh and elastic as that of a man half his age, while it has the added advantage that comes from experience and maturity.

*No
Politics
In It.*

It is wholly a mistake to assume that Mr. Root's appointment has had any intentional political bearing, or that it necessarily puts him in the line of nomination for the Presidency in 1908. Presidential nominations somehow take care of themselves, and do not come from any man's giving them thought. Meanwhile, with Mr. Root at the head of the State Department, Mr. Roosevelt has at hand the man who has all along, out of office as well as in it, been his closest adviser in public matters for a good many years past, and the people of the United States have secured the services in public affairs of great moment of a man whose patriotism and devotion to the public good are as great as are his talents and his discretion. Mr. Root will naturally take an especial interest in the high diplomatic business going forward at Portsmouth, in view of his past management of the American part of the Chinese expedition at the time of the Boxer troubles, his part in the history of Philippine affairs, and his interest in still other phases of the far-Eastern situation and Pacific Ocean affairs.

*The
Paul Jones
Ceremonies.*

It is reported that there will in the near future be some reorganization of the State Department, and that Mr. Loomis, First Assistant Secretary, will be promoted to some diplomatic position, in accordance with plans made before the recent investigation of charges relating to Mr. Loomis as minister to Venezuela. It is rumored, though not absolutely confirmed, that Mr. Lloyd Griscom, United States minister to Japan, will succeed Mr. Loomis at Washington. Meanwhile, Mr. Loomis, who had gone abroad for a vaca-



HON. ELIHU ROOT, SECRETARY OF STATE.

tion trip, had taken part in the formal ceremonies at Paris with which the body of our great naval hero, Paul Jones, of Revolutionary fame, had been placed by the French Government in the custody of Admiral Sigsbee. This officer had gone with a squadron of war vessels and much pomp to bear to the United States the leaden casket in which the embalmed body had been placed so long ago, as if for transmission

to this country at that very time. Our retiring ambassador, Gen. Horace Porter, and Assistant Secretary Loomis had been appointed special envoys for this ceremonial occasion in France. While abroad, Mr. Loomis is to prepare a report upon the business organization of our diplomatic service. General Porter comes home with great prestige, and he well deserves praise for the successful search to find the burial-place of Jones.

*Better Support
for Our For-
eign Service.*

Since American diplomacy has become so much respected, and its personnel is so favorably received in most foreign lands, it is quite time that the service should receive better treatment at the hands of Congress than has been accorded it hitherto. It is not in keeping with the dignity of our government that diplomatic salaries should be so small that the important ambassadorships are tending, as a matter of custom, to be given only to men of large private wealth. It happens that Mr. Whitelaw Reid had the experience and the qualities which would have brought him success as ambassador at London, even without private means at his disposal. But, as a matter of fact, Mr. Reid pays more for his house-rent alone than the entire salary of his office. The situation would be greatly improved if our government should acquire or build suitable houses for the offices and residences of American ambassadors and ministers in the principal capitals of the world. With such provision made, and some rearrangement of salaries, Uncle Sam would not have to ask his representatives abroad to pay a large part of their bills from their own pocketbooks. Apropos of Mr. Reid's going to England, it is worth while to call attention to the remarkable character of the reception he has received there on all hands,—the friendliness shown being in part personal, but chiefly an indication of good-will toward the country Mr. Reid represents. In like manner, the opportunity afforded by the ceremonies in France to which we have alluded brought forth most agreeable tokens of friendliness toward this country and its representatives on the part of the great French republic. In Russia, where there has been a good deal of feeling against the United States on account of the prevalence here of sympathy with Japan in the war, and also, per-

haps, on account of the attitude of this country toward Russia's Jewish policy, there have been many marks of courtesy shown to our present ambassador, Mr. Meyer; and this gentleman has rendered unquestioned service in helping to bring about the negotiations for peace.

*Dr. Hill
at The
Hague.*

While speaking of our diplomatic service, it is worth while to note again the fitness of the appointment of Dr. David J. Hill to the post of minister at

The Hague, from which Mr. Stanford Newel retires after a service of many years. Dr. Hill, who has for the past two years been our minister to Switzerland, had for five years previous been First Assistant Secretary of State. Earlier than that he had by much study made himself an authority in international law and diplomatic history, and had given especial attention to the subject of international arbitration. It so happened that at the time of the preparations for the peace conference at The Hague, Secretary Hay was much occupied with other affairs; and Dr. Hill, as First Assistant Secretary, had full charge of the business of arranging for American participation in that conference. When all the



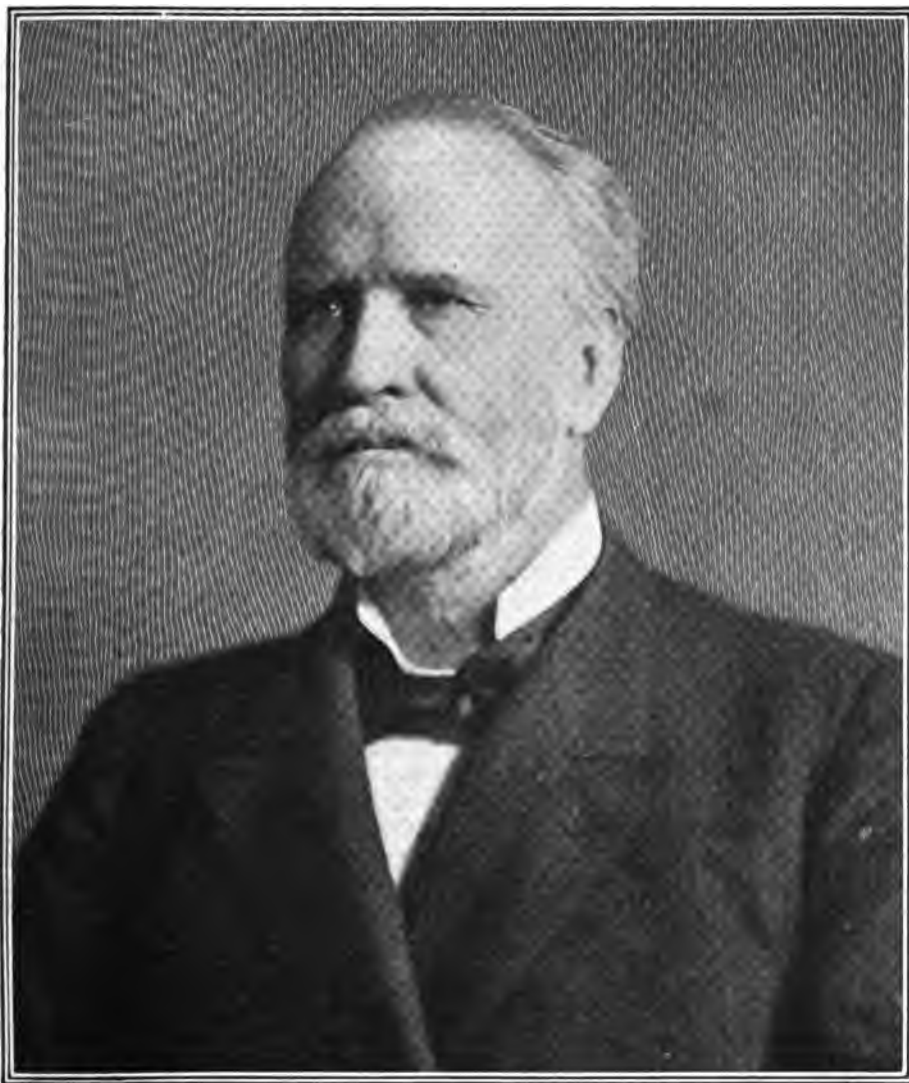
HON. DAVID JAYNE HILL.

(The American minister to The Netherlands.)

facts are known, it will appear that to Dr. Hill as much as to any other man is due the credit for the manner in which the American delegates were inspired to turn a futile disarmament conference into a successful arbitration congress. There is, therefore, a peculiar fitness in Dr. Hill's going to The Hague, where he will become the natural leader in the management of the permanent tribunal of arbitration.

*His
Magnum
Opus.*

It was a part of Dr. Hill's plan, in taking the quiet but dignified post of minister to Switzerland, to devote himself to the carrying on of his studies in



HON. JAMES H. WILSON, SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE.

diplomatic history and to the writing of an elaborate treatise in that field. The first volume of Dr. Hill's great work,—five volumes more are to follow,—is entitled "The Struggle for Universal Empire," and it deals with the early and medieval period down to the beginning of the emergence of nationalities, in the fourteenth century. The second volume, which is to follow at once, will be upon the establishment of European territorial sovereignty; and these two volumes together will be regarded by their author as indicating the foundations of diplomatic history. Four more volumes will bring the narration down to the present time; and while each volume is to be complete in itself, the six will form a continuous work under the general title "A History of Diplo-

macy in the International Development of Europe." The Hague will afford favorable conditions for the prosecution of Dr. Hill's great work, and it is highly creditable that this American scholar and diplomat should so devote his spare time. Undertakings like this of Dr. Hill are in line with the great traditions of the Motleys, the Prescotts, the Bancrofts, and many others.

The peace negotiations kept President Roosevelt at Washington later than he usually stays there during the summer time, and he returned to his Oyster Bay home on July 29. He went to Cleveland, Ohio, on June 5, with the members of the cabinet, to attend the funeral of Secretary Hay.

The Executive Government in Summer Days.



HON. ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK.
(Secretary of the Interior.)

In spite of unceasing public labors, he appears to be in a state of robust health and vigor hardly equaled by any other citizen of the country. Administrative affairs have gone forward smoothly in spite of some changes in the personnel of the cabinet. Secretary Taft, who had started for San Francisco on his way to the Philippines when Secretary Hay died, was advised by the President to continue his journey without interruption. He was accompanied by a considerable party, including a number of members of Congress. Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, of whose appointment as Secretary of the Navy we spoke last month, has already been giving much evidence of great ability and high ideals in administrative work. Mr. Cortelyou has now fairly taken hold of the business of the Post-Office Department, and his quiet but thorough methods will doubtless in due time show many good results. The Agricultural Department has been subjected to some criticism because of the discovery that an official in the statistical and crop-reporting bureau had been furnishing advance information regarding the state of the cotton crop to certain speculators on the New York Cotton Exchange.

*A Word
for Secretary
Wilson.*

Some of the newspaper comments would seem to convey the impression that the whole business of the Agricultural Department is to collect cotton statistics; and that the discovery that an under-

official has made private use of such information must bring utter and final condemnation upon the whole career of Secretary Wilson as head of that department. Nothing, of course, could be more absurd. While the development of the statistical bureau and its special application to cotton-crop reporting are interesting phases of the work of the department, they are far from being its principal object. Through its experiment stations, and in many other ways, the department is engaged in the development of agriculture, stock-raising, and kindred industries. Secretary Wilson has achieved a magnificent success during his long incumbency. The statistical bureau might well enough be turned over to the permanent census organization,—so far is it from bearing a vital relation to the chief work that is being carried on under Mr. Wilson's direction for the progress of rural industries.

*Mr.
Hitchcock's
Great Work.* The Department of the Interior, under Secretary Hitchcock, has gone steadily forward in improving the

administration of such bureaus as that concerned with the Indians, for example; and it has justified itself in its endeavors to improve the methods of administering the land laws. In this connection may be noted the results of the trial of Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, who was charged with the improper promotion of the interests of certain violators of the land laws in obtaining possession of valuable parts of the public domain. Senator Mitchell's trial in the United States District Court at Portland, Ore., which lasted two weeks, resulted in a verdict of guilty on July 3. The Government has been endeavoring to break up a conspiracy organized by a powerful and wealthy Western syndicate which had been obtaining through fraudulent processes, at a merely nominal price, immense areas of public land, often forty times as valuable as the sums paid by them.

*Senator
Mitchell
Found Guilty.* The technical charge upon which Senator Mitchell was found guilty was that of accepting fees for using

his influence as a United States Senator with the executive departments at Washington. There is a special law against such conduct, and it is in no sense true when Senator Mitchell obtained favors from Land Commissioner Hermann for his clients that he was acting as a lawyer in the practice of his profession. The venerable Mitchell had been elected five times to the United States Senate, and knew well the responsibilities of his great office. His humiliation is not his alone, but that of his State in its exposition year, and that of the country

which he has for more than a quarter of a century helped to govern. His fault is a fault of the times in which we live. It is a fault for which we must as a nation put on sackcloth and ashes, with searching of hearts and an earnest determination to rid ourselves of this wretched greed for gain at the sacrifice of honor and of scrupulous integrity.

*A Vast
Governmental
Department.*

The Hon. Ethan Allen Hitchcock, as Secretary of the Interior, has not posed at all before the public, but he has administered the duties of his portfolio with a stern and unbending sense of rectitude. Our public life is decidedly the better for his having come into Mr. McKinley's cabinet and stayed faithfully at his post on into the second Roosevelt administration. The great bureaus which are grouped together under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior,—together with the other services that pertain to the portfolio,—make up an array of public interests so vast that in the aggregate they are far greater than the administrative work that belongs to all the departments of some of the smaller countries. A highly instructive volume, and one that many thousands of people ought to read, is the annual report of the Secretary of the Interior. It covers descriptively and in a terse and accurate way a number of matters of public concern. The part of it devoted to the general land office shows the wide range of the administrative work that has to be carried on, and also sets forth the efforts made to protect the public domain, in the process of disposing of it under the land laws, from the rascals who have in so many ingenious ways tried to obtain its best parcels by fraudulent and criminal methods. Its information about forest reserves alone would make the volume welcome to many people. After the affairs of the land office comes the presentation of Indian affairs. Next comes the report upon the work of the pension office, so immense in

the volume of money that it involves, and so far-reaching in its relation to millions of people. The patent office, which enters so importantly into the commercial and economic life of the American public, belongs to Mr. Hitchcock's department, as also does the geological survey, with its current investigations in Alaska, its reports on the mineral resources of this country, its marvelous scientific work of various sorts, its relation to the new irrigation and reclamation service in the arid regions, and its many other activities. The work carried on under the Hon. William T. Harris as commissioner of education belongs also to the Department of the Interior, as formerly did the Census Bureau, which is now a part of the Department of Commerce. A large amount of administrative work relating to the Territories of Alaska, Arizona, Hawaii, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Porto Rico also comes under the direction of Secretary Hitchcock. So, also, belongs to his portfolio the administration of the national parks and reservations, including the great Yellowstone Park, the Yosemite, and at least half-a-dozen others. Besides all these large bureaus and services, there are many other matters belonging to the Department of the Interior, including educational institutions and the custody and care of public buildings and grounds in Washington.

*Is
Corruption
Increasing?*

We mention all these things to remind our readers of the vast concerns that have to be safeguarded in a department of which people in the Eastern part of the country hear very little, as a rule, and know still less. In some of these great bureaus, notably the public-land service, the Indian service, and the pension service, there have in times past been practised upon the government and people of the United States great and widespread frauds and wrongs. It is an entire mistake to believe that recent and current abuses in these services are greater than in former times. They are, on



At his desk.

For a square deal
always.

Receiving an Indian
delegation.

Scrutinizing
his correspondence.

A great pedestrian.

SECRETARY HITCHCOCK IN SOME CHARACTERISTIC POSES.—From the *Post* (Washington).

the contrary, far less than they were some years ago. Such services ramify so greatly, and cover so vast an extent of territory, employing so many local officers and agents, that the highest principles and ablest talents at the center of things cannot always avail to prevent wrongdoing at the outlying points. But our public administration is growing more business-like and efficient than ever before; and, while constant vigilance is needed, there is no ground for cynicism or for deep discouragement.

The Temptations of a Lavish Age.

We live in an age of luxury, when public officials see their own friends and boyhood companions—who have "struck it rich" in trust-promotion or other private enterprises—living in fine houses and entertaining lavishly, touring in automobiles, and cruising in private yachts. Ours is a democratic country, with a high average of intelligence and nothing whatsoever in social talent and aptitude to separate those who are lavish in expenditure from their friends of small income. Official salaries are small when measured by the social prominence and the spending needs of men in public life and official place. At the present time, in the United States, it is hard for many of these officials, whose families have social ambition, to live the lives of the official class in Germany, where there is so much prestige in the mere holding of public office,—such positions being for life,—that most of the officials are perfectly content to live modestly and simply, to work with zeal, to lead an intellectual life, to enjoy the society of people situated like themselves, and to await with certainty the old-age pensions that always come with retirement from public positions held faithfully and honestly. We cannot make our social, official, and economic life over upon the German model, or upon any other pattern; and we must work out our own salvation, both in public administration and in the business and social affairs of private life, under the conditions that we find prevailing here in the United States.

The President's Sound Moral Leadership.

It is good for us, therefore, on every account, that we should just now have at the head of our government so sturdy and incessant a preacher of the gospel of sound living for these times as President Roosevelt shows himself to be. His example to the young men of this country is of priceless worth. He is often called a man of luck and a man of destiny; but everything in the world that has ever come to him he has squarely earned by the hard work and the right living which have made him fit for occasions when

they have presented themselves. He was fortunate, perhaps, in having a modest fortune left to him by his father; but he would have made his way just the same without that early advantage. The possession of a reasonable amount of this world's goods is desirable, and that fact is recognized by most people of healthy mind and sound observation. But our American life is developing in such a way that here, henceforth, as in Europe, most things really worth having are becoming as accessible to people of moderate means as to the very rich. Let us hope that we are not mistaken in the signs that point toward a widespread revival of interest in the old-fashioned principles of honesty, whether in public or in private life. The country begins to show an increased degree of honor and deference to the public man who has served a long time, and has lived on his salary and not grown rich. In like manner, in the business world the man who has not made haste to be rich by questionable methods, but who has carried fine principles into his business affairs, reaps a sure and certain reward in the esteem of his fellow-men. And since, after all, the principles of honor and integrity lie at the foundation of our business life, there is no truth whatsoever in the notion that modern business cannot be carried on except by practising and conniving at dishonest methods.

The "Equitable" as a Moral.

The further revelations in the affairs of the Equitable Insurance Company have been used to advantage by the newspapers and all other agencies of public opinion in this country as a warning and a moral to enforce the principles of business integrity and honor. Apropos of this insurance situation, we promised our readers last month that in the near future we would undertake to publish a fair and just statement of the facts thus far brought to light in the Equitable investigation and the bearing of these facts upon the insurance business in general. This article will appear in the September number of the REVIEW. Meanwhile, it is merely to be said that Mr. Cleveland and his associate trustees, who are voting the Equitable stock in the interest of the policyholders, have been filling vacancies on the Equitable board with men of good repute not engaged in the carrying on of Wall Street enterprises. The question of bringing criminal actions against men guilty of profiting at the expense of the policyholders of the Equitable was under careful consideration last month by District Attorney Jerome. It was evident that the whole truth must come out, and also that the Equitable in the end would be run for its policyholders.

*Business
Conditions
Favorable.*

The Equitable disclosures are so related to other financial affairs that for a time they seemed considerably to disturb business at the financial center; but all this had been seemingly discounted last month, and the money markets and the economic life of the country were in a normal state. The reports of railway earnings were very favorable as compared with those of a year ago, every part of the country showing an increase of gross earnings, to an average extent of 6 per cent. Following the favorable railroad situation and the prosperous state of the iron and steel industries came the Government's general crop report, of the date of July 1, which was quite as satisfactory as there had been reason to expect, and which had its reassuring effect upon all lines of business. This year's wheat crop will have turned out probably more than one hundred million bushels in excess of that of last year. A great corn crop is anticipated. The crop of oats, when the record is finally made up, is likely to be the largest but one in the country's history; the barley crop will probably have broken the record, and the potato crop will also be the largest, excepting one, that the country has ever produced. The prices of staple products have been firm, and thus the farming community may well look forward to a favorable outcome of their efforts for the year 1905.

*The Business
Affairs
of Uncle Sam.*

Uncle Sam himself seems not to have had so lucky a year, if one merely considers the Treasury reports, inasmuch as the government expenses for the year ending June 30 exceeded its revenues by more than \$24,000,000. But these are mere matters of adjustment of taxation to the probable public needs, and the government reserves are always ample for such emergencies as a deficit like the present one. No government in the world can as easily as ours command all the money it requires for its legitimate objects. The Panama Canal will need a large outlay, but this should be looked upon as an investment rather than as an expense, and should be provided for by the issue of bonds, with the expectation that in the long run the income from the canal will pay the interest and provide a sinking fund for the paying off of the principal.

*The Canal
and Its
Direction.*

It is reported that with the War Department already so much occupied with Philippine affairs, as well as military matters, the oversight of the Panama Canal may be transferred, as a matter of convenience, to the State Department. If that arrangement should go into effect it would bring

about a somewhat curious result. It is well known that President Roosevelt, in reorganizing the Panama Commission, tried to secure the services of Mr. Elihu Root as chairman, and offered him a salary of \$100,000. Mr. Root declined to enter the service of the Government in that particular capacity. Now, however, he takes office as Secretary of State at a salary of \$8,000; and if the oversight of the Panama Canal be transferred to his department his relations to the canal work will become direct and important, so that all canal affairs will be reported to the President through the very man the President most desired for the direction of the undertaking. It will, of course, make no difference to Mr. Shonts as chairman, or to the other members of the commission, whether the affairs of the Isthmus are attached to the Department of War or to the Department of State.

*A New
Chief
Engineer.*

The most important of recent incidents connected with the canal has been the retirement of Mr. John F. Wallace. This occurred on June 28. Mr. Wallace had only recently returned to the Isthmus after having been in this country in consultation with the Government regarding the reorganization of the commission and the business of the canal. His wishes had been deferred to, and the official importance of his position had been enhanced under the new arrangement. There came to him, however, just at this time, a strong temptation in the form of an offer at a large salary to enter the Westinghouse employ in the promotion of street-railroad schemes. His resignation came at a time regarded by the Government as peculiarly inopportune. His desire to withdraw in the near future was met by a peremptory instruction to resign immediately, and there was visited upon him a scathing rebuke from Secretary Taft, couched in language of honest indignation, but too much in the tone of scolding to be wholly dignified. It is the tradition of public service in the United States that men retire at just about the moment when they feel like doing so. There are so many people who want office and who are everlastingly seeking it that not very many incumbents regard themselves as indispensable, or think of the retention of office as a matter of conscience and duty. Mr. Wallace went into the Panama Canal service chiefly, doubtless, for the great fame that would come to him from being the chief constructor of the world's greatest engineering project. Naturally, all of us who make newspapers and periodicals united in one grand chorus to give him publicity and fame, and forthwith there came a demand for



CHIEF ENGINEER JOHN F. STEVENS, OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

Mr. Stevens was born at Gardiner, Maine, fifty-two years ago. At the age of twenty-one he was assistant engineer of the city of Minneapolis. From that position he went into railroad work. He was continuously employed in the construction of Western roads for nearly a quarter of a century. His chief distinction in his profession was attained while he was chief engineer of the Great Northern, in locating the western extension of that road to the Pacific coast. He afterward went to the Rock Island system, and resigned the second vice-presidency of that line to undertake special work for the Government in connection with Philippine railroad construction.

his services by great corporation interests, at perhaps five times the salary he was drawing when Uncle Sam hired him to dig the canal. His resignation annoyed Mr. Taft because that worthy official was about starting on a long and difficult journey to the Philippines, for purposes of public duty, and had supposed, with good reason, that the Panama situation had at last, after much trouble, been so arranged as to run smoothly for a good while to come.

*Exit Wallace,
Enter
Stevens.* No one man, however, ever proves indispensable in the service of a great government like ours, and there are plenty of men who can dig the canal just as well as Mr. Wallace could, even though it might well be a little provoking that the Government was not fortunate enough to start in with a man who would stay long enough to accomplish something as a result of the preliminary experience and knowledge gained at the public expense. Mr.

John F. Stevens, an excellent engineer, who was to have gone with Mr. Taft to the Philippines to supervise the construction of the new railroads there, was willing to be diverted to the Panama job, and thus the place made vacant by Mr. Wallace has been filled to the satisfaction of those who are familiar with Mr. Stevens' abilities and career. General Hains and Mr. Harrod went promptly to the Isthmus to obtain the information which Mr. Wallace was supposed to possess but had not formulated for the benefit of the Government.

*Present
Canal
Problems.*

There was the more urgency for this because the international advisory board is to meet next month, to deliberate upon the larger engineering problems, such as the question of locks *versus* a sea-level canal, and so on. It is hoped that the conclusions of this advisory board may be ready to be laid before Congress next December. Certain newspapers have confused the public mind by stating that canal work is futile until such questions are decided. This is by no means true. Preliminary excavation can go on for a long period without disadvantage while the question of locks or no locks remains in suspense. There has been much talk of yellow fever on the Isthmus, but in reality the cases have been few. No one need fear, in this country, that we shall fail in the present effort to bring about a fairly healthful condition at the Isthmus through scientific sanitary methods.

*The
Labor
Question.*

The labor problem is one that the commission is working upon, and it was reported last month that it had been decided to test the relative capacity for work of Chinese, Italians, and Japanese by importing on a 500-day contract 2,000 laborers of each of these nationalities, this number being agreed upon as constituting one convenient shipload in each case. For these laborers the Government will provide housing accommodations and free medical attendance and hospitals. This plan can be tried at the Isthmus, because the immigration and labor laws of the United States do not apply there, and it is greatly to be hoped that the experiment may go on without too much adverse criticism on the part of those in the United States who, as representing the cause of American labor, would instinctively be opposed to the importation of Asiatics, and also to the contract system. It is to be remembered that the conditions on the Isthmus are peculiar and anomalous, and that no American labor in the proper sense would care to go there, with surroundings of life and work so much more

agreeable here at home. There is no use denying the fact that the most efficient way to build the canal would probably be to employ Chinese laborers and let them go back to China when the work is done. The Civic Federation has, in its so-called "Welfare Department," a happy thought which it is proceeding to carry out with its accustomed energy, and with the hearty approval of the Government. It is sending men to Panama to look into the whole question of the opportunities for recreation and those minor facilities that belong to the decencies and the comforts of the life of workingmen. Panama is devoid of attractions and proper opportunities for the employment of leisure time, and undoubtedly the work of the Civic Federation will be of much benefit.

*Chinese
Exclusion—
(1) The Higher
Class.*

Apropos of the question of Chinese labor on the Isthmus, it is worth while to note the great revival of the discussion of the exclusion of the Chinese from this country. A situation existed which had come to be so intolerable to the educated Chinese that they had begun to find a way very effectively to call our attention to the barbarity to which we have been subjecting them. The exclusion of Chinese laborers is one thing, and the visiting of indignities upon merchants, scholars, students, officials, and well-to-do personages who seek to come here for one purpose or another,—those purposes usually being for our own honor and profit,—is a very different thing. Yet our immigration and port officials have, as a rule, so construed the laws as to subject Oriental personages, with all their dignity and old-world culture, to the sort of treatment that belonged in the worst period before the war to the administration of the fugitive-slave laws. We have paused at nothing except the branding of these Chinese gentlemen with red-hot irons. Happily, President Roosevelt had ordered this thing stopped with a peremptoriness and a vigor that will have a good deal of effect. The boycotting of American goods in China, however, by the educated classes has already gone very far. Many of our people think of China as a land of ignorant coolies who are so inferior to ourselves as to rise scarcely to the plane of human beings. The fact is that China contains a greater number of educated and cultivated people than any other country in the world. Their culture is not like ours, but it is based upon long study of literature, ethics, and philosophy, and it has been transmitted through many generations. The Chinese have not well learned how to act together; otherwise we should never have dared to treat them recklessly and unfairly.

*Chinese
Exclusion—
(2) The
Laborers.*

The exclusion of common Asiatic labor from this country has rested upon a totally different principle. Such laborers did not come here to remain, or to become part and parcel of our body politic. Their injection in large numbers into our economic life was at a period when it wrought great disturbance of those conditions which were making for the well-being of the families of American workmen, who had a right to seek the maintenance of our customary American standards of living. It is now an open question whether or not conditions have not so greatly changed that it would not be to our advantage to permit some, if not a very large number, of Chinese laborers to come here to do the hard work that must be done if the Western part of this country is to go forward rapidly. The country as a whole will await the verdict of the Pacific coast States upon this question. Until the law is changed, there will, of course, be strict enforcement of the provisions against the immigration of Chinese laborers. But there must now be a fair and open discussion of the question whether the past reasons for such exclusion continue to hold good. The Chamber of Commerce of Portland, Ore., considers that the times have changed, and that "the Pacific coast is now no more in favor of exclusion than the middle West, the East, and the South." President Wheelwright, of that chamber, has

written an important statement of the chamber's views to President Roosevelt, which was made public on July 12. It is held in this statement that

Vast areas of territory on the Pacific coast are undeveloped at the present time, and will so remain under present labor conditions, whereas, with the influx of only a tithe of the immigration that is now coming in on the Atlantic coast, lands would be cleared and improved, public highways would be built in regions where there is an entire absence of good roads, and railroad construction would take on new activity. It cannot be fairly claimed that the Chinese would interfere with the American laborer in this work, because this work is not now performed by American or any other labor, save in the most limited way. It remains practically undone, and the doing of it would not only fail to affect injuriously the present satisfactory status of the American laborer, but would open wider and higher fields for his activity and improvement, prepared largely by those who, under any circumstances, will always hold second place to him.

*Portland
Argues for
Chinese Labor.*

These Portland gentlemen not only urge the need of Chinese labor to develop the country, but also plead that the merchants and business men of the Pacific coast are in imminent danger of losing their growing trade with China through the hostile action that the Chinese are now threatening. It is held that we have not been fair or reasonable toward China in our treaty relations. Mr. Wheelwright goes on to say that "it is argued by some that China does not wish to encourage the emigration of her subjects; but care should be taken to distinguish between the Peking government and the commercial guilds, which in many respects are more truly representative of the Chinese people." Finally, speaking for the Portland Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Wheelwright advocates a new treaty with China that shall give easy entrance here to the superior classes of Chinese, and that shall, further, during the next ten years permit the coming of Chinese laborers to such an extent that they shall not in any one year exceed in number one-tenth of 1 per cent. of the population of this country. Since we have about eighty millions of people, this Portland suggestion would give us about eighty thousand Chinese laborers a year, or eight hundred thousand in the aggregate at the end of the ten-year period, not allowing, however, for those who in the meantime would have returned. It is possible that arguments against Chinese labor in the United States may still be found to hold good; but the time seems to have arrived for a reconsideration of the subject on its pure merits as relating to existing facts and conditions. Let it be discussed calmly, since there is much to be said on both sides.



"THE HEATHEN CHINESE IS PECULIAR."

He has some cards up his sleeve. Will he play them?

From the Times (Minneapolis).

Mr. Bristow on the Panama Railroad. Hon. Joseph L. Bristow, who conducted the investigation of the postal frauds when Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, was made a special Panama Railroad commissioner when he left the Post-Office Department. He was instructed to make a report upon the Panama Railroad and its relation to steamship companies and to the services it might be fairly expected to render to the commercial world. Mr. Bristow has made a most interesting and admirable report, which has been transmitted to the President by Secretary Taft with high praise. To start with, our readers must remember that the United States Government acquired the Panama Railroad when it bought the canal zone, and that our government is in actual ownership and operation of this line connecting the ports of Colon on the Atlantic side and Panama on the Pacific. Heretofore, this little single-track line of 47 miles has served exclusively a steamship line from New York to Colon, which has been a part of its own property. It has not served steamship lines from other United States ports on the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico side. On the Pacific side, it has maintained an exclusive contract with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, sailing to San Francisco, and its facilities have not been open to other steamship companies serving other Pacific Ocean ports. Furthermore, in former years the Panama Railroad Company was really run in the interest of the pool of transcontinental railroads in the United States, which is said to have paid that company a large sum of money every month for the privilege of fixing its rates so that it might not be a disadvantageous competitor.

Some Pointed Recommendations. Mr. Bristow's recommendations are lucid and important. Inasmuch as the United States Government is building the canal for the service of national and international traffic on equal terms to all comers, he holds that the Government must, in consistency, operate the railroad upon the same principle. He advises, therefore, that the road be promptly double-tracked and improved, that its facilities be open to steamships from the Gulf ports and elsewhere, and that its exclusive contract with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company be at once abolished. He suggests that if this Pacific steamship line should withdraw its service, the Panama Railroad ought to operate, on the Pacific, a line of its own corresponding to the line it now operates on the Atlantic. He further calls attention to the fact that the Mexican railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is almost ready to be opened, running

from Salina Cruz, on the Pacific, to Coatzacoalcas, on the Atlantic, at which places fine harbors are being constructed, with wharves and warehouses, and with the best facilities for handling freight from ship to cars and from cars to ship. There seems to be good sense in his proposal that instead of our waiting for the completion of the canal we should at once begin to make the largest possible use of the Isthmus, through the development of the railroad, for American and foreign traffic. Mr. Bristow's talent for investigation,—so well demonstrated in his unearthing of the post-office frauds,—has thus been applied a second time to the advantage of the Government.

Uncle Sam's Business Projects. The work of such trained administrators becomes ever more needful with the expansion of the Government's functions as well as with its territorial growth; for the acquisition of the Panama strip has, perforce, put Uncle Sam into the business of operating an important railroad, together with an ocean steamship line, while conditions in the Philippines have compelled our government to lay out, finance, and promote a railroad system in that far-away archipelago. These new enterprises, however, will remain small affairs when compared with the great business Uncle Sam carries on in his transmission of the letters, newspapers, and periodicals of the American people. So immense and complex is the postal service that no man understands it altogether. Thus, it is remarked at Washington that Mr. Madden, the Third Assistant Postmaster-General, is the only man who understands the laws, rules, and regulations relating to the carrying of second-class mail matter,—that is to say, of regularly entered newspapers and periodicals. But Mr. Madden himself confesses that there are some things he does not understand, so obscured by technical rulings has the business become. The revision of the postal laws is one of the most important pieces of work that lies before Congress for the early future. Meanwhile, however, it would be a great mistake to disparage carelessly the vast administrative machine that Postmaster-General Cortelyou is learning how to direct.

A Detail of Post-Office Work. A little side-light upon the problems of the postal service is contained in some correspondence between this office and the Postmaster-General last month. A subscriber to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS in Nome, Alaska, had written complaining of the failure of the postal service to bring periodicals to that distant quarter. The editor forwarded

the letter to Mr. Cortelyou, and within a week received from him an accurate account,—uncommonly interesting as it is,—of the conditions under which the Government undertakes to provide the scattered settlements in Alaska with mail matter from the United States. Omitting a preliminary sentence or two, Mr. Cortelyou's letter reads as follows :

In reply, I have to say that during the open season of navigation in Alaskan waters the department undertakes to receive and transport any weight of any class of matter to nearly all Alaskan post-offices, and the same is true also during the winter time as to those post-offices on the southern coast which can be reached by steamers at that season. But during the winter the difficulties attending transportation to interior Alaskan offices are so great that it has been necessary to place some limitation on the weight of mail to be carried. It must be remembered that in the winter time such mails must be carried on sleds drawn almost exclusively by dogs, or by reindeer in a few instances, and that, too, in a climate where the thermometer goes down to fifty degrees below zero, or lower. A few years ago, when the department first undertook to send mail to Nome and other western Alaskan points in the winter, the only feasible route was from Seattle, Wash., to Skagway, Alaska, by steamer, thence across Canadian territory, *via* Dawson, to Eagle, Alaska (a part of which was by dog-sled), and thence from Eagle, near the eastern boundary line, to Nome, on the western coast, by dog-sled. The cost of such transportation is very considerable. If we give no consideration to the cost of carrying mail by railroad from New York City to Seattle, 3,235 miles, or by steamer from Seattle to Skagway, 1,000 miles, or from Skagway to Eagle, most of this across Canadian territory, about 600 miles, and have regard only to that part of the haul which is entirely on Alaskan soil from Eagle to Nome, 1,163 miles, all of which must be covered by dogs, with a limit of about 400 pounds per trip, we find that the cost is \$3 per pound. Of course, you are aware that the revenue which the department receives for carrying magazines and newspapers from publishers in New York to subscribers in Nome, a distance of about 6,000 miles, is one cent per pound.

However, very marked progress has been made in the mail facilities for western Alaskan points since the service was begun, a few years ago. It was soon found that, in addition to the unavoidable difficulties, this service was further hampered by the limited amount of mail for which transportation could be obtained across the Canadian soil, and that an all-American route was desirable. When the War Department sent out an expedition to determine as to the feasibility of a military trail from Valdez, on the southern coast, to Eagle, near the eastern boundary, an agent of the Post-Office Department accompanied the party, and shortly after their trip was completed a mail route was established between those points, a distance of about 450 miles, which brought some relief to the offices in the eastern part of Alaska. Later, in the summer of 1903, this department sent its agent to explore as to the feasibility of a more direct route from the Copper River country to Tanana, at the confluence of the Yukon and Tanana rivers ; and as a result of this investigation a mail route was established for the following winter from Valdez to Tanana,

620 miles. This service was somewhat experimental, but it met with sufficient success to warrant the department—in the following winter, 1904-05—in increasing the trips and the weight of mail to be carried, so that during that winter, for the first time, we were able to send, in addition to the letter mail, a limited quantity of newspaper mail for Yukon and western Alaskan points. The cost of carrying mail from Valdez to Nome over this route and connecting routes, a distance of about 1,183 miles, entirely by dog-sleds, is \$4.07 a pound. Contracts have already been arranged for next winter, 1905-06, under which provision has been made for carrying a still larger quantity of mail, which will provide for carrying an increased quantity of newspapers, and probably some magazines.

I think it will thus be seen that we are making some progress in this matter, and it is the intention of the department to further improve the mail facilities for all Alaskan post-offices as rapidly as the unusual conditions prevailing there shall permit.

In many phases, the great business of educating the young people of the United States in this summer-vacation period has had its due attention by reason of conventions, public addresses, large gifts, and the like. Undoubtedly the most important single announcement of recent weeks in the sphere of educational effort has been the gift in one lump sum of \$10,000,000 by Mr. John D. Rockefeller to the General Education Board for the promotion of education in the United States. While no conditions whatsoever are attached by Mr. Rockefeller to this gift,—the largest single offering ever made at one time for education, with the exception of Mr. Carnegie's equal gift to the trustees of the Carnegie Institution at Washington,—it was understood to be the policy of the board, with the acquiescence of Mr. Rockefeller, in the acceptance of this gift, to use it mainly for the advancement of education of college grade in all parts of the country, by methods to be systematized and put into effect in the early future. This board was organized some three years ago, and obtained a charter at the hands of Congress. It began its existence then with a gift of a million dollars from Mr. Rockefeller, to be spent for promoting education in the South. The work of the board has been highly useful, its first president having been the late William H. Baldwin, Jr., who was succeeded by Mr. Robert C. Ogden. Dr. Wallace Buttrick has from the beginning been the executive officer of the board, and has maintained an office which now contains an extensive and accurate collection of data touching the conditions of education in almost every portion of the South. Mr. Rockefeller's new gift enables the board to extend its efforts to all parts of the country, and Mr. Starr J. Murphy will share with Dr. Buttrick, on the plan of a division of

*A gift of
\$10,000,000
for Colleges.*



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MR. JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER.

territory, the responsible work of executing the business of this great trust for education. The board will endeavor to do its work so usefully that Mr. Rockefeller and others may some time in the future be inclined to use it as the agency through which to make further large gifts to the cause of American education.

A Question of Ethics. Composed as it is of men having at heart the welfare of the country, this board received Mr. Rockefeller's gift with great satisfaction and with high hope of using it for profoundly useful ends. As it now stands, this sum of \$10,000,000 belongs, not to Mr. Rockefeller, but to the cause of American education. Those who criticise it as

in some manner not fit to be received for such ends, because of its original donor's connection with the Standard Oil Company, are not to be deprived of their right of opinion, yet they do not stand upon tenable ground. There is no more reason why Mr. Rockefeller's money should not be given to education through the General Education Board than why it should not be given to the cause of public schools through taxes levied against Mr. Rockefeller personally or against the widely distributed property of the corporations in which he is a stockholder. There should be no sense of obligation to the donor on the part of the educational institutions that receive gifts of money for their work. The only obligation that sensible and conscientious

men can feel when money for schools or for benevolent work is placed in their hands is the obligation that rests upon them to use such money well in doing the work for which they have received it. Men who as trustees or other officers of a college think they receive a favor when they take money for the education of young Americans are of confused mind, and in some respects unequal to their responsibilities.

Social Wealth and Its Right Use. In our opinion, it should be Mr. Rockefeller's purpose to distribute far greater sums than he has yet given for purposes of general use. Whether or not the business methods of his companies have been unfair, it is the wealth produced by the efforts of his fellow-citizens all over the country that has, through a peculiar combination of economic conditions, somehow been poured into his private coffers. Under different or wiser conditions, no man could possibly have acquired such wealth as that which Mr. Rockefeller now possesses. The best thing that men so situated can do is actively to promote the tendency,—a natural and healthful tendency in a country of equality such as our country is,—to a more normal diffusion of benefits and a wider distribution of prosperity. Let everybody, therefore, welcome great gifts such as this one to the General Education Board, and hope that what Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Rockefeller are doing to distribute their possessions may go forward in the hands of both of them at an accelerated pace, and that many other men of wealth may set themselves seriously to like tasks. Let them try to distribute a good part of their possessions, while also helping to bring about conditions in the world of business and in the realm of law under which it will no longer be feasible for so much of the wealth created by the united efforts of the whole industrial community to be diverted to the private coffers of a few.

The British Parliament. Premier Balfour has announced that there will be no early dissolution of Parliament, and intimates that the close of the session will not occur before September 1. This postponement of the government's fate is possible, even despite the constant losses in the by-elections. A political *coup* which will strengthen the present government and correspondingly weaken the opposition was attempted early in July by the presentation in the Commons of a resolution embodying a government scheme to redistribute the seats in Parliament. Such a redistribution has been needed for some time, owing to changes in the population. The scheme proposed does not

alter the total membership of the House materially, but redistributes the representation in such a manner that England will gain 17 seats, Scotland 4, and Wales 1, while Ireland will lose 22. Of course, the opposition will fight the scheme. Meanwhile, British political circles are wrought up over the Butler report on the South African army scandal and the almost certain passage of the aliens bill. The last half of the present session of Parliament has been under the Speakership of Mr. James William Lowther, who succeeds Mr. Gully, the latter having been retired with a peerage and a pension. Mr. Lowther is the first Conservative Speaker the House has known for many years. He has been chairman of a number of committees, and has always served acceptably. The Speaker of the House of Commons, it will be remembered, does not retire with the defeat of his party, but remains in office as long as his inclination and health permit.

Army Scandals and Immigration. An army scandal of large proportions in South Africa has been uncovered in pitiless detail by Sir William Butler's report. Briefly, it consisted of a clever scheme on the part of some British officers by which, when the Boer war was over, some millions of pounds' worth of military stores were sold by the government to contractors at a nominal price and immediately bought back by the government from the same contractors at a very high price, there having been no need to buy or sell them at all. A number of high army officials have been implicated. Some of these officials were so high in the war office that the present government is accused of having attempted to hush up the scandal. It is expected, however, that prosecution of the offenders will follow. This, coming at a time when Field Marshal Lord Roberts, in a recent speech in the House of Lords, deliberately expressed his opinion as a practical soldier that the military force of Great Britain is inadequate, imperfectly trained, and totally unfit to uphold Great Britain as a first-class power, has made our transatlantic cousins very uneasy. The aliens bill, which is a government measure, will make a radical change in the policy of England toward immigration from Continental Europe. England has always been an open country, and she owes her preëminence in more than one industry to the large number of Flemings and Huguenots who came to her from the Continent in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Up to the present, an immigrant arriving on English shores has been subject to no examination and asked no questions. The rapid increase in immigration, par-

ticularly of Russian and Polish Jews, who crowd into the cities, particularly the East End of London, has recently, however, so complicated urban living problems of England that some immigration restriction has become necessary. Generally speaking, the aliens bill is patterned on the American immigration code. New-comers who cannot prove that they are self-sustaining, mentally capable, and that they have not been convicted of any crime, will be deported under much the same conditions as they would be from the United States.

Norway, Sweden, and the Kaiser.

Despite rumors of war based on perfectly intelligible mobilization orders issued by the Swedish and Norwegian governments, the situation in the Scandinavian peninsula has cleared considerably during the past month, and it is now as certain as any future event can ever be that, whatever the future relations of the two countries, Norway will not be compelled by Sweden to reënter the union on its old terms. King Oscar has accepted the loss of half his realm with philosophic resignation, and has declared, in words of dignity, that "A union to which both parties do not give their free and willing consent would be of no real advantage to either." Furthermore, the dissolution is declared complete in the royal address to the Riksdag, which assembled in extraordinary session, on June 23, to deal with the crisis, in the paragraph which says:

But Sweden is averse to coercing Norway into its maintenance, which could only be done by force of arms and by a fratricidal war. Besides, in those conditions the union, established in the interests of peace and mutual support, would lose its very *raison d'être*. Sweden would, therefore, rather consent to its dissolution than have to force Norway to remain in the union against her will.

The offer of the Norwegian crown to Prince Charles of Denmark, grandson of the Danish King, who married an English princess, made early in July, has been accepted so far as the Danish ruling family is concerned, and seems not likely to meet with opposition by Sweden. The international significance of the new status in Scandinavia is emphasized by the recent trip of Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany to Sweden, during which, it is rumored, the possibility of a Swedish-German alliance was discussed. The projected visit of the German Emperor to Copenhagen is thought, in some quarters, to indicate that the Kaiser is endeavoring to detach Denmark from her old political and dynastic alliance with England by aiding in the accession of a Danish prince to the Norwegian throne, the Kaiser's ulterior motive, according



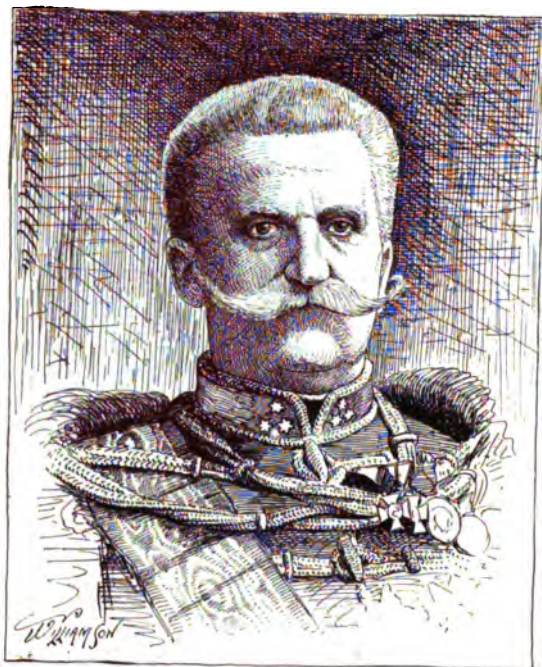
PRINCE CHARLES OF DENMARK.

(Who has been offered the crown of Norway.)

to the political prophets, being the complete cutting off of Russia from the Baltic.

Cabinet Changes in Spain and Holland.

Similar political combinations have been responsible for the fall of the Spanish and Dutch cabinets, although the causes in the case of Spain were chiefly economic, while those in Holland were ecclesiastical and sociological. In two years, Spain has seen six ministries, all Conservative, and differing only in minor details of policy. Now the Villaverde cabinet, which has been in power only since last January, is discredited by a large majority of the Cortes. Questions of tariff and finance and a conciliatory attitude on the Moroccan question were the causes of Signor Villaverde's downfall. King Alfonso summoned the Liberal leader, Gen. Montero Rios, who succeeded in forming a cabinet including General Weyler as minister of war. In the latter part of June the quadrennial Dutch elections took place, and the campaign was a brisk one between Liberals and Conservatives, resulting in a victory for the former, who had combined with the Anti-revolutionists. The latter party includes Calvinists, Roman Catholics, and other very diverse elements. Dr. Abraham Kuyper, Calvinist preacher, head of the State Church,



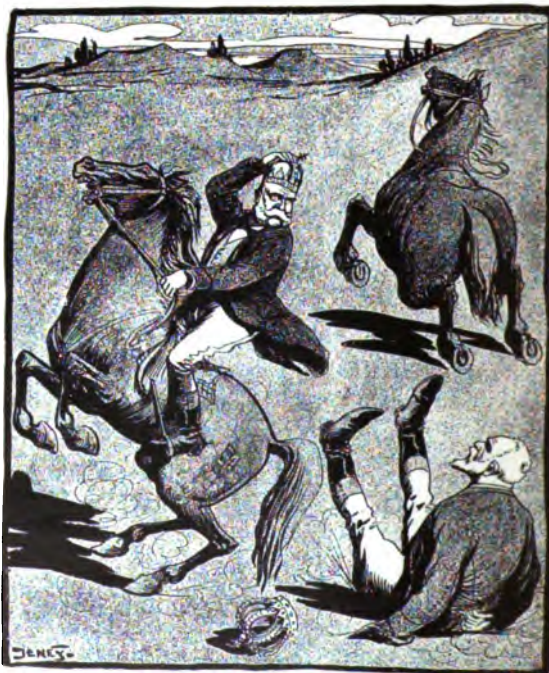
BARON GEZA FEJERVARY, HUNGARIAN PREMIER.

("Representing an unparliamentary, unconstitutional situation which will be soon ended by the passive resistance of the Magyars.")

professor, scholar, and editor, steps out, charged with a do-nothing policy. Dr. Kuyper has won praise for his handling of the great strike of 1901, for holding his country strictly to its neutrality during the Boer war, and for the nationalization of the free university at Amsterdam. In the matter of tariffs and the management of the Java rebellion, he has been criticised. Mr. de Beaufort, former minister of foreign affairs, is the recognized leader in the second chamber, and is likely to become premier.

While not exactly parallel situations, there is sufficient similarity in the relations of Austria-Hungary to those of Norway and Sweden recently terminated to furnish a good deal of speculation in political and journalistic circles as to the early possibility of Hungary breaking away from Austria. The tension in the dual monarchy, while relaxed somewhat, is by no means ended. Baron Fejervary, the new premier, who has announced himself as only a temporary official to finish routine work before the assembling of the Budapest parliament in September, has been rebuffed by the Hungarian Diet, which in the first week of July passed a vote of no confidence. It is a strange situation. The Fejervary cabinet is op-

posed to the coalition majority, it being, according to their idea, both unparliamentary and unconstitutional. If the Emperor-King persists in his refusal to grant the Hungarian demands and orders new elections, he will no doubt find himself in a worse position than he is in at present. It is to be regretted that he cannot accept the situation frankly, hard as it is, in the way King Oscar of Sweden has done. Count Apponyi's discussion of the Hungarian demands on another page of this issue (203) shows how impossible it is to ever completely reconcile the Austrian and Magyar conceptions of the union. The difference is fundamental. Austria, like Sweden, has evolved from the monarchic idea of privileges granted to the people from the ruler. Hungary's evolution has been from the democratic idea of powers conceded to the government by the people. The trouble began when the people of Hungary elected the Emperors of Austria, and their lineal descendants, Kings of Hungary. The Hapsburg dynasty has always aimed at the creation of a strong, centralized Austrian power. The Hungarian idea, however, will become clear to Americans if they can imagine Mexico enacting a law making the Presidents of the United States, in succession, Presidents of Mexico, to



FRANCIS JOSEPH: "I am sure I thought, Oscar, that you were a much better rider."

OSCAR: "Look out for yourself; your horse, Hungary, is getting balky."

From *Boland Zatul* (Budapest).

exercise in Mexico only such powers as are conferred on the Mexican President by the Mexican constitution. The Hungarians believe that their policy of passive resistance will win in the end.

*The End
of the
Concordat.*

After more than three months' work, the French Chamber of Deputies has passed, amid great excitement, a bill for the separation of Church and State, by a vote of 341 to 233. The measure is practically certain to pass the Senate. This measure is a somewhat more reasonable one than that brought in by M. Combes, and which resulted in his resignation of the premiership. It provides for the continued support of the clergy (Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Hebrew) now receiving subsidies from the state, but allows no support for their successors, so that gradually the subventions will disappear. The churches and other places of worship are to belong to the state, but they are to be leased to congregations consisting of the churches or denominations now worshipping in them. This will bring the Catholic Church in France into much the same relation to the government as it bears to the government of this country. In France, however, the government control will be much closer, and the authorities will have the right to suppress any church meetings that they may regard as prejudicial to public order. This is a practical abrogation of the Concordat, which has for over a century limited the powers of the Pope in France and acted as a powerful influence in opposition to the Church. This measure of separation, as constituted at present, is satisfactory neither to the Roman Catholic reactionaries nor to the Socialistic freethinkers, but it will probably satisfy the majority of the French people, who, while not opposed to the Church, are in favor of its separation from the state.

*The Pope's
Temporal
Power.*

More than one evidence has come during the present summer that Pope Pius X. is becoming more and more imbued with the modern spirit. Not only has the "Prisoner of the Vatican" expressed his desire to take his summer rest outside of Rome, in the mountains of the north, but reports from the Italian capital on reliable authority announce that his Holiness has issued an encyclical permitting, and even advising, Catholic voters to take part in future parliamentary elections, and, still more remarkable, has indirectly inquired of the Italian Government whether it is inclined to pay the arrears of the subsidy offered to the Pope by the Guarantee Law of 1871. For thirty years,—ever since the occupation of the Holy City by the Italian troops, after the for-

mal establishment of the Italian Kingdom,—the Vatican has adhered to the irreconcilable position of Pius IX. This pontiff, in his famous encyclical "*non expedit*," forbade the Catholic voters registered in the kingdom of Italy to be either "elected or electors," and, as a further expression of Papal refusal to recognize the "usurping government's authority," he indignantly refused the annual appropriation (\$645,000) for the maintenance of the Papal court. His successor, Leo XIII., adhered to this policy unswervingly. Pius X., however, discerns the signs of the times. It has been said that there are three great powers in Italy,—the Church, the monarchy, and socialism. The Vatican has come to the conclusion that the last, which is held responsible for the breaking away from the Concordat in France, is a more dangerous enemy of the Church than the monarchy. The Quirinal itself fears socialism, which is so strong in the Italy of to-day, and desires the Catholic voter to support it. At the last general elections, many Catholics, despite the Papal prohibition, participated in the elections. This encyclical simply authorizes what is already a fact. In view of the agreement of both Vatican and Quirinal, therefore, on the desirability of combating socialism, it seems probable that not only will Catholic citizens hereafter take part in the national and local elections, but that the government of Rome will, in the end, hand over to the Pope the arrearages (now amounting to some \$22,000,000) in the annuity which was voted by the Law of Guarantees thirty years ago.

*France,
Germany, and
Morocco.*

Having been assured that her special interests in Morocco would be safeguarded, and that no attempt would be made to discuss the Franco-English and Franco-Spanish compacts of last year, France consented, early in July, to participate in an international conference. Germany, on her part, announced that the conference is not directed in opposition to any of the treaties or engagements of France. This agreement is regarded as both a German and a French triumph, according to the standpoint from which it is viewed. M. Delcassé, whose resignation was brought about because of his attitude on this very Moroccan question, in the course of a recent interview published in the *Gaulois*, strongly advised his countrymen to adhere to and strengthen their agreement with England. Germany, he intimated, is the irreconcilable enemy of the republic, and, since Russia has been weakened, an alliance of France with Great Britain would insure, not only the safety of the republic, but the peace of Europe.



From the New York Tribune.

A VIEW OF THE HARBOR OF ODESSA, SHOWING THE CITY HALL TO THE RIGHT.

The story of the mutinous battleship *Prince Potemkin Tavritchesky*, at Odessa, reads like some melodrama of the sea. For more than a week the *Potemkin*, a fine battleship of 12,000 tons, a speed of $17\frac{1}{2}$ knots, with twelve guns and a crew of more than 800 men,—perhaps the finest warship remaining to Russia,—held the entire Black Sea fleet in a state of terror and roamed at will from Russian to Roumanian and Turkish ports. On June 28, while the city of Odessa was in a state of open revolt, with the troops fighting rioters behind barricades in the streets, the *Potemkin* sailed into the harbor flying the red flag. A body of marines with field guns landed and placed on the dock the corpse of one of their fellow-sailors who, they declared, had been shot by the captain because he had protested against the quality of food served to the crew. Under penalty of bombarding the city, the sailors demanded that their dead comrade should have the honors of a military funeral. The revolutionists on shore joined with the mutineers, and an imposing public funeral was actually granted, including a procession. As there were no warships in the harbor and the troops were engaged in quelling the riots, the authorities were unable to deal with the situation. The soldiers fired on and killed hundreds of the mob, who were revolting against general economic conditions, but particularly against the mobilization. In retaliation, many ships lying at anchor in the harbor, and

many buildings, including government structures, were burned. The loss to the city during the riots is estimated at \$10,000,000. Odessa is Russia's chief seaport, and the fourth city, in size, in the empire, with a population of half a million. It is the center of the grain trade for southern Russia, and in its harbor are trading ships of all nations.

After firing a few shots, because of an attempt by the authorities to seize the mutineers on shore, the *Potemkin* left the docks, but remained with her guns trained on the city. Admiral Chouknin, commander of the Black Sea fleet, then in St. Petersburg, at once telegraphed to Admiral Krüger, who was at Sebastopol, to proceed at once to Odessa with warships. The report that the *Potemkin* had surrendered was followed by the announcement that the crew of another battleship, the *Georgi Pobiyedonosetz*, had joined in the mutiny, declining to obey Admiral Krüger's orders to proceed to Sebastopol. The Russian commander, finding all his crews mutinous, decided to dismantle the entire fleet, and some of the men were actually sent ashore and the vessels temporarily put out of commission. Meanwhile, the *Potemkin* was at large, and had proceeded to Kustenji, a port in Roumania, where she coaled and revictualled. The entire available naval force of the Black Sea had been sent in pursuit of her, one torpedo-boat destroyer

The Mutinous Battleship "Potemkin."

Spread of the Mutiny.

following the mutinous battleship into the Roumanian harbor. Orders had been given to sink her without parley, but the spirit of disaffection among the entire naval force in Russia's southern waters had rendered this impossible. While in Kustenji, the authorities on the *Potemkin* (reported to be a committee, under the command of one Matuchenko, appointed by the revolutionists) handed to the prefect a proclamation to the powers, declaring war on all Russian vessels refusing to join them, and announcing that they intended to respect neutral territory and shipping. The proclamation further declared:

"The decisive struggle against the Russian Government has begun. We consider it to be our duty to declare that we guarantee the complete inviolability of foreign ships navigating the Black Sea, as well as the inviolability of foreign ports." No attempt was made to interfere with foreign shipping, although one Italian collier was seized and her cargo immediately appropriated.



VICE-ADMIRAL BIRILEY.

(Who succeeds Admiral Avellan as Russian minister of marine).

Collapse of Russia's Navy. The *Potemkin* then left Roumanian waters and sailed into the Crimean port of Theodosia, where she received more supplies. It was then learned that a torpedo boat had also mutinied with her and was following her fortunes. Several days later, the *Potemkin*, having successfully eluded all the naval force that Russia could muster in the Black Sea, again returned to Kustenji. There she surrendered to the Roumanian authorities and was by them handed over to Admiral Krüger (not, however, before the mutinous crew had opened her sea-cocks and sunk her in shallow water), the seamen delivering themselves over to the Roumanian Government as foreign deserters. Ac-



THE BLACK SEA LITTORAL.

(Showing the points touched at by the *Potemkin* in her "pirate" cruise.)

cording to reports in London papers, thirty of the crew of the battleship who surrendered to the Russian authorities were shot as mutineers. Technically, these men are pirates, but as they refrained from depredations upon any but Russian vessels and commerce, and, moreover, as the mutiny has spread to Reval, Cronstadt, Libau, and Riga, and was the result of the workings of a secret revolutionary organization, it may be doubted whether they were not waging legitimate warfare. The second vessel, the *Georgi Pobedonosetz*, soon afterwards surrendered to the authorities, and, so far as the naval force in the Black Sea was concerned, the mutiny was over. Russia's power in the Black Sea, however, is utterly destroyed, and, while something like quiet has been restored in Odessa, the situation in the middle of July was still critical, and bloodshed, pillage, and plunder had not ceased. The entire district had been declared under martial law. There could be little doubt that the whole agitation in the Black Sea and Baltic ports was organized by the revolutionists, as were also the riots among the reservists at Kiev and other points. It is beginning to look as though, after all, Russian bayonets could not be trusted. The autocracy now relies upon the troops, and the troops alone. It can no longer trust the slender remnants of its navy. How much longer will it be able to trust the troops? The navy has practically gone over to the enemy, and the insurrectionary chiefs are devoting all their energies to seducing the army. All this while the government dallies with paper reform schemes, and the bureaucracy calmly proceeds to deny the application of any of the Czar's promises of reform. Dr. Dillon's article on the progress

of the revolution (on page 197) is a graphic presentation of the Czar's attitude toward his Liberal subjects,—“the tinsel of promise, not the gold of achievement.”

*Progress of
the Russian
Revolution.*

Riot and mutiny, bloodshed and disorder, have become so much the order of the day throughout Russia that the killing of three thousand people in Łódź and two thousand in Warsaw by the Cossacks has come to be referred to in official reports as a minor affair. All Poland and the Caucasus are aflame with industrial war, which may at any moment become political revolt. Rioters have been fighting behind barricades in the streets of Warsaw and Łódź, and meanwhile the mobilization of troops goes on. Again, says the *Slovo*, the popular St. Petersburg daily—“again the tears of our wives and children; again mobilization, passive, mechanical obedience to orders which are not understood and not explained; again fields abandoned just before the harvests; again fresh burdens for the impoverished,—and so our mute discontent grows apace!” The jails of Warsaw and Odessa are reported to be filled to the bursting, while starving peasants roam the fields of western and southern Russia, pillaging



GENERAL MAXIMOVITCH, GOVERNOR OF WARSAW.
(He has made a sanguinary record in “repressing disorder.”)

and destroying. The majority of the landed proprietors of the south are reported to be voluntarily conceding to the revolutionary peasants one-third of their harvests, and in many instances of their live stock, also. Reports of widespread mutiny in the army are frequent, and an examination of the Russian journals shows that the murder of small police officials is so frequent that the Associated Press has ceased to record them. Early in July, Count Shuvalov, prefect of the Moscow police, was assassinated, and several days later a large quantity of dynamite was discovered near the palace in Moscow, in which the Czar, it was reported, was planning to stay during his visit.

*The Czar
and
His People.*

At the presentation of the delegation of Moscow zemstvoists to the Czar, late in June, Prince Troubetskoi, of Moscow University, denounced the bureaucracy, and appealed to the Czar in these words:

Cease to give heed to their intrigues; summon the people's elect; listen to them; therein lies our only hope of escape from civil war and a shameful peace. You alone can unite Russia again.

Instead of taking offense at such plain-spoken sentiments, the Emperor replied, in a strain which shows his native goodness of heart, as follows:

I am firmly convinced that Russia will emerge strengthened from the trials she is undergoing, and that there will be established soon, as formerly, a union between the Czar and all Russia, a communion between myself and the men of Russian soil. This union and communion must serve as a basis for the order of things—stand for the original principles of Russia. I have faith in your sincere desire to help me in the task.

“My will,” the Czar continued, “is the sovereign and unalterable will, and the admission of elected representatives to works of state will be regularly accomplished. I watch every day and devote myself to this work.”

*The
Bureaucracy
Intervenes.*

A few days later, however, while the zemstvoists were rejoicing over the Emperor's words, the minister of the interior issued a statement denying the inferences of several of the journals that the Czar had promised a constitutional assembly like those of other nations,

whereas it was clearly shown by the Emperor's words that the conditions of such a convocation were to be based on an order of things responding to Russian autocratic principles, and his majesty's words contain absolutely not the least indication of the possibility of modifying the fundamental laws of the empire.

Newspapers are prohibited from publishing any but the official version, and from drawing from

it any unwarranted deductions. This is in line with the regular procedure of the bureaucracy, which admits the truth of his majesty's promises but denies their application in any special case. Not a single reform mentioned in the ukase of December 25, last, has as yet become a law. The Committee of Ministers has decided, according to the *Official Messenger*, that the rescript of March 3, declaring the Czar's intention to convoke representatives of the nation, does not affect the question of legislative unity, which remains, as now, dependent entirely upon the Czar's will. As Dr. Dillon points out, in his review of the situation in another portion of this REVIEW, the bureaucracy is identical with the autocracy, and it is not bent on suicide.

The Coming Assembly of the People.

Owing to an alleged plot among the Liberal leaders to depose the Czar and substitute a regency for the little Czarevitch by four grand dukes, the long-looked-for zemstvo congress of all Russia, set for July 19, was forbidden. Even the reactionaries are beginning to distrust the Emperor, whom they reproach for excessive weakness and incompetence. They demand a stronger ruler, who will be able to keep the reformers in check. The congress met, however, and without police interference. It had been hoped that the Czar would go to Moscow himself to open the congress and proclaim a representative assembly. Yielding to the fears of the reactionaries, however, at the last moment Emperor Nicholas declined. The congress was fairly representative, as it contained delegates, not only from the zemstvos themselves, but from the dumas, or municipal assemblies, scattered all over the empire. Count Heyden, the eminent Liberal, presided, and 284 elected delegates attended, besides more than 50 prominent reformers and half-a-dozen reporters. The suggested municipal assembly of Minister of the Interior Bulyghin was voted unsatisfactory, and, according to the correspondent of the *London Standard*, the discussion of a constitution was begun. This instrument, the correspondent declares further, is based on the British constitution, with occasional suggestions from the French. In substance it is as follows:

It leaves the Czar in command of the armed forces, the right of veto without any expressed limitation on the prerogatives of a sovereign. It proposes the formation of a cabinet on the British model, the Czar summoning a kanzler, or prime minister, and appointing the other ministers according to the premier's selection. The national finances are placed under the control of the chambers, whose members will have the right to impeach the ministers. The legislature is to fix the succession to the throne, and foreign treaties are to be controlled by the chambers. The right of legislation



THE FIELD OF THE LATEST MILITARY DEVELOPMENTS IN THE FAR EAST.

rests with the chambers alone, and all men are equally subject to the law of the land. Special paragraphs abolish the passport system, the scrutiny of correspondence, and the censorship. The budget is to be passed, first in the national assembly, and then accepted by the zemski sobor before it is presented to the Czar. The election regulations provide for 840 members, representing the whole empire, without distinction of creed or race. There will be, roughly, one representative for each 150,000 of the population.

The Japanese Invade Siberia.

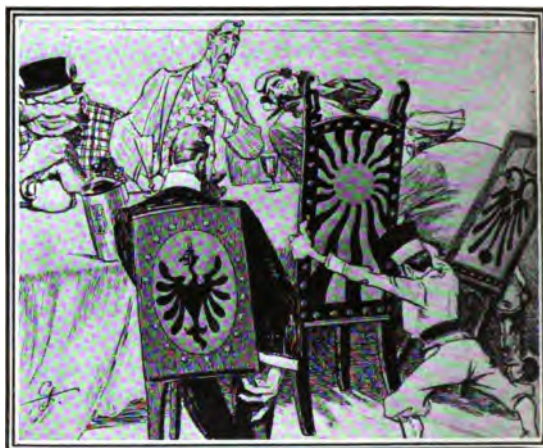
Despite General Linevich's cheerful assurances to St. Petersburg that he is ready to advance, and the reported protests of his generals against peace negotiations, even such a chauvinistic journal as the *Russky Invalid*, the organ of the Russian army, has admitted that there is little hope for a Russian victory. While Linevich is estimated to have not more than 400,000 men with him, the six combined Japanese armies under Marshal Oyama (those of Kuroki, Oku, Nodzu, Nogi, Kawamura, and Hasegawa) are estimated to number at least 550,000, and probably more

than 600,000. Many reports had been circulated in the newspapers to the effect that the Japanese enveloping movement had progressed sufficiently to isolate and cut off Vladivostok, but, up to the middle of July, this was not clear. Two points, however, were certain. A small force, assisted by the cruisers and gunboats of Admiral Kataoka, on July 7 landed on the island of Saghalien, at the chief town and fortified post of Korsakovsk. After a brief encounter, the Russians fled, leaving the entire south of the island in the hands of the Japanese. This marks the first entry upon Russian territory proper. On July 17, General Linevich reported that the Japanese had landed troops on the shores of Olga Bay, one hundred and fifty miles north of Vladivostok, thus invading Russian territory on the mainland. Saghalien is for the most part a barren, rugged island, with an extremely severe climate. It is some six hundred miles long, and from twenty to ninety miles wide, and is really part of the Japanese chain of islands. Up to the middle of the past century, it was part of the island empire, but by sharp diplomacy Russia obtained it in return for some of the Kurile Islands. It has always been regarded, however, as a part of Japan, and, for sentimental reasons if for no other, the Mikado's empire has felt that she must have Saghalien. There are some valuable mineral deposits on the island, and the Sea of Okhotsk, to the north and east, teems with fish. It has a population of about twenty thousand, chiefly criminals, for Saghalien has been used as a penal settlement of Russia since the beginning of 1900, when banishment to Siberia for political purposes was abandoned. The cession of Saghalien Island has always been emphatically insisted upon as a necessary condition of peace



IN DOUBT.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: "I don't feel quite certain that I can separate those fellows with this branch."—From the *Borszem Jankó* (Budapest).



A NEW GREAT POWER IN THE COUNCIL OF THE NATIONS. (Japan forces her way to a seat at the international board, and so all the others must sit closer.)—From *Ull* (Berlin).

on the part of Japan. Its actual possession before peace negotiations have begun will undoubtedly be an advantage to Japan in her negotiations.

Although an agreement for an armistice in Manchuria did not follow immediately upon the decision of the belligerents to appoint peace commissioners, and in spite of the fact that the Japanese advance had, by the middle of July, brought Marshal Oyama's armies across the border into Siberia and had given them practical possession of the island of Saghalien, preparations for the coming treaty of Washington had, nevertheless, gone steadily forward. An outline of the careers of the chief negotiators on both sides is found on another page of this issue. The legal and secretarial assistants to the negotiators represent some of the best diplomatic talent of both countries. The full Russian commission is made up as follows: The two chief negotiators; then Professor de Martens, professor of international law at the University of St. Petersburg; Mr. Shipov, director of the treasury department; Major-General Yermolov, military *attaché* at London; Mr. Samoilov, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Plançon, formerly Russian *chargé d'affaires* at Peking; and Mr. Naboukov, of the foreign office. Mr. Pokotilov, now Russian minister to China, will join the commission later. Besides the chief negotiators, the Japanese commission includes: Colonel Tachibana, the newly appointed military *attaché* at Washington; Mr. Adachi, first secretary of legation (unattached); Mr. Sato, of the foreign office; Mr. Yamaza, director of the Japanese bureau of political affairs; and Mr. H. W. Denison, the

American who has been legal adviser to the Japanese foreign office for the past quarter of a century. Just before sailing for this country, Mr. Witte granted an interview to a representative of the Associated Press, in which he declared that Russia is not for peace at any price. Mr. Witte said, further, that he feared the Japanese demands would be too severe for Russia's acceptance. As to the internal condition of the empire, this statesman denied most positively that Russia is on the verge of dissolution as a great power. In spite of the military reverses she has sustained, he said, the empire is not obliged to accept any conditions offered.

Russia has little resemblance to Western countries. To know Russia, to understand the soul of the Russian people, it is necessary that one should have been born here or lived many years in Russia. The customs, history, and mental psychology of the people are entirely different from those of Western nations, and Russia cannot be judged by Western standards. It is an immense country, composed of divers elements and interests, yet the Russian people are like a great family. . . . We are passing through an internal crisis which has been marked by many grave events, and which may have others still in store; but the crisis will pass, and in a few years Russia will again take her place as a preponderant power in the European concert.

The New Australian Ministry. After the so-called Labor ministry in the Commonwealth of Australia had passed its much-discussed measure for the building of a new capital city, a year or so ago, Australian politics remained unsettled and full of change. In the first week of last month, on a vote moving an amendment to the address, the Reid free-trade ministry was forced to resign, owing principally to a combination of the Labor party and the "Deakinites," or Moderate Protectionists. Mr. Alfred Deakin, a man of character and unusual energy, has already been premier of the Commonwealth. His first cabinet, ending in April, 1904, was succeeded by a complete Labor cabinet, headed by Mr. Watson, the Labor leader. The Watson ministry was twice defeated, and finally gave way to the Reid administration. Mr. Deakin is prominent because of his views on the tariff, irrigation, and the question of a white Australia, and also because of his arguments for an Australian navy. The world will watch the new cabinet chiefly in regard to its course regarding Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's fiscal policy. Labor leader Watson declares that the Labor party will remain distinct from the Protectionist ranks, and will support Mr. Deakin on a definite programme, including a white Australia, preferential trade, the tariff commission's report, old-age pensions, an anti-trust programme, and the assumption of

the state debts by the Commonwealth. The revenue of the Commonwealth during the past financial year shows a decrease of more than three hundred thousand pounds from that of the preceding year, owing chiefly to the drought and consequent bad harvests. Australia's sister colony, New Zealand, however, shows great prosperity, and in a recent state paper by the Earl of Ranfurly, ex-governor-general, there are some interesting statistics about the progress of New Zealand. These show that bank deposits are increasing, that industry is thriving, and that in twelve years New Zealand has paid off its debts to outside investors.

Renaissance of Arab Civilization. Russia's waning prestige in Asia has permitted more than one Oriental people to raise its head and reassert its national consciousness. At Constantinople, the lessening fear of the Muscovite has suggested the increased oppression of the tribes subject to Turkish rule. Unfortunately for the Sultan, however, just as he has added to the weight of his hand there has burst out a long-smoldering Arab revolution which has already cost him several of the important towns in the peninsula. The Porte believes that British and German influence is behind the uprising. A recently published address of the Arab National party, however, indicates a real racial renaissance of much significance among the Arabs. The Turks of the Arabian peninsula, it must be remembered, are in the great minority. Their government is oppressive, ineffective, and bloody. They are soon to be cast out by a most thorough revolution, this address says. The National Arab party announces its intention of separating completely from Turkey and founding an Arab empire composed of all the countries of Asiatic Arabs inclosed within natural boundaries, from the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates even to the Isthmus of Suez, and from the Mediterranean to the Sea of Oman. The plan contemplates a form of government under an Arabian Mussulman which "shall be a liberal, progressive, constitutional sultanate." It is asserted that "to accomplish this magnificent project it will not be necessary to shed any blood." What can the Turks in the Arab country, who number only five or six hundred, do in the face of twelve millions? This has all been thought out, and the Arabian people are ready. The address is signed by "The Supreme Committee of the National Arab Party." A number of economic and industrial projects are also contemplated by this party, including the reclamation of Syria and Mesopotamia by means of irrigation, making these ancient lands a second route to India.

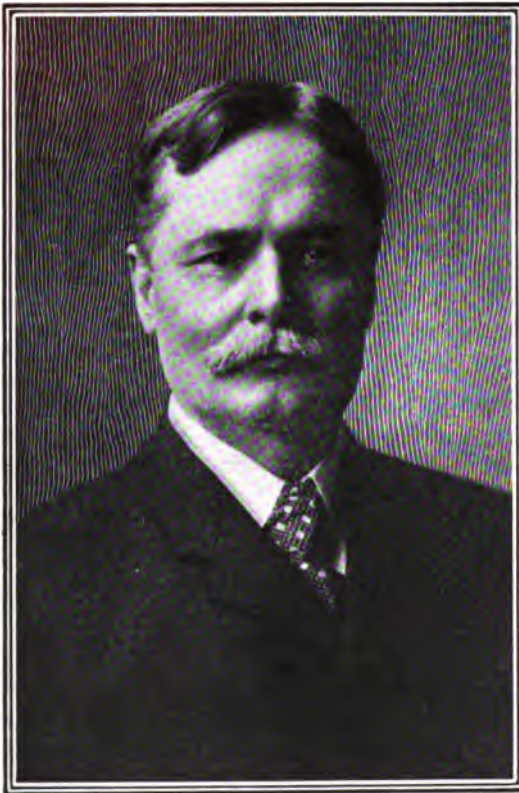
RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From June 21 to July 19, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

June 22.—The Pennsylvania Supreme Court permanently enjoins the proposed consolidation of Pittsburg, Allegheny, and other municipalities.

June 23.—Gov. George R. Carter, of the Territory of Hawaii, resigns office.



HON. WILLIAM J. CALHOUN.
(Special commissioner to Venezuela.)

June 26.—President Roosevelt appoints former Senator McComas, of Maryland, a justice of the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia.

June 27.—Chief Engineer John F. Wallace, of the Panama Canal Commission, resigns his position.

June 28.—The New York State Senate adopts the report of its Judiciary Committee on the trial of Justice Hooker, of the State Supreme Court, and adjourns to July 10.

June 30.—John F. Stevens, of Chicago, is appointed chief engineer of the Panama Canal, to succeed John F. Wallace, resigned....Indictments are found at Milwaukee, Wis., against twenty-one county officials and business men, on charges of offering and accepting bribes.

July 1.—Five corporations and seventeen individuals engaged in the meat-packing industry are indicted by the federal grand jury in Chicago for alleged violation of the Sherman anti-trust law....Charles J. Bonaparte becomes Secretary of the Navy, succeeding Paul Morton....Israel W. Durham, the former Republican "boss" of Philadelphia, resigns the office of Pennsylvania State insurance commissioner.

July 2.—President Roosevelt issues a proclamation on the death of Secretary Hay....Charles E. Magoon, governor of the Panama Canal zone, is appointed United States minister to Panama.

July 4.—It is announced that the Secretary of Agriculture has caused twelve hundred suits to be begun against railroad companies for violation of the law regarding the transportation of live stock....United States Senator John H. Mitchell, of Oregon, is found guilty and recommended to leniency in the land-fraud cases before the federal court.

July 5.—Funeral ceremonies over the remains of Secretary Hay are held at Cleveland, the President, Vice-President, and members of the cabinet attending.

July 7.—The Kansas Supreme Court declares unconstitutional the law for the establishment of a State oil refinery....President Roosevelt announces the acceptance of the office of Secretary of State by Elihu Root, of New York....The case of Caleb Powers, four times tried for the murder of Governor Goebel, of Kentucky, is transferred to the federal court.

July 8.—The report of Secretary Wilson, of the United States Department of Agriculture, on the cotton report "leak" is made public; Assistant Statistician Edwin S. Holmes is dismissed from the service.

July 10.—The trial of Justice Warren B. Hooker by the New York Legislature is begun.

July 11.—William J. Calhoun, of Illinois, is appointed by President Roosevelt a special commissioner to Venezuela.

July 18.—John Hyde, chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Agriculture at Washington, resigns office.

July 19.—Elihu Root, of New York, takes the oath of office as Secretary of State.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

June 21.—The Swedish Riksdag is opened by King Oscar, who sanctions the recommendation of the Swedish Government to negotiate with the Norwegian Sorthing for the peaceful dissolution of the union.... A vote of want of confidence in the new Hungarian cabinet is carried both in the upper chamber and in the Diet.

June 22.—The Swedish Riksdag decides to refer the government's proposals of settlement with Norway to a special committee of both chambers....The Czar of Russia appoints Grand Duke Nicholas president of the Council of National Defense.

June 23.—The Russian minister of the interior issues



DR. NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER.

(New president of the National Educational Association.)

a circular asserting that the Czar's language to the zemstvo delegates is incorrectly interpreted....The new Liberal Spanish ministry, under the premiership of Signor Montero Rios, is sworn in....The town of Łódź, in Poland, is in a state of revolt; troops kill 50 persons and wound 200....Premier Ramstedt, of Sweden, tenders his resignation, but the King and the cabinet request its withdrawal.

June 24.—M. Ralli forms a new cabinet in Greece.

June 25.—The French Chamber practically finishes the discussion of the separation bill.

June 26.—The British House of Commons rejects a vote of censure of the Balfour ministry on the army stores scandal....The advisers of Prince George of Crete tender their resignation, which is not accepted.

June 27.—The Swedish Riksdag elects committees to consider the cabinet's proposals to treat with Norway....The Czar of Russia issues a ukase investing the governor-general of Warsaw with supreme military power.

June 28.—The crew of the Russian battleship *Kntaz Potemkin*, of the Black Sea squadron, mutinies at sea, killing the principal officers, seizing the ship, and putting into Odessa harbor, where the entire populace is in revolt....The Cuban House of Representatives passes the Rice bill, opening the Havana market to American products....The Australian Commonwealth Parliament is opened at Melbourne.

June 29.—The Russian rebel battleship shells the city of Odessa; the water-front is gutted, and several vessels are burned; 1,000 persons are believed to have been killed in street fighting; sailors at Libau mutiny, at-

tack the government stores, and fire into officers' quarters.

July 2.—The Russian Black Sea squadron, having failed to capture or sink the rebel battleship at Odessa, returns to Sebastopol, where the ships are disarmed, the engines ungearred, and the crews sent ashore.

July 3.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 841 to 233, passes the bill for the separation of Church and State.

July 4.—The lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath rejects the motion looking to the separation of Austria and Hungary....Orders for the mobilization of the Swedish army are issued.

July 5.—A new ministry, headed by Alfred Deakin, takes office in the Australian Commonwealth.

July 8.—The rebel Russian battleship and the torpedo boat surrender to the Roumanian authorities at Kustenji.

July 10.—In the British House of Lords, Field Marshal Lord Roberts declares the British army inadequate and totally unfit for war.

July 11.—There is further fighting at Warsaw between the strikers and the troops, twenty persons being killed or wounded....Major-General Count Shuvalov, prefect of police at Moscow, is assassinated while receiving petitions.

July 13.—In the British House of Commons, Premier Balfour declares himself opposed to conscription for filling the ranks of the army.

July 17.—Tramway and underground railroad lines in London to cost \$120,000,000 are proposed in the report of the royal commission appointed to investigate the problem.

July 18.—The Hungarian opposition issues a mani-



THE RIGHT HON. J. W. LOWTHER.

New Speaker of the British House of Commons, and his family.)

festos urging the people to refuse to obey all orders of the present government.

July 19.—The congress of Russian zemstvos meets at Moscow.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

June 21.—Premier Rouvier, of France, asks Germany to explain her intentions regarding Morocco.... Russia notifies Germany of her intention to mobilize troops in the frontier districts.... The Venezuelan Government's arrangement for the settlement of its external debt is approved by Venezuelan bondholders in London.

June 25.—President Roosevelt directs that Chinamen of the exempt classes under the exclusion laws be treated as citizens of most favored nations.

June 26.—President Roosevelt receives notice from Russia and Japan that the peace plenipotentiaries will meet at Washington within the first ten days of August (see page 211).

June 27.—The German reply to the French note on Morocco is delivered by Prince Radolin to Premier Rouvier.

June 30.—Ex-Ambassador Porter is appointed special United States commissioner to receive the remains of Paul Jones from the French Government.... Sweden proclaims the harbors of Stockholm, Karlskrona, Gothenberg, and Färsund war ports, and excludes all foreign warships.

July 1.—The Chinese Government orders the viceroys and provincial governors to put an end to anti-American agitation.

July 6.—The Emperor of Japan sends his peace plenipotentiaries a farewell greeting urging the need of lasting peace.

July 8.—France accepts Germany's terms and will take part in the Moroccan conference to be held at Tangier.

July 9.—The rebel battleship is turned over to Russia by the Roumanian authorities.

July 10.—The United States navy yard at Portsmouth, N. H., is selected as a convenient place for the meetings of the Russo-Japanese peace plenipotentiaries.... Russia asks Roumania for the surrender of mutineers.... The Franco-German agreement on Morocco is made public.

July 11.—France sends a messenger to Morocco to formally notify the Sultan of her acceptance of the proposal for a conference.

July 13.—Count Sergius Witte is appointed Russian peace plenipotentiary in place of M. Muraviev, resigned, the other plenipotentiaries being Ambassador Rosen, for Russia, and Baron Komura and Minister Takahira, for Japan.... Baron Rosen, the new Russian ambassador, presents his credentials to President Roosevelt.

July 18.—Lord Lansdowne says that the powers will insist on international financial control in Macedonia, notwithstanding the Sultan's refusal to agree to the plan.

July 19.—A joint committee of the Swedish Riksdag begins work on a bill to settle the dispute with Norway.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

June 23.—Count Lamsdorff hands to Sir C. Hardinge instructions to the captains of Russian cruisers to abstain from sinking neutral ships, these orders to be delivered by British warships. The *Dnieper* is ordered to furnish a report on the sinking of the *St. Kilda*.

June 24.—The *Dnieper* arrives at Jibuti, having on board the crew of the *St. Kilda*.... News arrives that the Russian cruiser *Terek* sank the British steamer *Ikhona* on June 5, one hundred and fifty miles north of Hongkong.... The sunken Russian cruiser *Bayan* is floated at Port Arthur.... The Japanese defeat the Russians northwest of Nan-shan-chen-tse.

June 27.—A Singapore telegram gives details regarding the sinking of the *Ikhona* by the *Terek*.

June 30.—The Russian cruiser *Terek*, reported to have sunk British and Danish steamships, is interned at Batavia, Java.

July 8.—A Japanese expedition takes possession of the island of Saghalien, used by Russia as a penal settlement, after a slight engagement; the



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE CITY OF GUANAJUATO, MEXICO.

A great part of this town of 70,000 people was swept away by a flood on July 1, 1905.)

Russian commander blows up the coast-defense guns and burns the government buildings before retiring.

July 10.—The Russians burn Korsakovsk, the capital of Saghalien, and retreat north.

July 11.—Admiral Kataoka reports that Cape Noto, on Saghalien, has been occupied by the Japanese after a short bombardment.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

June 21.—The new eighteen-hour train of the New York Central Railroad from Chicago to New York is wrecked by an open switch and destroyed by fire at Mentor, Ohio; 21 lives are lost, and many are injured.

June 22.—The centenary of the birth of Mazzini is celebrated throughout Italy.

June 23.—At the commencement of Yale University, a gift of \$1,000,000 from John D. Rockefeller, and others aggregating an additional \$1,000,000, are announced.... The Ryan stock trustees of the Equitable Society name nine new directors.

June 29.—The New York State Insurance Department begins an investigation of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York, at the request of its own officers.

June 30.—John D. Rockefeller gives \$10,000,000 to the General Education Board.

July 1.—A flood at Guanajuato, Mexico, causes the loss of hundreds of lives and property to the value of \$1,000,000.

July 2.—The Philadelphia police raid gambling-houses and disorderly resorts, arresting about two thousand persons.

July 3.—The National Educational Association begins its meeting at Asbury Park, N. J.

July 4.—A flood visits Pierre, S. D., depriving half the people of their homes and doing much damage in the surrounding country.... An heroic bronze statue of President McKinley is unveiled at Chicago.

July 5.—The International Christian Endeavor Convention opens at Baltimore, Md., and the convention of the Epworth League at Denver, Colo.

July 6.—The remains of John Paul Jones are formally received by United States officials at Paris.

July 7.—President Roosevelt addresses 60,000 persons at the National Educational Association convention at Asbury Park, N. J.

July 8.—The United States squadron bearing the remains of John Paul Jones sails from Cherbourg for Annapolis.

July 9.—The International Socialist Congress opens at Constance, but adjourns to a Swiss town, the Baden government having forbidden speeches by foreign delegates.

July 11.—More than one hundred miners are killed by an explosion in the pits of the United National Colliers Company, at Wattstown, Wales.

July 13.—The temperature rises to 96 degrees in New York City; 22 deaths and more than 200 hundred prostrations result from the heat.

July 19.—More than 75 deaths from the heat are reported in New York City.

OBITUARY.

June 21.—John R. Bennett, a noted New York patent lawyer, 54.

June 22.—Ex-Gov. Francis R. Lubbock, of Texas, the last of the war governors, 90.... Gen. Charles William Darling, of Utica, N. Y., 75.

June 23.—Rev. Samuel M. Woodbridge, D.D., for many years dean of New Brunswick Theological Seminary, 86.... Rev. Orello Cone, D.D., professor of theology at St. Lawrence University, 66.

June 24.—Joseph Miller, inventor, 95.

June 26.—George E. Macklin, general manager of the Pressed Steel Car Company, 42.

June 27.—Graeme Stewart, a leading citizen of Chicago, 52.

June 28.—Admiral Sir Baldwin Walker, 81.... Surgeon-General Cunningham, C.S.L., M.D., LL.D., 76.

June 29.—Rear-Admiral Louis J. Allen, U.S.N. (retired), 65.

June 30.—Gen. Hugh B. Ewing, formerly minister to Holland, 85.

July 1.—John Hay, Secretary of State of the United States, 67 (see pages 166-176).

July 2.—Prof. George Edward Day, of Yale University, 72.... Prof. Marcus Willson, author of popular text-books, 91.

July 4.—Prof. Jean Jacques Elisée Réclus, the well-known French geographer, 75.

July 5.—Gen. Amasa Cobb, of Nebraska, 82.

July 7.—Ex-United States Senator Wilbur F. Sanders, of Montana, 71.... Prof. Hermann Nothnagel, the well-known clinical authority of Vienna, 64.

July 8.—Walter Kittredge, composer of "Tenting on the Old Camp Ground" and other war songs, 71.... T. Henry Randall, a well-known New York architect.

July 9.—Arthur Latham Perry, for many years a professor in Williams College, 75.

July 10.—Henry M. Mendell, of Milwaukee, Wis., for many years president of the North American Sängerbund, 66.... Albert Edward Lancaster, literary and dramatic critic of the *New York Evening Telegram*, 64.

July 13.—Rev. Charles Pearson, D.D., formerly professor of literature at Northwestern University, 60.... Theodore C. Weeks, a well-known Boston banker, 65.... Benjamin Webb Williams, a pioneer in conducting lecturing tours, 91.

July 15.—Brig.-Gen. Napoleon J. T. Dana, U.S.A. (retired), said to have been the oldest West Point graduate, 83.... Mrs. Laura Hyde Stedman, wife of Edmund Clarence Stedman, 70.... The Marquis Villaverde, former premier of Spain.

July 16.—Gen. W. W. Blackmar, commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 64.

July 17.—Gen. Francis Effington Pinto, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 82.... Mrs. Caroline Elizabeth Monell, a granddaughter of John Adams, second President of the United States, 90.

July 18.—Joseph E. Bender, chief of the Indian division of the Department of the Interior, 60.

July 19.—Earl Cowper, formerly Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, 71.

SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



GETTING THE WARM END OF IT.—From the *Herald* (New York).

It is reported that Mr. Root, as Secretary of State, will take charge of the Panama Canal while Secretary Taft is off on a long voyage to the Philippines.



THE POLITICAL STAR-GAZERS.

THE ANXIOUS OBSERVERS: "Do we see double, or are there two of them now?"—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



SOMETHING HE CANNOT COMPREHEND.

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

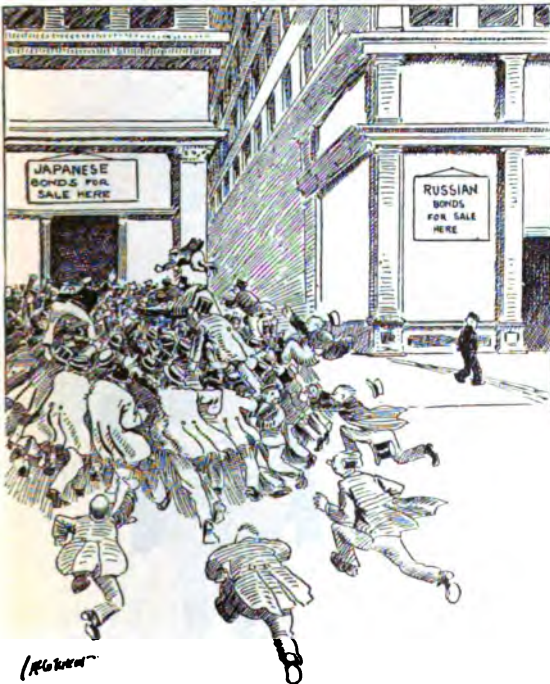
The men who measure everything by the money standard do not see why Mr. Root gives up an income of \$300,000 a year to become Secretary of State at a salary of \$8,000.



UNCLE SAM MOURNS FOR JOHN HAY.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



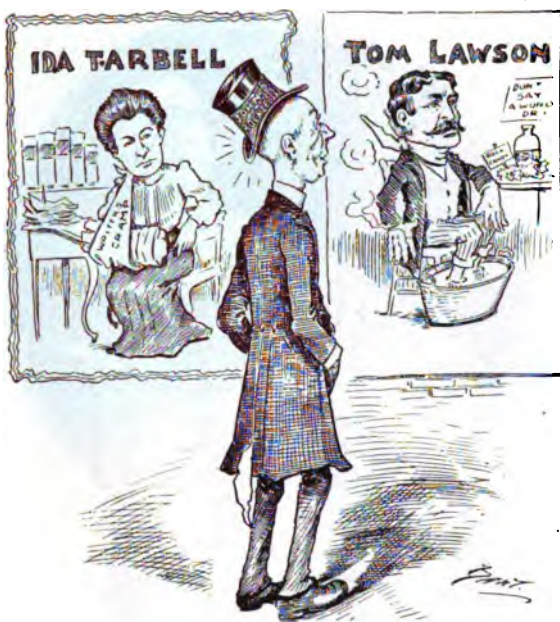
"Yon rising moon that looks for us again—
How oft hereafter will she wax and wane;
How oft hereafter rising look for us
Through this same garden—and for one in vain!"
From the *Herald* (Boston).



WAR IS HELPFUL TO THE JAPANESE BOND MARKET.
From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT HOUSECLEANING AGAIN.
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



LAWSON HAS LOST HIS VOICE.

JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER: "Now, if Ida would just get writer's cramp, I might get a little much-needed rest."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE SPIRIT OF THE SEA.

"And so you bear him home. . . . And who shall say that the *Bonhomme Richard*, the ship he loved, does not, too, bear him in spirit?"—General Porter, on surrendering the body of John Paul Jones.—From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



"SAY, BUT THE KID'S LEARNING!"

CHINA: "Uncle."

U. S.: "Well?"

CHINA: "I can spell boycott!"

From the *Herald* (Boston).



"WHEW!"

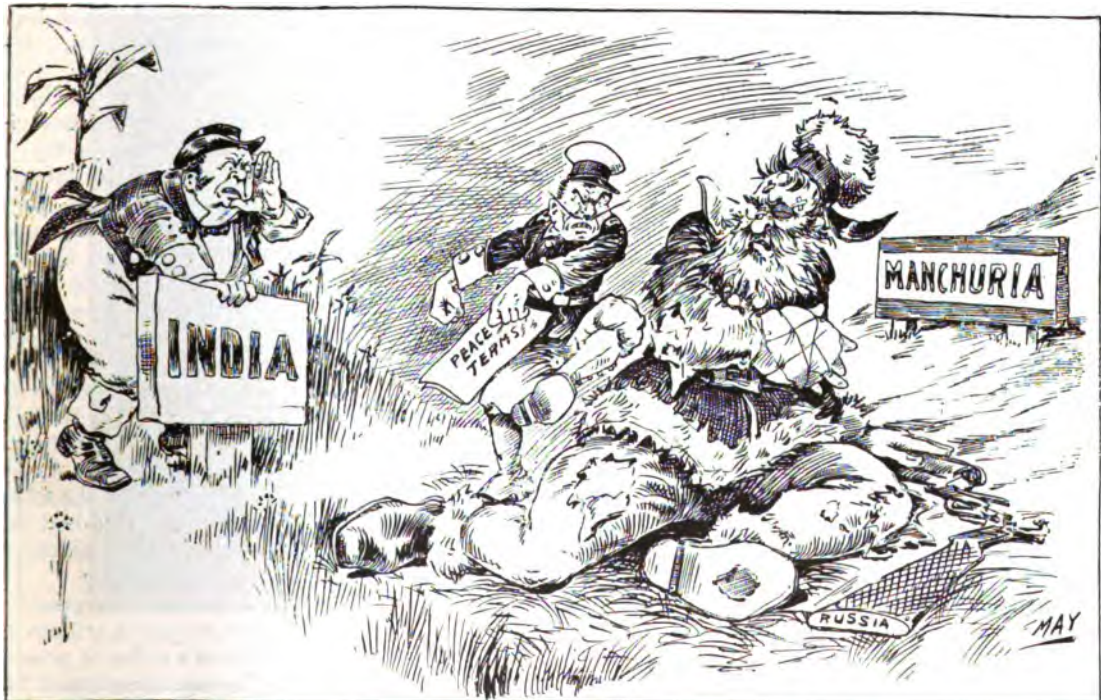
The hot wave in Philadelphia shows no sign of abating.
From the *North-American* (Philadelphia).



RUSSIA ON THE ANXIOUS SEAT.
From the *Post* (Washington).



REVOLUTION LET LOOSE IN RUSSIA.
From the *World* (New York).



JOHN BULL (to Japan): "Soak him once more, and close the eye looking in this direction."
From the *Journal* (Detroit).

JOHN HAY: AN AMERICAN GENTLEMAN.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

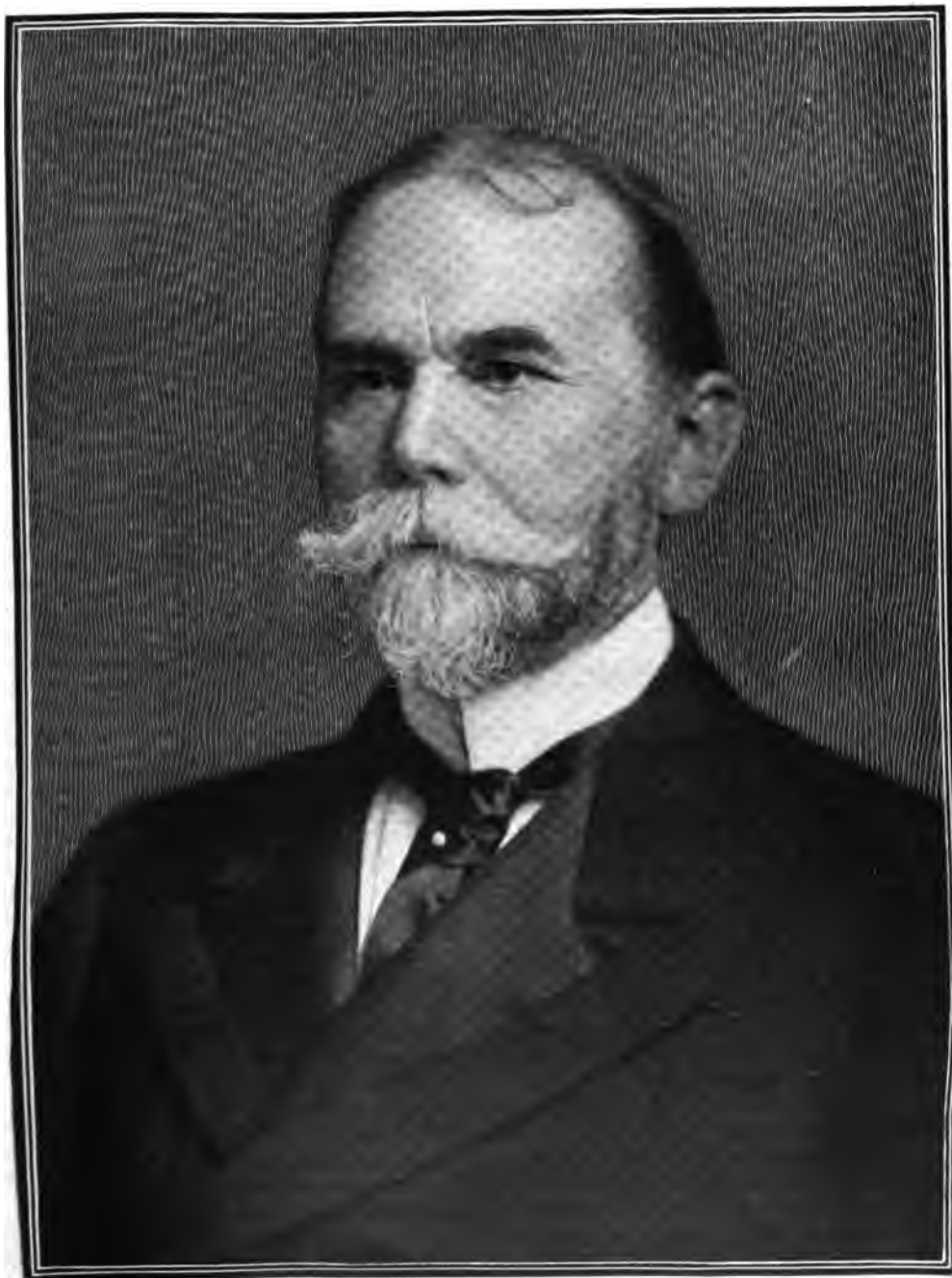
PERHAPS the best and truest thing that can be said of John Hay the man is that every one who had the good fortune to get really close to him loved him. His was one of those rare natures that win, without conscious effort, the deep and abiding affection of all who draw near. John Hay's "sweetness and light," of which Secretary Taft spoke so feelingly and fittingly the day after the death of the great Secretary of State, were not reserved for his family, nor for his equals in station, but were shed generously and habitually upon all, high or low, who came in contact with him. Three Presidents of the United States basked in their warm rays and felt spiritually refreshed; most of the notable Americans of the last fifteen years fell under their charm; scores of eminent diplomatists have been lured by them into passing forgetfulness of professional thrust and parry and have lingered within the spell of delight. But so it was also with the humblest. Mr. Hay's official subordinates loved the man even more than they respected and admired the superior. His household servants gave him, not only their service, but their hearts. Doubtless it is true that few men are heroes to their valets, but John Hay's skillful Swedish *masseur*, after years of attention to the high and mighty of this and other national capitals, declared, "Mr. Hay is the finest gentleman I ever knew." Newspaper men, at Hay's elbow night and day, in hours of stress, of trial, of disappointment, of the most delicate relations and situations, of triumph and success,—catching all the moods and reactions of a highly sensitive nature amid the vicissitudes of a strenuous career,—are profound in their admiration for his serenity, his dignity, his kindly helpfulness, his courtesy, his wit and humor. Often they were conscious that they tried his patience to the full, but the "sweetness and light" never failed. Never hero-worshippers, ever inclined to cynicism, these newspaper writers at Washington, a dozen or so of whom have been by Hay's side almost daily during the last six or seven years, felt his death as something more than the passing away of a great diplomatist and public servant; to them it came as a personal grief. As one of these writers for the press who year after year were honored with Mr. Hay's confidence, it is in my heart to

say: He was like father, brother, philosopher, guide, and friend rolled into one.

HOW HE WON RECOGNITION.

When Mr. Hay became Secretary of State, nearly seven years ago, the American people did not know him. He had not yet made a deep impress upon the national consciousness. He was regarded almost with suspicion; there was a widespread impression that the new Secretary was simply a man of wealth who had won preferment by making liberal subscriptions to the campaign funds of his party; that he had been rewarded beyond his deserts by President McKinley with the English ambassadorship; that as envoy to the court of St. James he had become an Anglomaniac, an aristocrat, and a lover of aristocracy; that he was exclusive, un-American, and of doubtful fitness for so great a task. In the light of the facts and subsequent events it seems strange that any considerable number of intelligent persons could have entertained this view, or anything like it. But they did. Mr. Hay had a public to win. Consciously or unconsciously, he went about doing it. He did it, not with any posing or theatricals, not with the slightest bid for popularity by any of the devices so well known to cheaper men, but with conscientious work at his desk. Gradually it dawned upon the American people that they had a big man in the State Department. His work told. Little by little suspicions were removed and faith won. The public knew little of the man himself,—he never had the knack of attracting the popular eye to his personality,—but it knew of his achievements. By the time President McKinley fell at Buffalo, Mr. Hay had come into his own. He had found his place. He had won the hearts of the American people, as he had long before won the affections of all who really knew him. He had become one of the most popular, most trusted, of American public men.

Not long before his death, in conversation with the writer, Mr. McKinley paid a tribute to his Secretary of State which is worthy of preservation in the records. "To my mind," said the President, "John Hay is the fairest flower of our civilization. Cultured, wealthy, with a love of travel, of leisure, of scholarly pursuits, with



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HON. JOHN HAY, SECRETARY OF STATE

(Born, October 8, 1838; died, July 1, 1905.)

money enough to go where he likes and do what he likes, he is yet patriotic enough to give his great talents to his country."

HIS DEVOTION TO DUTY.

When Mr. McKinley fell, Mr. Hay had no other expectation than that he would be released from official cares. He wished it to be so. He wanted to travel, to write. He had some literary plans which recent busy years had never given him the opportunity to carry out. Great was his surprise when the new President, on arriving at the national capital from Buffalo, drove straight to Mr. Hay's house and begged the Secretary to retain his office. Mr. Roosevelt never regretted that act. More than once, later, he found it necessary to implore Mr. Hay to remain at his post, and more than once Mr. Hay yielded. It is well known at Washington that Mr. Hay ardently wished to seek rest and recreation in travel and the society of his friends and his well-loved books. Had he done so,—had he put duty behind him and consulted only his personal inclination and comfort,—it is more than probable that he would be alive and well to-day. It was of Jim Bludso that Mr. Hay himself wrote in his college days:

"And Christ ain't a-going to be too hard
On a man that died for men."

Mr. Hay held the office of Secretary of State longer than any of his predecessors. It is safe to say that he did more work in that post than any other man had ever done,—made more of it. Other famous Secretaries were famous before they took the office; Mr. Hay's life-work was there; there he made his reputation. He had no other political ambition. He had never cared for politics from the view-point of personal participation. Even the Presidency was not alluring to him,—he never aspired to it. If McKinley had died eight months earlier, Mr. Hay would have become President. He was ever mindful of the responsibility which the fates might thrust upon him. Though he dreaded the possibility of being called to the higher office, he held it to be his duty to govern himself according to the decree of chance and the laws of his country. Hence, he was careful to remain nearly always in Washington while the President was away on trips. It was impossible for him, with his ideas of duty, to make a foreign voyage till the country should secure a constitutional Vice-President.

RELATIONS WITH PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

Between President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay there was a close and intimate friendship. Each was sincerely fond of the other,

though their characters differed so widely. Mr. Roosevelt may have depended more upon the judgment of a Root or a Taft or a Knox in all matters not of international bearing, but no other member of his cabinet enjoyed more of the President's personal affection than Mr. Hay. Each was the complement of the other, each a constant source of delight to his friend. Roosevelt's buoyant, almost boyish, high spirits and rapid-fire comment upon men and matters and Hay's quiet, incisive, dry humor and facility for making pertinent quotations from the whole range of literature and anecdote formed a combination which gave unalloyed pleasure to both. It was President Roosevelt's habit to walk to church every Sunday afternoon, in Washington, and on his way home to stop at the house of Secretary Hay, on Lafayette Square, just opposite the White House, for a chat of an hour or two. He rarely went to the houses of other cabinet officers, but to miss the Sunday afternoon visit with John Hay, the President has confessed, was a distinct deprivation. "Mr. Hay was the most charming man and delightful companion I have ever known," said the President, a day or two ago, to a friend. "Those Sunday talks of ours nearly always ended in a discussion of Abraham Lincoln."

HIS EARLIER CAREER.

Mr. Hay had the rare distinction of working side by side with three of our great Presidents. The salient facts of his career are well known. He was born in 1838, at Salem, Ind. His father was a physician whose ancestors had been Scottish,—fighting men in the Revolution and settlers in Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana, and Illinois. John Hay, a fourth son, was graduated from Brown University in 1858, taking high rank in English composition, having already attracted much attention with his poems "Jim Bludso," "Little Breeches," and others. For three years he studied law at Springfield, Ill., in the office of an uncle, Malcolm Hay, an intimate friend of Abraham Lincoln, and was admitted to the bar. When Mr. Lincoln entered the White House he took Hay with him as one of his secretaries. For more than four years the relations between the President and the young man were of the most intimate character, almost those of father and son. For some months Hay served in the army on staff duty, and won the title of colonel, which stuck to him throughout his career. After Lincoln's death, he entered the diplomatic service, and was successively secretary of legation at Paris, Madrid, and Vienna. For five years he was an editorial writer on the *New York Tribune*. In 1874 he married a daughter

of Amasa Stone, of Cleveland, who had been one of Mr. Lincoln's staunch and rugged friends. For two years he was Assistant Secretary of State, in the Hayes administration. Mr. and Mrs. Hay built a fine house in Washington and reared their children there. Their home was a social center, but Mr. Hay did not reënter the public service till President McKinley made him ambassador to England in 1897. In September, the next year, he was appointed Secretary of State.

TRUSTED BY THREE PRESIDENTS.

There is no doubt that the character of Lincoln left its impress upon his young associate. Mr. Hay's deep but silent love for his country was like his first master's. So was his fondness for anecdote, for jest, for quaint sayings. The right-hand man of three Presidents, Mr. Hay was loyal to each in turn. But the *Liberator* was his first love. Once I made bold to ask Mr. Hay for his estimate of the three chief magistrates he had known so intimately.

"Experience has taught me the unwisdom of personal comparisons," he replied, meditatively. And after a pause he added:

"But Abraham Lincoln was the greatest man I have ever known or shall ever know."

Loyalty was an essential, almost a predominant, quality of Mr. Hay's character. Even with his most intimate friends he rarely used the first personal pronoun in speaking of his work. It was almost invariably "The President has done thus," or "The President's policy is to do so-and-so." Once in a great while, during his absence or illness, some action might be taken by the President's order of which, at heart, Mr. Hay did not approve. But one could never learn of his disapproval from Mr. Hay's lips. With right hearty loyalty and most excellent dissimulation, if needs be, he defended, explained, or even took responsibility upon himself. He was loyal to his associates and subordinates, too. If one did a good piece of work, the Secretary praised it. If one blundered, he kept his lips closed to all outsiders; it was the department's mistake, not the individual's. He was too kind of heart to be a first-class executive. Rather than dismiss an incompetent he would invent excuses for him, and when worse came to worst secure him a transfer to some other post.

"A MODEST GREAT MAN."

Mr. Hay was as modest a great man as nature ever made. Because of his instinctive disinclination to speak of himself, he was rarely reminiscent, and then only by dint of thrusting his own personality into the background.

Mr. Hay's modesty was such an essential part of his character that in cabinet meetings he never took part in discussions unless international affairs were under consideration. The same quality led him to shrink from appearance as a speaker in public. On the rare occasions when he could be induced to make an address he spent weeks of fretful, nervous apprehension and preparation, wishing with all his heart he were well out of it, yet determined to go through with it and to do his best. When he did speak, it was with the confidence and poise of the man who is his own master; and the country usually had a new classic to add to its political and biographical literature, as in his noteworthy oration on McKinley, delivered in the Capitol at Washington, and his still finer review of the Republican party's first half-century, delivered last year.

HIS CONTEMPT FOR LIARS.

Though his characteristic mental attitude was that of placidity and serenity, he never degenerated to the level of the cynic. He was never the man who concludes that nothing matters—never the disciple of Talleyrand who took to his heart the maxim, "Above all, no zeal." Mr. Hay's modesty would not permit him to make a parade of his earnestness or sound his zeal from the housetops; but he was zealous and earnest as to all vital things, just the same. He had a fine scorn for all that is petty, mean, contemptible. He detested all unnecessary and wanton falsehood. For the sort of diplomacy that rests essentially upon tergiversation he had a most hearty contempt. One of his sayings is famous in the diplomatic world. It was used of a certain titled European, not now a member of the corps at Washington.

"When the count comes to talk to me," said Mr. Hay, "I do not use my wits trying to ascertain whether or not the man is lying. I know he is lying. What I try to find out is why he is telling that particular lie."

MR. HAY AND THE SENATE.

It was not all sweetness with Mr. Hay. He could turn sour enough when his sensibilities were touched. They were rarely touched through his personal relations or the personal equation in any form, direct or indirect. But they could be quickly roused on the score of public duty. He despised men who juggle with the public interests to serve their own petty and selfish political purposes,—as, for instance, Senators who emasculate and burke a treaty, designed for the common good of all the people, in the interests of their States, or even of certain industries in their States, for the sake of strengthening

their political status at home and improving their prospects for reelection. At times, his denunciation of such men was fierce. The bitterest exhortation of well-known Senators by name I ever heard from the lips of mortal man came from John Hay's tongue when with righteous indignation he spoke of their discreditable thrusts at the life of a most meritorious treaty. Mr. Hay did not, as a rule, get on well with the Senate. He was working for the country at large; too many Senators were working simply for themselves. There were Senators who were determined to drive him into private life. They could not have succeeded so long as Mr. Hay kept his health and Mr. Roosevelt was still in the White House.

HIS DAILY PROGRAMME.

Mr. Hay was a wide reader. Of late years he spent only the mornings at his desk in the State Department. At 1 o'clock he walked across the park to his home, carrying a well-stuffed portfolio of dispatches and memoranda. His best work he did at home, in the afternoons. Before dinner, he almost invariably took a stroll with his chum of a lifetime, Henry Adams, the historian, whose house stands next to Mr. Hay's, the two being so alike and so well blended, like the natures and tastes of their owners, that they appear the same structure. On these walks Mr. Hay invariably wore a top hat and a frock coat. He was punctilious in all matters of dress and deportment. Returning from his walk, which till recently was that of a man in robust health, with the swing of strength in the stride, he donned evening clothes for dinner. He cared little for society, and since the death of his elder and exceedingly promising son Adelbert, through an accident at New Haven, Mr. and Mrs. Hay eschewed society almost entirely, save for the formal functions incident to Mr. Hay's official station. Callers at Mr. Hay's home in the evenings usually found him ensconced in a snug corner of his library, book in hand. He read much, and marveled somewhat enviously because President Roosevelt, with more work to do, ten times as many people to see, and much more time spent in the open air, could read twice as much as he.

Far from being the aristocrat many believed him, Mr. Hay was distinctively democratic. He was one of the most accessible of Secretaries of State. It was easier to get audience with him than with many of his subordinates. Foreigners visiting the American capital were astonished at the simple code which ruled the office of the great American diplomatist,—his open door, his readiness to receive and listen.

WAS HE PRO-BRITISH AND ANTI-RUSSIAN?

It has long been suspected of Mr. Hay that he was pro-British and anti-Russian. There was ground for the suspicion, so far as his personal feelings were concerned. He had faith in English character, English justice, English institutions. He sought no alliance, but he did seek a closer understanding, a drawing together of the two English-speaking peoples which should make war between them an utter impossibility. Despite criticism, and even bitter attacks, he held to his task; and he lived long enough to see the work done,—to see Anglo-American friendship so firmly knitted that nothing less than an earthquake would suffice to upset it. If Mr. Hay had done nothing else, this one achievement would redound to his fame,—he more than any other one man swept away the foolish cult which till recently made it necessary for an ambitious American politician to proclaim his hostility to England.

As for Russia, Mr. Hay doubted Russian good faith in international relations on general principles. Even more he doubted Russian racial efficiency. He was not surprised at the outcome of the war between Russia and Japan. Indeed, he foresaw it all clearer than any other man with whom I have come in contact. Officially, Mr. Hay maintained a correct attitude as between the combatants; but there was no mistaking the direction of his private sympathies. They oozed out, careful as he was of the proprieties. Perhaps his aptitude for quotation as a convenient expression of opinion at delicate moments, and his love for the vivid and imaginative in literature, never had better illustration than on the occasion of the firing upon the trawlers in the North Sea by Rozhestvenski's fleet. I asked Mr. Hay what he thought of it. For answer, he inquired if I remembered Kipling's lines from "The Destroyers," and himself quoted them:

"Panic that shells the drifting spar—
Loud waste with none to check;
Mad fear that rakes a scornful star
Or sweeps a consort's deck."

The answer was all-sufficient. And when I looked to the future, and inquired what, in the Secretary's opinion, would be the fate of the Russian fleet in the far East, Mr. Hay's reply was characteristic:

"The true poet is also a prophet; and Kipling is a true poet."

MR. HAY AS AN AUTHOR.

The critics agree that if John Hay had kept to the paths of literature he would have made

fame for himself with his pen. It is too much to say that he was a literary genius; it is perfectly true that he gave promise of the possession of genius of the first magnitude. His best-known poems of the Bret Harte order were composed while he was still at college. His "Castilian Days," a study of Spain, took higher rank. Of all his poems, "The Stirrup Cup," recently reprinted throughout the world with added pathos on account of the death of the writer, was the best. There is little doubt that Mr. Hay was the author of that popular and in some respects striking novel of American life, "The Bread-winners," though he would never acknowledge it. I have myself quizzed him about it, and invariably received evasive replies. To one friend who sent him a note pinning the authorship upon him by the process of exclusion Mr. Hay replied, characteristically: "Run the rascal down. Let no guilty man escape." And Mr. Hay underscored the concluding sentence. A labor of love and of notably good workmanship was Mr. Hay's collaboration with Mr. Nicolay in "The Life of Lincoln." As an editorial writer on the New York *Tribune*, Mr. Hay was in a field well

adapted to his skill, and Mr. Greeley once said that though he had read a million editorials, one of John Hay's was the best he ever saw.

Mr. Hay was neither ashamed nor proud of his literary efforts. He judged them as harshly as any critic; but he knew their worth, and their promise, too. Throughout his life he had the feeling that if opportunity were to present itself,—the leisure and the inspiration,—he could do something really worth while.

In John Hay "sweetness and light" and strength and modesty were strangely blended with wit and humor and taste and dignity. There were moods, too. Of late years he suffered spells of spiritual depression, inexplicable, and mastered only by his strong will. He joked of what he thought, though no one else discovered, were evidences of failing powers. And one of his favorite replies to friends who asked after his health was, "I am suffering from an incurable disease." After the inquirer had expressed his doubt and sympathy in sufficient and proper solemnity, Mr. Hay explained, "And the disease is old age." His friends smiled at the quip then. But it is a jest no more.

MR. HAY'S WORK IN DIPLOMACY.

BY JOHN BASSETT MOORE.

(Professor of International Law and Diplomacy at Columbia University; formerly Assistant Secretary of State.)

NO man will ever make a great diplomatist, any more than a great scientist, a great soldier, or a great orator, solely by reason of training. Self-possession, quickness and depth of understanding, and shrewd and balanced judgment, are qualities that cannot be created out of elements which are by nature defective. Nevertheless, education and experience are as essential to the development of the highest professional efficiency in the man of large, as in the man of small, capacity.

In assuming the office of Secretary of State, Mr. Hay had the inestimable advantage of practical familiarity with all the duties of the position,—technical, political, and social. His close personal association with the head of the national administration during the Civil War had given him an intimate knowledge of how public affairs are conducted, together with a wide acquaintance with men and breadth of view. And it is not strange that, with a mind so ardent and acquisitive as his and an imagination so active, his intimate acquaintance with domestic affairs should have inspired him with a desire for ser-

vice abroad. On March 22, 1865, he was commissioned as secretary of legation at Paris. He resigned the post in the spring of 1867, only to be appointed to a similar position at Vienna; and in June, 1869, he was transferred to Madrid, where he remained till the autumn of 1870. In the discharge of his secretarial duties, he was from time to time called upon to act as *chargé d'affaires ad interim*, thus becoming familiar with the responsibilities of the head of the mission. From 1879 till 1881, he served as Assistant Secretary of State, under Mr. Evarts. In this position he had little opportunity to gain distinction, since the time was a peculiarly quiet and uneventful one in the history of our foreign affairs. In 1881, however, he was chosen to represent the United States at the International Sanitary Conference, and was honored with the presidency of that body.

THE LONDON EMBASSY.

When, in 1897, after the inauguration of President McKinley, Mr. Hay was sent as ambassador to London, he was not as a stranger

going to a strange land. Not only his frequent journeys abroad, but also his fortunate position in the social life of Washington, had brought him into contact with many of England's foremost men both in politics and in letters. It is not strange that his reception as ambassador was cordial; and he constantly increased the circle of his friends. He also won the confidence of his government at home, as well as esteem abroad, by his unflinching tact and good judgment on all occasions. This was especially the case during the many confidential interchanges of opinion and suggestion that came from all quarters during the war with Spain. At London, as one of the few great centers of the world's diplomatic activity, it was important that the American ambassador should be both alert and wise. Mr. Hay was both; and in the autumn of 1898, when Judge Day resigned the Secretaryship of State in order to go to Paris as head of the peace commission, President McKinley, with that rare discernment which so often characterized his acts, called him to the vacant post, in which he was soon to achieve world-wide renown.

ISSUES OF THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

It is often remarked, as a circumstance fortunate for his fame, that Mr. Hay entered the Department of State just as the United States was entering on its career as a "world power." Such statements, as they are commonly made and understood, betray a want of information as to what the international position of the United States has been; but it is, nevertheless, true that Mr. Hay's lot was cast in a time when there were impending great events, in which the United States was destined to play a conspicuous part, and in which his genius was to shine forth with peculiar splendor.

As the first, but not the least, of his duties as Secretary of State there fell to Mr. Hay the delicate task of restoring diplomatic relations with Spain, and of adjusting the various questions with other powers as well as with Spain that necessarily arose out of the new conditions which existed after the conclusion of peace. For the most part, new treaties with Spain had to be made, the registration of Spanish subjects in the territory ceded and relinquished by Spain had to be carried out, and the return of Spanish prisoners in the hands of the Filipinos had to be dealt with as a diplomatic as well as a practical question.

THE HAY-PAUNCEFOTE CONVENTION.

But, in spite of his preoccupation with these and other current matters, Mr. Hay almost immediately applied himself to the great work of

solving the difficulties that stood in the way of the construction of the interoceanic canal by the United States. As the result of circumstances which it is unnecessary here to narrate, public opinion had centered upon the Nicaragua route. By the convention between the United States and Great Britain of April 19, 1850, commonly called the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, it was provided that neither contracting party should ever acquire or maintain any exclusive control over the canal then in contemplation by way of Lake Nicaragua, nor occupy, colonize, or fortify any part of Central America, but that they should, on the contrary, extend their joint protection to the proposed waterway both during its construction and after its completion. As these stipulations were conceived to stand in the way of the construction and protection of the canal by the United States alone, Mr. Hay sought to replace them with a new treaty; and he at length signed with Lord Pauncefote, at Washington, on February 5, 1900, a convention the object of which was declared to be to remove any objection arising out of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty to the construction of the canal "under the auspices of the Government of the United States," without impairing the "general principle" of "neutralization" established by Article VIII. of that treaty.

This convention was duly submitted to the Senate; but no sooner had it been published than it became the subject of violent attacks, which went so far as to impeach Mr. Hay's capacity. He was assailed as a blundering amateur, incompetent to conduct the foreign relations of the country, and was charged with being too friendly to England. The principal points of the convention at which criticism was aimed were the stipulation that the canal should not be fortified and the provision that the contracting parties should bring the convention to the notice of other powers and invite them to adhere to it. In the end the Senate amended the convention by striking out this provision, and by inserting clauses by which the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was expressly superseded and the United States was allowed a greater freedom with regard to defensive measures.

It is understood that Mr. Hay was deeply wounded by the harsh criticism visited upon him on this occasion. He undoubtedly believed the original convention to be a good one; and, as he had no incentive whatever to public service but the desire for honest fame, it is probable that many men in his predicament might have yielded to a sense of injury, real or fancied, to say nothing of pride or petulance. But Mr. Hay took a higher view of his duty and was patient.

He renewed the negotiations with the British Government, and on November 18, 1901, signed with Lord Pauncefoot a new convention, into which the Senate's amendments were skillfully wrought, and which promptly received the approval of that body. It is not always the most meritorious acts of one's life that are most widely appreciated and most loudly applauded. Mr. Hay's greatest celebrity to-day rests, no doubt, upon his diplomacy in China, but I venture to think that in his negotiations with regard to the canal, his character as a public man underwent the severest test to which it was ever subjected.

THE BOXER OUTBREAK IN CHINA.

When Mr. Hay became Secretary of State, the situation in China was visibly tending toward the critical stage which was soon to attract to the Celestial Empire the interest of the whole civilized world. In connection with the killing, in November, 1897, of two German missionaries in the province of Shantung, the German Government seized Kiao-chau, and subsequently obtained of that place and of a stretch of inland territory a "lease" for ninety-nine years, by which the jurisdiction of China was practically excluded and reduced to a nominal remnant of sovereignty. Russia promptly obtained a "lease" of Port Arthur and Talienwan; France, of Kwang-chau Bay; Great Britain, of Wei-hai-wei and Miao Bay and certain territory adjacent to Hongkong. It looked as if the scramble for the final partition of China had begun, and it is not strange that the Chinese thought so. Symptoms of native unrest steadily grew, and soon the society of Boxers appeared on the scene. The anti-foreign movement became formidable. The native authorities were unable to suppress disturbers of the peace, and often were sympathetic with them. A state of practical anarchy supervened. The attitude of the government at Peking became uncertain, and then visibly hostile. Peking was cut off, and the legations, to which many foreigners had flocked, were besieged. An international relief force was organized, but a distressing apprehension was ever present that the next hour might bring the dreadful news of the fall of the legations and the massacre of their inmates.

THE "OPEN-DOOR" POLICY.

The policy which the United States was to pursue at this momentous juncture had already been foreshadowed. On September 6, 1899, Mr. Hay, as Secretary of State, inclosed to the embassy of the United States in Paris, for its confidential information, copies of instructions sent on that day to the American ambassadors in

London, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, in relation to the desire of the United States that Great Britain, Germany, and Russia should each make a formal declaration of an "open-door" policy in the territories held by it in China, the purport of this policy being that the Chinese tariff should continue to be applied to all persons of every nationality within the so-called leased territories and spheres of interest, and that there should be equality of commercial opportunity, without any discrimination, for persons of all nationalities. On March 20, 1900, Mr. Hay was able to announce that all the powers had accepted the American proposals, and the first great step in the development of his policy was accomplished. Grave perils, however, awaited it. The introduction of foreign armed forces into China, although required for the relief of the legations and the protection of life and property, opened up the possibility of an eventual state of war, with its attendant disorders and unknown demands. But, even if a state of war should be avoided, claims for indemnity would have to be dealt with; and, worst of all, if the legations should succumb, the universal and overwhelming popular demand for vengeance.

OUR ATTITUDE IN CHINA DECLARED.

Keenly alive to the dangers of the situation, Mr. Hay, on July 3, 1900, in the midst of gravest apprehensions as to the fate of the legations, addressed a circular telegram to the diplomatic representatives of the United States in the various European countries and Japan, with an instruction to communicate the purport of it to the governments to which they were respectively accredited. In this telegram the attitude of the United States was defined, as far as circumstances permitted. The United States, it was declared, adhered to the policy initiated by it in 1857, "of peace with the Chinese nation, of furtherance of lawful commerce, and of protection of lives and property of our citizens by all means guaranteed under extra-territorial treaty rights and by the law of nations." If wrong was done to American citizens, it was proposed "to hold the responsible authors to the uttermost accountability." The condition of Peking was regarded as one of "virtual anarchy," whereby power and responsibility were practically devolved on the local authorities, who, so long as they were not in overt collusion with rebellion and used their power to protect foreign life and property, would be regarded as representing the Chinese people, with whom the United States sought "to remain in peace and friendship." The specific

objects of the United States were then set forth as follows :

The purpose of the President is, as it has been heretofore, to act concurrently with the other powers : First, in opening up communication with Peking and rescuing American officials, missionaries, and other Americans who are in danger ; secondly, in affording all possible protection everywhere in China to American life and property ; thirdly, in guarding and protecting all legitimate American interests ; and fourthly, in aiding to prevent a spread of the disorders to the other provinces of the empire and a recurrence of such disasters. It is, of course, too early to forecast the means of attaining this last result ; but the policy of the Government of the United States is to seek a solution which may bring about permanent safety and peace to China, preserve Chinese territorial and administrative entity, protect all rights guaranteed to friendly powers by treaty and international law, and safeguard for the world the principle of equal and impartial trade with all parts of the Chinese Empire.

This circular was at once received and acclaimed in the United States as the exposition of an enlightened and generous policy. In a spirit of extravagant panegyric, it has sometimes been represented as a measure which embarrassed and forestalled the governments of Europe in the pursuit of other and sinister designs. In reality, there were few cabinets in which it was not sincerely welcomed. It is a coincidence that, on the very day on which the telegram was sent, M. Delcassé declared, in the Chamber of Deputies, that France did not desire "the break-up of China," which was spoken of "without sufficient reflection ;" that she had "no wish for war with China," but could not "evade the duty of protecting her citizens and obtainings for her merchants the guarantees obtained by others ;" that she was "anxious for the maintenance of the equilibrium in the far East," and that the "common peril" demanded a "common aim." His sentiments were in striking accord with those of Mr. Hay. Lord Salisbury expressed himself as "most emphatically" concurring in the policy of the United States. This was, indeed, the sense of most of the interested governments ; and there could be no better evidence of Mr. Hay's diplomatic capacity than the judgment and skill with which he seized the critical moment to blazon to the world a definite expression of policy and to commit all the allies to its execution and observance.

THE PARLEY WITH RUSSIA IN MANCHURIA.

The telegram of July 3 Mr. Hay ever afterward kept before the powers as the charter of China's prosperity and salvation. In the long negotiations that resulted in the signature of the international protocol of September 6, 1901, at Peking he figured as the apostle of mercy

and humanity. He sought to bring to an end punitive expeditions. He pleaded for moderation in demands for pecuniary indemnity. And when he came to negotiate with China a new commercial treaty, he persistently labored for the insertion of stipulations which would secure an "open door" to the world's commerce even in Manchuria.

After long and patient negotiation, characterized on his part by the utmost candor and good temper, he obtained from Russia a positive promise to evacuate Manchuria on October 8, 1903 ; but whenever he pressed China for the signature of a treaty by which ports in Manchuria were to be opened to American commerce, he encountered a secret but persistent obstruction. He invited China to state her objections ; but she was silent, as it was understood, in the presence of the threats of the Russian *chargé d'affaires* at Peking. He then appealed directly to the Russian Government. Count Lamsdorff disclaimed on the part of that government any wish to oppose the demands of the United States ; and Mr. Hay, with singular candor, or, perhaps we may say, with delightful audacity, then directed the American minister at Peking not only so to advise the Chinese Government, but also to invoke the "coöperation" of M. Lessar, the new Russian minister, on his arrival at Peking. M. Lessar, however, when he appeared, declared that he had no instructions as to the attitude of his government, and declined to make any statement concerning it ; and the old obstruction, instead of being removed, seemed to have been renewed even with increased activity. In spite of this disappointment, Mr. Hay persisted ; and he won his point when, on October 8, 1903, the day on which Manchuria was to have been evacuated, he secured the signature of the treaty by China in the form in which he desired it, and placed our commercial relations with that empire on a more satisfactory basis than ever before.

A FAMOUS PHRASE, "ADMINISTRATIVE ENTITY."

On February 10, 1904, Mr. Hay, after consultation with the representatives of various interested powers, sent to the governments of Russia, Japan, and China an expression of the desire of the United States that in the course of the military operations which had begun between Russia and Japan, "the neutrality of China, and in all practicable ways her administrative entity," should be respected by both parties, and that the area of hostilities should be "localized and limited," so that disturbance of the Chinese people might be prevented, and the least possible loss to the commerce and peaceful intercourse of the world might be oc-

casioned. Responses in a favorable sense were received both from Russia and from Japan, and were communicated to the powers. When the correspondence was published, various conjectures were made in the press as to the precise significance of the phrase "administrative entity" and the reason for its employment. Mr. Hay was, in reality, merely repeating the words of his fundamental circular of July 3, 1900, and his use of it there may be readily explained. In that paper he spoke of China's "territorial and administrative entity." What he sought to prevent was the dismemberment of China either by avowed cessions of territory, or by arrangements which, under the guise of leases or otherwise, left her a nominal title to her domain, without administrative power or control. When we wish to convey the antithesis of territorial dismemberment, we usually speak of "territorial integrity;" but the word "integrity," when used in connection with public administration, suggests rather a correct standard of official conduct. Mr. Hay, before he achieved distinction as a statesman, was, as a man of letters, famous for his wit and humor and for a nice discrimination in the use of words. He evidently had no wish to pose as a diplomatic knight, anxious to break a lance in the cause of China's "administrative integrity." He, therefore, said "territorial and administrative entity."

SETTLEMENT OF OUR CLAIMS AGAINST TURKEY.

I have spoken of Mr. Hay's sagacious patience,—his serene and tenacious confidence that pressure steadily applied in a just and righteous cause would in the end bring the desired result. This quality was signally manifested in his conduct of the negotiations with Turkey for the settlement of claims for the value of American property destroyed during the Armenian disturbances in 1895. Early in December, 1898, Mr. Straus, then American minister at Constantinople, telegraphed that he had had a satisfactory audience with the Sultan, who had "directed the indemnity to be arranged," and had sent his "compliments to the President." In the following April, we find Mr. Hay inquiring as to what progress had been made in the performance of his majesty's promise, and urging a speedy conclusion. Still the settlement was delayed, and in January, 1900, strong representations were authorized. Mr. Straus came to the United States on leave, and did not return. The legation was permitted to remain in the care of its secretary, Mr. Griscom, as *chargé d'affaires ad interim*, who, in April and again in May, was directed to remind the government of the Sultan's promise, with an expression of con-

fidence that it would be kept. In June, Mr. Griscom reported that he had been assured by the secretary of the Sultan that the claims would be settled within three or four months. Yet, in February, 1901, we find Mr. Hay again returning to the charge, expressing the President's expectation that the Sultan's oft-repeated promises would be fulfilled, and insisting upon immediate payment. At last, in the following June, Mr. Leishman, the new American minister, reported that £19,000 had been deposited to his credit in the Imperial Ottoman Bank.

THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY SETTLEMENT.

Mr. Hay undoubtedly possessed the gift of settling controversies. Since the cession of Alaska to the United States in 1867, the boundary between that territory and the Dominion of Canada had remained undetermined, and the adjustment of it had become imperative. An important step in that direction was the *modus vivendi* which was effected at Washington, on October 20, 1899, by an exchange of notes between Mr. Hay and the British *chargé d'affaires ad interim*, by which a provisional line was fixed about the head of Lynn Canal. In replying to local criticisms upon his action, Mr. Hay declared that the rights of the United States remained "absolutely intact," and that their assertion in due time would be "earnest and thorough." These declarations were afterward abundantly justified. By the convention signed at Washington on January 24, 1903, and the decision rendered thereunder, the claims of the United States were completely established.

His course in this as well as in other matters shows how groundless was the accusation now and then made that he was "too friendly to England." There are in every country persons who, by reason of special prepossessions, demand that its policy shall be governed, not by consideration for the interests of its own people, but by partiality for or hostility toward the interests of some other people. Mr. Hay certainly was not one of these. He no doubt believed, and acted upon the belief, that the maintenance of friendly relations between the United States and Great Britain, on the basis of mutual respect, was a sound and advantageous policy, especially with reference to the "open-door" rule for which England had always stood in the far East. He also exhibited a wise friendliness toward Germany, when, by the treaty of December 2, 1899, he finally settled to her satisfaction the Samoan question, without abandoning the particular interests of the United States. In these things he acted simply as an "American." He wished for no other title for himself, and

insisted upon its being used by our legations and consulates even at the cost of some legal and practical inconvenience.

ENFORCEMENT OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

Mr. Hay once declared, in a speech before the New York Chamber of Commerce, that the cardinal principles of the foreign policy of the United States were "the Monroe Doctrine and the Golden Rule." For the application of the latter there is opportunity in the diplomacy of all nations; of the former, the United States is the special champion, and it found a careful guardian in Mr. Hay. Its exposition, as made in President Roosevelt's annual message of December 3, 1901, no doubt had his full concurrence. "The Monroe Doctrine," said President Roosevelt, "is a declaration that there must be no territorial aggrandizement by a non-American power at the expense of any American power on American soil;" it is "in no wise intended as hostile to any nation in the old world;" it "has nothing to do with the commercial relations of any American power, save that it in truth allows each of them to form such as it desires;" nor does it "guarantee any state against punishment if it misconducts itself, provided that punishment does not take the form of the acquisition of territory by any non-American power." In this sense the Monroe Doctrine was observed in 1902 and 1903, when Germany, Great Britain, and Italy joined in a blockade of Venezuelan ports. The most explicit pledges were given to the United States of an intention to respect the American policy as it had been defined. No attempt was made forcibly to interfere with the execution by the powers of the particular measure of redress which they had adopted; but the good offices of the United States were, nevertheless, actively employed, with the result that the blockade was lifted and the adjustment of claims committed to tribunals of arbitration.

EFFORTS TO PROMOTE ARBITRATION.

Mr. Hay was a warm and consistent advocate of international arbitration. In his instructions to the American delegates to the peace conference at The Hague, he declared that the duty of sovereign states to promote international justice by all wise and effective means was second only to the fundamental necessity of preserving their own existence. On at least nine separate occasions he was concerned in the employment of international arbitration as the means of securing a just result. But he was not content with special applications; he sought to create a general and obligatory practice; and it may be said that his

last diplomatic work was his effort to bring about treaty relations under which arbitration should in certain classes of cases be systematically used. This work remains to be carried to a conclusion.

TREATY-MAKING UNDER MR. HAY.

With the vast growth of the country in all things, there is an inevitable and steady increase in the business of the departments at Washington. This increase adds to the already heavy burdens of the Secretary of State, to whose department Congress has seldom been generous. During Mr. Hay's administration of its affairs at least fifty-eight formal international agreements were concluded and put into force, most of them in the form of treaties. Of extradition treaties alone not less than fourteen were made. And as each treaty, or agreement, represents the result of a negotiation which, perhaps, was long and intricate, these examples may serve to illustrate the vast amount of current business for the transaction of which the Secretary of State must be responsible, most of it performed quietly and unobtrusively and without attracting general attention. It is needless to say that the hands of the Secretary of State should be strengthened by the provision of a force and equipment adequate to all his needs.

HAY, ROOSEVELT, AND PANAMA.

This sketch of Mr. Hay's diplomatic career would be incomplete without mention of the circumstance that it has now and then been opined by some persons, who failed to approve certain diplomatic transactions, that there was a lack of coincidence of views between him and President Roosevelt in matters of foreign policy. It is hardly probable that any President and Secretary of State ever perfectly agreed on all questions; but, apart from such minor differences of opinion as must always exist between men of independent thought and character, there is every reason to believe that President Roosevelt and Mr. Hay worked in entire harmony. Some of those who had spoken the praises of Mr. Hay wished to believe that he was not in sympathy with the President's course in the recognition of the republic of Panama, but of such a variance not the slightest evidence has ever been produced. There is certainly none in his able correspondence with General Reyes, in answer to the complaints of Colombia; and he no doubt spoke from conviction when he declared, in his address at Jackson, Mich., that the President, in his conduct of the Panama affair, "forged as perfect a bit of honest statecraft as this generation has seen."



THE RIDEAU CANAL LOCKS AT OTTAWA, CANADA.

CANADA'S CANAL SYSTEM.

BY M. M. WILNER.

PROBABLY no one ever has looked thoughtfully at a map of North America without noting the commercial possibilities offered by the wonderful chain of waterways that reach from the Atlantic coast into the very heart of the continent. Aside from the great fall at Niagara, nature has interposed only half-a-dozen rapids to interfere with the navigation of this remarkable system. Projects for overcoming these obstacles have been entertained ever since the occupation of the country by white men. The first canals built were designed to accommodate only batteaux, which were flat-bottomed and drew less than one foot of water. The locks were 6 feet wide and 30 feet long, with $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet of water on the sills. The remains of one of these canals may still be seen on the south bank of the St. Lawrence, at Point au Buisson. In 1804, they were enlarged to give a depth of 4 feet of water in the locks. They then admitted boats of 35 tons' cargo, which was their capacity during the War of 1812. Military necessities gave an impetus to canal-building at that time, but the work languished after the return of peace, and it was not until Canada had become a self-ruling province that the enterprise of opening the St. Lawrence was prosecuted with energy and carried to completion.

To-day it is possible for a vessel drawing not more than 14 feet of water to steam from any

ocean port in the world direct to Duluth or Chicago. In order to utilize the entire 2,384 miles of this water route it has been necessary to build only $73\frac{1}{2}$ miles of canal. The difference in level between Lake Superior and tide-water, which is 602 feet, is overcome by 48 locks, having a total lift of 551 feet. Nearly \$90,000,000 has been spent in the construction and improvement of these canals, and about \$20,000,000 more in their maintenance.

ST. LAWRENCE RIVER IMPROVEMENTS.

Few people who have not traveled upon it realize the great length of the St. Lawrence River. Its mouth, commercially speaking, is the Strait of Belle Isle, between Newfoundland and Labrador, that being the channel commonly used by vessels sailing to and from Europe. It is 826 miles from this strait to Quebec, and 986 miles to Montreal. Montreal is therefore nearly as far from the ocean as the mouth of the Ohio River is from the Gulf of Mexico. Yet it is classed as an ocean port. Not only is it accessible to any ordinary ocean vessel, but the tides of the Atlantic come to within a few miles of the city. This long channel always has been navigable for vessels drawing not more than 10 feet of water. Since 1888 the shoals between Montreal and Quebec have been dredged to a minimum depth of $27\frac{1}{2}$ feet, making a submerged canal

39½ miles long, which may properly be considered the first section of the Canadian canal system.

Just above Montreal are the famous Lachine rapids, the most turbulent in the river. Here begins the first of the canals proper. It is called the Lachine. It cuts across a bend in the river for a distance of 8½ miles, overcoming a fall of 45 feet with five locks. It was originally planned by Sir George Prevost in 1815 as a military work, but was not completed till 1825. At that time the depth of water in the locks was only 4½ feet. It has been twice enlarged since then. Two of the locks now have 16 feet of water on the sills, and the others 14 feet, which is the governing depth of the entire water route to the Great Lakes.

Above the Lachine rapids the river broadens out into what is called Lake St. Louis. Sixteen miles farther up is a succession of rapids called the Coteau, the Cedar, and the Cascade. To overcome these the Beauharnois Canal was built in 1845. It runs for 12 miles along the south bank of the river, and has 9 feet of water in the locks. This canal, however, has given way to the march of improvement. In 1892, the Canadian government began the building of the Soulanges Canal, on the north side of the river, and since its completion, seven years later, the old Beauharnois has been practically abandoned for navigation purposes, though it is still maintained as a power canal. The Soulanges is the newest and embodies the latest engineering ideas of any of the Canadian canals. It has been called the best modern canal in the world. It has cost nearly \$7,000,000, which is at the rate of about \$500,000 a mile, since the channel is 14 miles long. In this reach there are only two slight curves. The fall of 84 feet, which in the old Beauharnois required nine locks, is overcome in the Soulanges by four locks, each having a lift of 23½ feet. These are operated by electricity, which is generated by the power developed at the locks themselves. The same power furnishes electric light, which makes the



THE FIRST LOCKS OF THE RIDEAU CANAL, AT KINGSTON.

channel navigable at night. The canal is 100 feet wide on the bottom and 164 on the surface, and has 15 feet of water on the lock sills. A fine macadam highway runs along its bank. Highway bridges swing from the shore, dispensing with piers in the center of the channel. One of the difficulties encountered by the engineers was the crossing of three small streams which discharge into the St. Lawrence along the canal route. These have been depressed, and are carried under the channel through several 10-foot tubes.

A stretch of 33 miles of open water through Lake St. Francis leads to the entrance of the Cornwall Canal, which overcomes the Long Sault rapids, the most difficult of any in the river except the Lachine. This canal was originally built, in 1843, to accommodate boats of 9-foot draught. It has been practically rebuilt since 1890, bringing it up to the 14-foot standard. The old 9-foot locks are still maintained, however, and can be used by the smaller class of vessels. The new locks are 270 feet long and

45 feet wide. Six of them are required in a channel 11 miles long.

The three remaining artificial waterways along the St. Lawrence are collectively known as the Williamsburg canals, though there are several miles of river channel between them and each has its individual name. The first of these is the Farran's Point Canal, 1 mile long. Here a new lock, 800 feet long, has been built. It is capable of taking an entire tow at a time. Ten miles farther up the stream is the Rapide Plat Canal, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, with two locks of the standard type, and 4 miles farther on is the Galops Canal, with one guard and two lift locks, one of which has been carried out to a length of 800 feet. This canal is in two sections—the Iroquois and the Cardinal. They are really two separate canals, but are connected by an embankment which makes a channel known as the Junction Canal. The total length is $7\frac{1}{4}$ miles. The Cardinal section has been cut through a high bluff, on which stands the village of Cardinal. The government bought a part of the town and moved it out of the way. This cut is 68 feet deep at its highest point, and is 5,900

feet long. Its slopes are protected by masonry, making it one of the most interesting points along the entire route.

The whole St. Lawrence system has 43 miles of artificial channel and 26 locks, the total distance from Montreal to Kingston being 188 miles. There is one canal along the north shore of Lake Ontario, the Murray, giving a passage 5 miles long between the western end of the Bay of Quinte and the lake. This is used, however, only for local traffic.

AROUND NIAGARA FALLS.

By far the most famous of the Canadian canals is the Welland, though it is really of less importance to Canada than those along the St. Lawrence. This is shown by the fact that the quantity of freight passing up and down the St. Lawrence is a third greater each year than the quantity going through the Welland. Moreover, two-thirds of the vessels that use the Welland are under the flag of the United States, while on the St. Lawrence canals three-fourths of the vessels are Canadian. The Canadians, however, had connected Lake Erie and Lake Ontario with

a canal of sufficient dimensions to accommodate the lake vessels of that day, while the St. Lawrence was still closed to everything but batteaux, and this canal had reached the 14-foot depth twelve years before the St. Lawrence channels had been opened to vessels drawing more than 9 feet. The Welland now extends in a nearly straight line from Port Dalhousie, on Lake Ontario, to Port Colborne, on Lake Erie, a distance of $26\frac{1}{2}$ miles. In this short channel there are 25 lift locks and one guard lock. The total fall overcome is $326\frac{1}{2}$ feet. More than half the entire difference in elevation between Lake Superior and the lower St. Lawrence is encountered in this Welland peninsula. The locks are still of the standard 14-foot depth, to which they were enlarged in 1887, and are 270 feet long and 45 feet wide.

In addition to the main line of the canal, the government maintains the old chan-



THE FAMOUS TIMBER CANAL, OR CHUTE, FROM THE UPPER TO THE LOWER OTTAWA RIVER, PAST THE CHAUDIÈRE FALLS.

(A thrilling 100-foot downhill ride on a raft.)



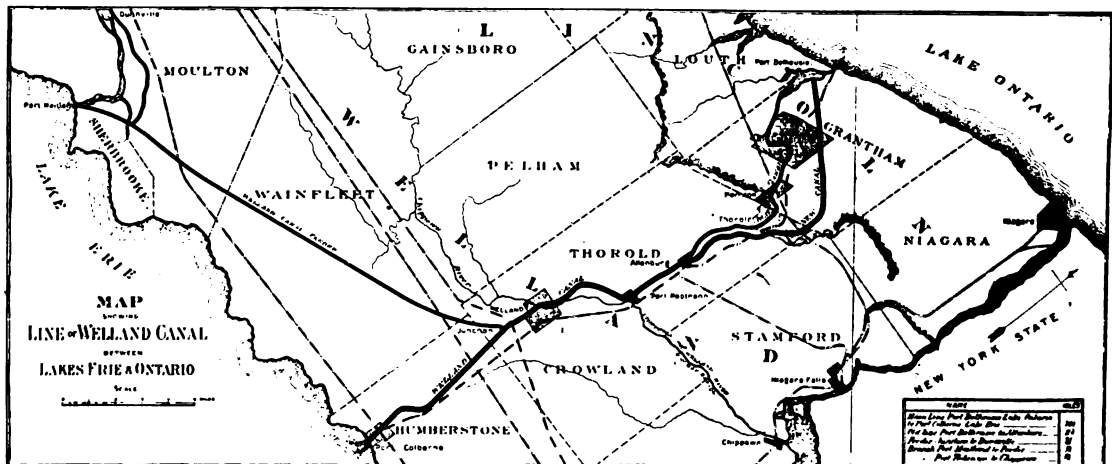
A SCENE ON THE WELLAND CANAL NEAR ST. CATHARINES.

nel for $11\frac{3}{4}$ miles, from Port Dalhousie southward, with a depth of $10\frac{1}{4}$ feet. At Port Robinson a junction is formed with the Chippewa or Welland River, which flows eastward into the Niagara just above the Canadian rapids. With only two locks, overcoming a fall of but 10 feet, a navigable channel, 9 feet 10 inches deep, is maintained by way of this river to the Niagara, but it is little used. Another 9-foot branch runs to Port Maitland, a few miles up the lake from Port Colborne, connecting with the Grand

River, which thus becomes the principal feeder for the main canal.

A BIT OF NATIONAL PRIDE.

The Welland Canal completes the water route from the ocean to the interior lakes, but there is one other important link in the chain, which was built, not because of an actual necessity, but to satisfy the desire of Canadians to have a through channel from Lake Superior in their own territory. This is the Sault Sainte Marie



MAP OF THE WELLAND CANAL, BETWEEN LAKES ERIE AND ONTARIO.

Canal, connecting Lake Superior and Lake Huron. The canal is only $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and consists practically of a single great lock 900 feet long and 60 feet wide, with 20 feet 3 inches of water on the sill. It has cost more than \$4,000,000. It is a trifle longer than the lock on the American side, but is of less width, and the American lock takes vessels of 21 feet draught. The American lock is the largest in the world. The two locks pass more tonnage each year than any other canal in the world. The proportion of the Canadian lock is from one-fifth to one-fourth of the total each season.

WATER ROUTE TO NEW YORK.

The only remaining ship canal in Canada is a stretch about half a mile long, at Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, connecting St. Peter's Bay with the Bras d'Or lakes. There are three barge systems, however, which deserve some attention. One of these has a special interest for Americans because it forms part of a complete water route, over 400 miles long, from Montreal or Quebec to New York. This is the Richelieu and Lake Champlain system. It extends from Sorel, at the confluence of the Richelieu and St. Lawrence rivers, to the international boundary. The distance is 81 miles. The natural channel of the Richelieu River is used for the greater part of the way. There are a dam and a lock at St. Ours, 14 miles south of Sorel, and 20 miles farther south the Chambly Canal begins, running for 12 miles along the river-bank. There are nine locks in this canal. The governing depth is 7 feet, which corresponds with that of the present Champlain Canal from Whitehall to Troy, though the Champlain will be deepened to 12 feet in a few years.

A more important system, commercially, follows the Ottawa River from its mouth, a few miles above Montreal, to Ottawa, 119 miles. This is all-river navigation except the Ste. Anne lock, at the head of Montreal Island, and the Carillon & Grenville Canal, $7\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, which contains 9-foot locks. At Ottawa, connection is made with the Rideau Canal, stretching southward 126 miles to Kingston, at the foot of Lake Ontario. About half of this waterway is artificial, the Rideau and Cataraqui rivers furnishing the remainder. There are 35 locks, but only 14 of them are used on the down trip. The governing navigation depth is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

SHORT-CUT TO LAKE HURON.

There is a remarkable chain of natural waterways forming almost a complete connection between Georgian Bay, the eastern projection of Lake Huron, and the Bay of Quinte, which is

the northern projection of Lake Ontario. It extends up the Trent River and through a succession of small lakes to Lake Balsam, thence to Lake Simcoe, and down the Severn River to Georgian Bay. The distance is 216 miles, and the only gap is the 19 miles between Lake Balsam and Lake Simcoe. This is called the Trent navigation system. About 66 miles of it are now unnavigable. Only about 20 miles of actual canal would be needed to open the whole route. Work now under way will make a continuous channel, 160 miles long, from Heely's Falls, 43



THE CANADIAN CANAL, AT SAULT SAINTE MARIE.

miles above Trenton, to Lake Simcoe. Only the terminal reaches will then have to be improved to change the Trent system from an interior to an interlake waterway, which, the Canadians hope, will prove a strong rival to the Erie Canal. The distance from Lake Huron to the St. Lawrence River by way of Lake Erie and the Welland Canal is over 500 miles, so there will be a saving of about 300 miles by the new channel. The Trent system will not be a ship canal, as has been erroneously represented by some American newspapers. The governing depth of water in the locks is only $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet. Moreover, the difficulties to be overcome are such that it is improbable that a ship canal ever will be attempted by this route.

The Trent system has become famous among engineers for the lock at Peterborough, about 100 miles northwest of Trenton. This lock, which is of the hydraulic type, makes a direct vertical lift of 65 feet. It is the only one of the kind on the continent, and the largest in the world. Two water-tight steel boxes, each holding 1,300 tons of water, ascend and descend

this line could be built for \$80,000,000, with only 40 miles of actual canal and 74 miles of improved river navigation, the remainder being natural channel. In practice, however, it would not pay to send costly lake or ocean vessels through such a long and narrow inland waterway.

Another project which has been discussed is to build a ship canal from Georgian Bay directly to Toronto. The distance is about 70 miles, which is nearly the length of the course now used by lake vessels from Lake Huron to Lake Erie through the St. Clair River and lake and the Detroit River. The work, however, would be expensive, and the commercial results doubtful.

WELL WORTH DOING.

Taken as a whole, the Canadian canals represent a very creditable degree of enterprise. As commercial competitors with other trade routes, they claim their share of commerce, and they must always have a healthful, regulating effect on freight rates. They transport about one third more through freight each season to Montreal than is carried from Buffalo to New York by the

present Erie Canal. Montreal's grain receipts by both lake and rail in 1904 were about one-fifth those of Buffalo by lake alone. The typical boat using the Welland and the St. Lawrence canals is 247 by 42.6 feet. Such a boat can carry 68,000 bushels of grain or 3,000 tons of iron ore. The newest lake boats run as high as 569 feet in length and 56 feet beam. The trip down the St. Lawrence has some advantage over the return voyage, inasmuch as vessels have to use only the Cornwall, Soulanges, and Lachine canals. The rapids opposite the other canals can be run easily. All the rapids are run by passenger steamers built especially for the purpose, but this is done only to make the trip more interesting to tourists. A great disadvantage of the route is the high insurance charged on vessels traversing the lower St. Lawrence. Through voyages from the ocean to the upper lakes have not generally proved profitable.

But while the expectations of visionary people have not been, and probably never will be, realized, the Canadian canals amply repay the cost of building and maintaining them.

ELECTRIC TRACTION ON GERMAN RIVERS AND CANALS.

AN interesting solution of the river and canal traction problem has been attempted on the Feltow Canal, in Germany. The question to be decided was that of some rapid and cheap means of traction. Tugs could not be used, as the canal is too narrow. The engineers, therefore, had recourse to electric traction upon the towing-path; but there was the difficulty, how not to hamper work on the banks in any way.

This canal, which traverses an industrial region, forms a kind of port throughout the whole of its length. Pinnacles are always lying along its banks, in order to take in or discharge cargo, and it is essential that the cable serving to draw the boats should always pass above the masts (about four meters in height) of the pinnacles or barges arranged along the banks of the canal or traveling in the opposite direction.

A competitive exhibition was organized, in which the chief German electrical firms participated. The victory was carried off by Siemens & Schuckert with an electric locomotive of a special type, which was first tested for a period of two months. A small generating station was put up, and supplied continuous current of 550 volts to the motors of the locomotive by means

of a double-conductor trolley line. The engine weighs 6.5 tons, including two 8-horse-power motors driving the axles, of which there are three, by means of double gearing.

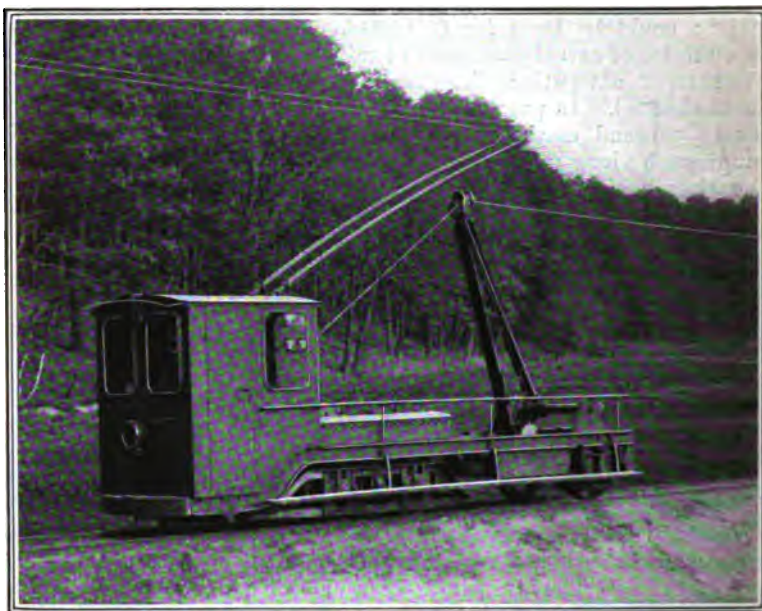
The two live axles are mounted on a bogie. Immediately behind the engine driver's cab,—which is, of course, in front of the vehicle and entirely closed in by glass,—there is the towing-winch, which is not rigidly fixed to its shaft, but connected therewith by means of a friction coupling which commences to slide at a fixed strain. On leaving the winch the towing-cord passes through an eye made at the end of an iron rod situated upon the rear axle of the locomotive. This rod is adapted to pivot on its base, and can be raised or lowered by the aid of a 1-horse-power motor. The cord is then attached to the vessel to be towed. To enable the machine to withstand the strain put upon it by the towing-cord, its weight is not symmetrically distributed.

The rail on the land side carries 85 per cent. of the weight of the locomotive, while the rail on the bank side carries 15 per cent. The towing tests were made with barges, one of which measured 53 meters in length, 7.80 meters in

width, and having a draught of 1.70 meters with a load of 400 tons. The second was 48 meters in length, 6.50 meters in width, with a draught of 1.30 meters under a load of 320 tons; the third was 45 meters in length, 4.60 meters in width, with a draught of 1.50 meters under a load of 190 tons; and, finally, the fourth was 45 meters in length, 4.50 meters in width, with a draught of 1.40 meters under a load of 154 tons. When running empty, the locomotive consumes 4.5 amperes at a speed of 5 kilometers per hour, and 8.5 amperes at a speed of 10 kilometers. The tension is always 550 volts. In some of the tests the towing-rope measured 78 meters in length, and the iron rod supporting it was 3.90 meters above the water.

First, one of the barges was towed, and then groups of two, three, and four barges. At a mean speed of 4.02 kilometers per hour the traction resistance was about 0.954 kilograms per ton-load, with a consumption of 0.014 kilowatts per ton; in this case, 5.6 watts-hours were

required per each ton-mile of load. It was found that the traction resistance increased about 15 per cent. when the barges were near the bank of the canal, while it decreased by nearly 10 per cent. directly two boats passed or crossed each other. For short towing lengths the resistance increased very rapidly.



ELECTRIC MOTOR USED ON THE FELTOW CANAL.



TOWING CANAL-BOATS BY ELECTRIC MOTOR ON THE FELTOW CANAL, GERMANY.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE DUTCH PERIODICALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN HOLLAND, BELGIUM, AND SWITZERLAND.

MANY of the most highly prized of our national American characteristics have come to us from the Dutch ancestors of our oldest families. No more clearly is this shown than in the independence of our thought, particularly in the press. The Dutch press has always been noted for its independence and for the extent of its field. There are a dozen or more high-class illustrated monthly reviews and popular magazines which have the world for their field.

The sturdy moral, religious, and mental qualities of the Dutch people are shown strikingly by the fact that the premier of the kingdom up to a few weeks ago was Dr. Kuyper, head of the Conservative Church and editor of the *Standaard*, a great daily, which is counted the chief of the clerical organs, besides being a fine progressive journal. The first editor, head of a great church, and prime minister,—in no country of the world except Holland would this be possible.

The literary and mechanical finish of the

Dutch monthlies is unsurpassed. *De Gids* (The Guide), of Amsterdam, devotes itself to literary and descriptive articles, and to political discussion of a very advanced tone. *Onze Eeuw* (Our Century), of Haarlem, is more conservative, but fully as influential. *Elsevier's* (*Elsevier's Geillustreerd Maandschrift*—Elsevier's Illustrated Monthly), published in Amsterdam, is perhaps the best illustrated monthly published in The Netherlands. In make-up it resembles the *Century* or *Harper's*. *Boon's Magazyn* (Amsterdam) is somewhat cheaper in form, but well illustrated and of immense circulation. *De Hollandsche Revue* (Haarlem) is conducted in much the same way as the English and American *Reviews*. It has original features, and reviews and translations. It is well illustrated. The editor, Frans Netscher, is a well-known writer, belonging to the younger school of Dutch literary men, and a follower of Zola.

The Dutch have an influential and extensive weekly press. The *Amsterdammer* (*Weekblad voor*



MR. FRANS NETSCHER.
(Editor of the *Hollandsche Revue*.)



MR. CHARLES BOISSEVAIN.
(Editor of the *Algemeen Handelsblad*.)



DR. A. KUYPER.
(Editor of the *Standaard*.)

Nederland—Weekly for The Netherlands) is very advanced politically, and a finely edited review of the week. It is generally known as *De Groene* (The Green), on account of its green cover, and is exceedingly popular through the fine cartoon work of Joh. Braakensiek, whose cartoons are often reproduced in this REVIEW. *De Prins* (The Prince), of Amsterdam, is another popular and progressive weekly. *Eigen Haard* (Our Own Hearth), also of Amsterdam, is old-fashioned, but solid, while *Aarde en haer Volken* (the Earth and Its Peoples), of Amsterdam, is especially known for its descriptions of different countries. It is well illustrated, and is to the Dutch what *Autour du Monde* is to the French.

Daily journalism among the Dutch is dignified, progressive, and highly influential. In political character, the principal Dutch newspapers are divided between the two great parties,—the Liberal and Conservative. The two great Liberal supporters are *Het Algemeen Handelsblad* (The General Trade Journal), of Amsterdam, and the *Nieuwe Rotterdamse Courant* (New Rotterdam Newspaper), of Rotterdam. The editor of the former is Charles Boissevain, a well-known political and economic writer. The Conservative, anti-revolutionary, and clerical organ is *De Standaard* (Amsterdam), edited by Dr. A. Kuyper, a remarkably clever man and a writer of many books. Another newspaper which supports the clericals is *Het Nieuws van den Dag* (The News of the Day), published in Amsterdam, perhaps the most popular journal in the country. It is read in every town and hamlet. It has a circulation of forty thousand, which for a population of five and one-half millions is a good deal.

THE PERIODICAL PRESS OF BELGIUM.

Although a great quantity of French and German printed matter is read in Belgium and all the large French and German periodicals (particularly the French) are largely patronized, the Belgians have an extensive periodical literature of their own in the French and Flemish languages, and some in the Walloon language. There are comparatively few Belgian monthlies or weeklies, but many strong and influential dailies.

The Belgian daily press may be said to be almost exclusively partisan. Politics enters largely into the daily life of the Belgians. There are three great parties,—Conservative, Liberal, and Socialist,—the first two dividing the country. The best-known and most influential journals are, of course, published in Brussels. At present, the Conservative, or Catholic, party is in power, and its principal organs are the *Journal de Bruxelles*, the organ of the present ministry, the *Patriote*, and the *Vingtième Siècle* (Twentieth Century). Outside of the capital, the best-known Conservative papers are the *Bien Public* (Public Good), of Ghent, a purely clerical organ, and the *Metropole*, of Antwerp, a Catholic commercial journal. The Liberal party in the capital numbers among its supporters the veteran and world-famous *Indépendance Belge*, the *Étoile Belge*, and the *Chronique*. The *Indépendance Belge* is one of the best-edited and most influential daily newspapers of Europe,—indeed, of the world. Its news service is excellent, and its editorial page far-famed, particularly for its opinions on international topics. The editor is, perhaps, the best-known Belgian journalist, Roland de Marés, who, though an opponent of the



IMPORTANT BELGIAN PUBLICATIONS.

party in power, supports the government's policy in the Congo. The *Indépendance Belge* is a very old journal, and formerly, when France was an empire, it had considerable influence among the French people generally. This journal has a wide circulation throughout the Continent.

The two minor parties, the Progressive and Socialistic, also have their organs, the *Réforme* and the *Peuple*, of Brussels. All these journals are printed in French, which is the dominant language of the kingdom. There are, however, many influential and popular journals in the Flemish language. Among these, the best-known and longest-established are *Het Laatste Nieuws* (The Last News), in Brussels, and *Het Handelsblad* (The Business Journal), published in Antwerp.



MR. ROLAND DE MARÈS.
(Editor *L'Indépendance Belge*.)

Among the reviews and weeklies are the *Revue Générale*, the *Revue de Belgique*, and the two illustrated weeklies, the *Belgique Illustrée* and the *National Illustré*. Then there is the important, influential sheet, the *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels* (Monitor of Material Interests), and also the authoritative official publication of the government, the *Moniteur Belge*.

THE SWISS PRESS.

The daily press of Switzerland, particularly that in the German and French languages, is among the oldest in Europe. The *Ordinäre Wochenzeitung*, founded in Basle in 1610, but which suspended publication one year later, is claimed to have been the first newspaper published beyond the Alps. About 1633, Zurich received her first newspaper, the *Wöchentliche Ordinäre und Extraordinäre Zeitung*. The oldest newspaper published in Switzerland to-day is the *Zürchische Freitagszeitung*, in Zurich, founded in 1683. This journal was published by a family named Bürkli for over one hundred and eighty years. There are fourteen Swiss dailies existing to-day which were founded between 1758 and 1799: The Swiss people, while they patronize largely the periodical press of Germany, France, and Italy, have an excellent and influential daily press of their own. It is only in the monthlies and weeklies that they depend on other European countries for their reading. At present there are, in round numbers, about 1,000 journals, 584 of these being in German, 326 in French, 36 in Italian, 6 in English, 3 in Romanish, and 45 in various other languages. The oldest are published in Basle and Geneva. Among the best-known of the Swiss journals, at home or abroad, are: In German, the *Bund*, of Berne; the *Anzeiger*, of Basle; the *Tagblatt*, the *Post*, and the *Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, of Zurich; the *Vaterland*, of Lucerne, and the *Oberland*, of Interlaken. In French, the *Journal de Genève*, of Geneva, and the *Gazette de Lausanne* and the *Suisse Libérale*, of

Neuchâtel. And in Italian, the *Dovere*, of Bellinzona, and the *Gazzetta Ticinese*, of Lugano. These dailies are of the same general typographical form, and contain the same general contents, as the German and French dailies. In the dailies of the smaller towns there is a great deal of commercial news about the local district. The *Bund*, of Berne, is in many respects the most influential Swiss daily. Its editor, Dr. M. Bühler, is a well-known Swiss politician. The *National Zeitung*, of Basle, was up to a few months ago edited by a well-known Swiss public man, Dr. Émile Frey, formerly Swiss minister to the United States. The *Zürcher Tagblatt* is also a very old and influential Zurich daily. Other Swiss papers in German of age and influence are: *Aargauer Tagblatt*, of Aarau; *Appenzeller Zeitung*, of Herisau; the *Basler Nachrichten*, of Basle; the *Lucerner Tagblatt*, of Lucerne; the *Intelligenzblatt*, of Berne; the *Solothurner Tagblatt* and the *Obwaldner Volksfreund*, of Unterwalden; the *Zuger Volksblatt*, of Zug, and the *Gottthard Post* and the *Freie Rhätier*, of Glarus.

The *Journal de Genève* is the most influential journal in French. Its political articles are considered particularly strong, and at present

it reflects the proceedings of the Swiss federal council. Other well-known French dailies are: the *National Suisse*, of Chaux de Fonds; the *Jura Bernois*, of St. Imier; the *Nouvelliste Vaudois*, of Lausanne; and the *Liberté*, of Fribourg. Papers of particular interest in commercial matters are: the *Intelligenzblatt*, of Schaffhausen, and the *Handels Kurier*, of Biel. In Samaden is published the *Fögl d'Engiadina*, in the Romanish language. Among the weeklies, the ones best known are the *Aargauisches Wochenblatt*, of Aarau, and the cartoon journal, *Nebelspalter*, of Zurich. There is also an illustrated descriptive fortnightly entitled *Die Schweiz*. The best-known monthly is the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse*, of Lausanne.

Thanks to the absolute freedom of the press in Switzerland, no government censorship existing, there is perhaps a larger number of refugee and anarchist organs published in Switzerland than in any other country. The *Iskra*, organ of the Russian Socialist (Democratic Revolutionary) Labor party, is published in Geneva, and so is the *Razsviet*, another Russian revolutionary organ. In Geneva, also, is published the Italian anarchist revolutionist sheet, the *Risveglio*.



A FEW OF THE BEST-KNOWN PERIODICALS OF SWITZERLAND.

(*Il Dovere* and the *Gazzetta Ticinese* are printed in Italian; the *Gazette de Lausanne*, the *Nouvelliste Vaudois*, the *Suisse Libérale*, and the *Journal de Genève* are printed in French; and the *Bund*, the *Nebelspalter*, and the *Neue Zürcher Zeitung* are printed in German.)



A NEAR VIEW OF THE MOUNT WILSON TRAIL, IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

THE SOLAR OBSERVATORY ON MOUNT WILSON.

BY PAUL P. FOSTER.

THE Solar Observatory of the Carnegie Institution is the newest and loftiest astronomical observatory in the United States. It is situated on the summit of Mount Wilson, in southern California, nearly 6,000 feet above the sea, which is thirty miles away, and is not far distant from the cities of Pasadena and Los Angeles.

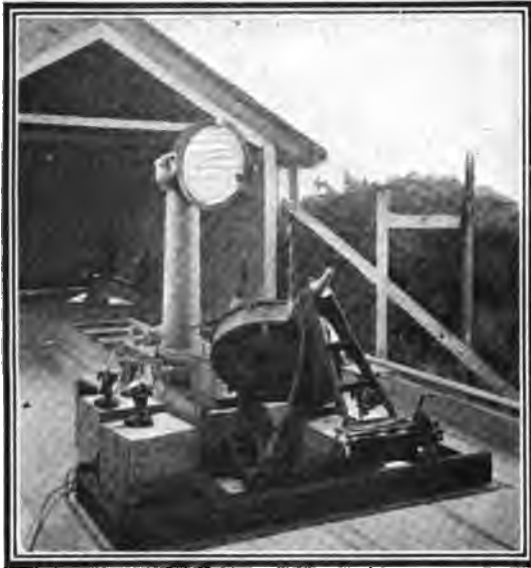
The observatory has been established for the special purpose of studying the sun and the problems of stellar evolution. Its instruments will be employed in making daily computations of the volume of solar radiation, to determine whether changes are taking place in the amount of heat which the earth receives from the sun; while the stars and nebulae will be constantly observed by the most highly developed instruments of modern times. Under the very favorable conditions existing at Mount Wilson, and by the aid of the new and wonderful instruments which modern astronomy is developing, it is expected that great advances will be made in our knowledge of the heavenly bodies.

The importance of the study of solar conditions has long been recognized by astronomers. The sun is the star nearest the earth, the next

nearest of which we have knowledge being 300,000 times more distant. While great improvements have been made in the instruments adapted for solar study, the unfavorable conditions existing at all the older observatories have seriously interfered with the study of the sun, and only one of the twenty-two great refracting telescopes has been regularly employed in solar work.

After long and careful investigation of possible sites, it was found that almost ideal conditions existed at Mount Wilson. Its summit is covered with trees, thus preventing the radiation from the slopes of the mountain present at other elevated observatories; the prevailing atmosphere is clear and calm, and a cloudy or stormy day is a rarity. These considerations led the management of the Carnegie Institution to make a large grant of funds for the establishment of an observatory at Mount Wilson for the study of solar conditions, with adequate provision for its maintenance during at least ten years, the usual length of what is termed "a sun-spot period."

Within the past few months two important telescopes have been located upon Mount Wil-



THE PLANE MIRRORS ON COELOSTAT PIER.

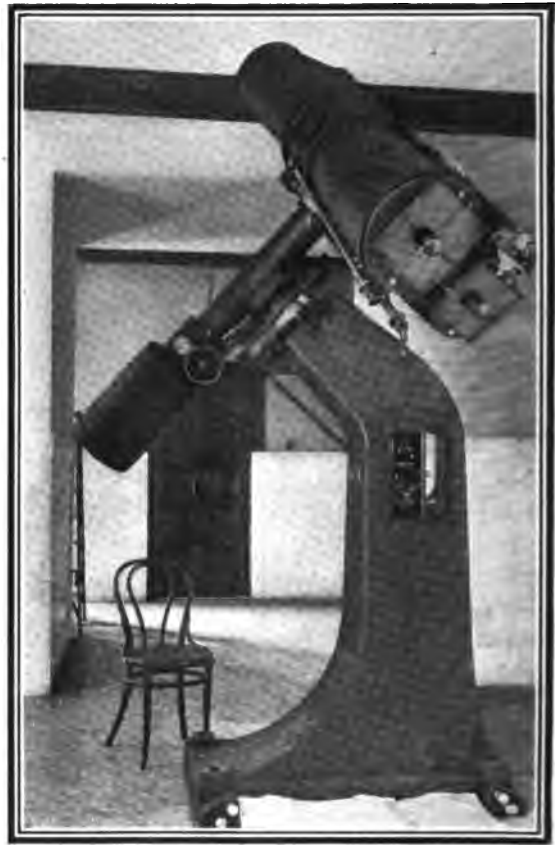
son, a permanent building for the astronomers and staff called "The Monastery" has been erected, and the complete equipment of a modern observatory is rapidly being installed.

The two large telescopes now employed are



THE BRUCE TELESCOPE.

widely different in their construction and purpose. The larger is the Snow telescope, a reflector very unlike the ordinary refracting telescope so familiar to all. This remarkable instrument consists of a series of mirrors arranged on a succession of granite pedestals and housed in a steel framework, over two hundred feet in length, with canvas walls. Steel guy ropes, anchored to large masses of concrete, pre-



THE BRUCE TELESCOPE.

(For photographic work on nebulae and stars.)

vent the structure from being blown over in the gales of winter. The coelostat pier, which is the end containing the plane mirrors, stands on a slope of the mountain, its focal axis being thirty-five feet from the ground. Two plane mirrors receive the sun's rays and reflect them the entire length of the framework upon two great concave mirrors, each two feet in diameter and of different focal lengths, which focus the rays upon screens, producing images of the sun seven and sixteen inches in diameter. In studying these images an instrument called the spectroheliograph is employed, by which

the sun's image can be examined in a selected light and information may be gained regarding the chemical composition of the sun. A five-foot mirror is already being prepared, and will eventually be mounted, when the observatory will be provided with the largest and finest reflector in the world for solar observations.

The other important instrument now in active use is the Bruce photographic telescope, an instrument designed exclusively for the purpose of photographing stars and nebulae. It has a short focus and a wide field, and by its means remarkable photographs of the vast star clouds of the Milky Way have been obtained, which picture those stupendous regions on a relatively large scale and with exquisite definition. The Bruce telescope was completed and erected at the Yerkes Observatory, at Williams Bay, Wis., in 1904, and late in that year was transferred to Mount Wilson, from the lower

latitude of which it is expected to reach portions of the Milky Way unattainable from the latitude of Wisconsin. The more transparent at-



THE SOUTH END OF THE SNOW TELESCOPE HOUSE, SHOWING GREAT COELOSTAT PIER.



A SIDE VIEW OF THE SNOW TELESCOPE HOUSE.



"THE MONASTERY."



LIBRARY IN "THE MONASTERY."

mosphere of Mount Wilson will also make it possible to photograph some of the great diffused nebulosities which are obscured by the denser air at lower levels.

"The Monastery," which contains the offices and quarters of the staff of astronomers and assistants, is an adaptation of the ancient Mission style

To transport building materials and equipment up the steep, roadless sides of the mountain was no easy task. It is a fifteen-mile trip to Pasadena, the nearest city, nine miles of this up a steep and narrow trail impassable for ordinary teams. The lighter materials were carried on mule-back, and the heavier portions on a truck, facetiously termed the "mountain automobile," which was designed especially for the purpose. It is constructed of four automobile wheels, twenty-eight inches in diameter, with heavy rubber tires. The wheels are but two feet apart, on account of the narrow trail, and the bed of the truck hangs within six inches of the ground. The truck is provided with steer-



THE SPECIAL CARRIAGE DESIGNED FOR CARRYING HEAVY MACHINERY UP THE TRAIL.

of architecture of California to twentieth-century needs. Each member of the staff has a small bedroom, with a tiny private office or "cell" adjoining, and a large, attractive room whose central feature is a great stone fireplace serves as office, library, and living-room. "The Monastery" commands an extended view of the neighboring mountains and the cities of Pasadena and Los Angeles, with the Pacific Ocean in the distant background,



A PACK TRAIN WITH BUILDING MATERIALS.



A VIEW OF MOUNT WILSON, SHOWING APPARATUS BEING HAULED UP THE TRAIL.

ing-gear for each pair of wheels ; one man leads the single large horse, another manipulates the forward steering-gear, while a third, walking behind, handles the tiller which steers the rear wheels. A thousand pounds can be hauled at a load, and over three hundred tons of materials have been carried up the mountain in this unique manner.

It is the confident opinion of experienced astronomers that the location of this magnificently equipped solar observatory at Mount Wilson, where the prevailing conditions are more favorable than at any other known site, is certain to yield many important results, and to add greatly to our knowledge of the great luminary upon which our earth is so dependent.



A VIEW OF PASADENA AND LOS ANGELES FROM MOUNT WILSON—PASADENA IN FOREGROUND.

THE COMING ECLIPSE OF THE SUN.

BY P. T. M'GRATH.

JUST now Labrador is the Mecca of the scientist and the tourist; for several astronomical expeditions are located there from the United States and Canada, to observe the eclipse of the sun which occurs on the morning of August 30, and to secure all the scientific data obtainable of this stupendous phenomenon, while shiploads of amateur astronomers and sightseeing tourists have been conveyed to the coast,—the former to devote attention to the picturesque rather than the technical details of the affair, and the latter to enjoy a spectacle which is one of the rarest and most sublime that nature vouchsafes to man's astonished gaze.

It is true that the eclipse will also be visible in sections of Europe and Africa, but for the American public the greatest interest will center in Labrador, because of the comparative proximity of the peninsula, the concentration of American scientific effort there, and the development of the tourist-spectator appendage to a purely scientific function, there probably being more non-professional Americans in a position to witness this marvel at a small cost and with little inconvenience than usually happens, particularly as a most interesting country is being seen besides.

The accompanying map shows the path of the eclipse across Labrador, the interior of which being unsettled and the conveyance of equipments there impossible, astronomers have been obliged to establish themselves on the seaboard, though by proceeding up the heads of the inlets the liability to fog or mist is greatly minimized. The shadow-track begins at sunrise near Lake Winnipeg, traverses Labrador south of Hudson Bay—as the map indicates—enters the Atlantic Ocean north of Newfoundland, and crosses the seas to Spain, where it is visible about noon, thence striking across the Mediterranean to Algeria and Tunis, and extending to Egypt and Arabia, where it ends at sunset. The duration of totality in Labrador is two and one-half minutes; in Spain, three and three-quarters minutes; and in Egypt, two and three-fifths minutes. The width of the belt of total eclipse on the earth's surface is 167 miles, the width of the penumbra (partial eclipse) 4,000 miles, and the velocity of the moon's shadow per hour 4,200 miles. Passengers on Atlantic steamers will, according to their position, see the eclipse as total or nearly

total, and the period the eclipse will be in progress, from the time the shadow begins till it ends, will be about two and one-half hours.

THE TRUE SIGNIFICANCE OF A SOLAR ECLIPSE.

A total eclipse of the sun is perhaps the most majestic sight in nature, and one that if seen can never be forgotten. It is so rarely that it occurs under circumstances and in regions favorable to its minute observation by experts that when the conditions promise to be satisfactory astronomers are content to journey to even the most remote parts of the world where the small round black surface of the moon creeps across the surface of the earth. Thus it arose that in 1860 an astronomical party proceeded to the then virtually unknown and unpeopled coast of Labrador to observe a solar eclipse under conditions somewhat similar to those that exist now, having to be transported there by schooner, and having to endure hardships which are, fortunately, not to be feared in the present instance. The last total eclipse in the British Isles occurred as long ago as 1724, and there will not be another till 1927.

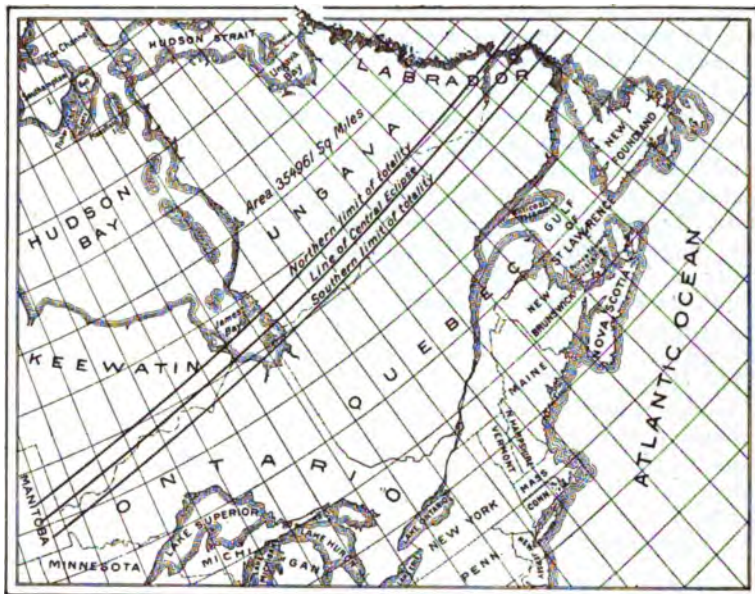
In these days of popular astronomy for the million it seems scarcely necessary to describe at length what a solar eclipse means. Suffice it to say that it is a temporary blanketing of the sun by the moon coming between it and the earth. Both the sun and the moon are of the same apparent size, but at times the moon, in her orbit, seems to be decidedly the larger, and if then the moon passes exactly between the earth and the sun a total solar eclipse ensues and is visible as such at those portions of the earth within the shadow-track, and as a partial eclipse along a broad strip on either side of this.

The shadow thrown on a blank wall by any globular body held between a lighted lamp and the wall is a simple and homely illustration of an eclipse. The shadow will be seen to be much darker in the middle than at the edges, and the former is known scientifically as the umbra, while the lesser haze is termed the penumbra. If the observer now so stations himself that his eye views the globular body from the center of the umbra, the lamp is seen to be entirely hidden, but when viewed from the penumbra part of the lamp, is visible. Such is precisely what happens in a solar eclipse. For two or three

minutes the moon completely hides the sun, and the light of the latter is shut off from the observers on this earth ; but because of the distance the three planets are from one another, the shadow of the moon is cast on only a small portion of the earth's surface. Where the eclipse is total, or almost so, the light enjoyed at the greatest phase, or middle of the eclipse, will be similar to that of a bright moonlit night.

The scientific interest in a solar eclipse is not due to the obscuration of the sun, but to the opportunity which this affords of observing the other phenomena to which such an occurrence gives rise during the few minutes that the eclipse lasts, this being the only chance for such observations to be carried on until another eclipse ensues. Although the sun when viewed with the naked eye or through smoked glasses appears as a clear disk of light, and a telescope exhibits a mottled surface known as "sun spots," yet when a total eclipse takes place there is revealed to the observer a glorious halo or corona which forms the outer atmosphere of the sun and which is wholly invisible at ordinary times because the tremendous glare from the central part of the sun overpowers and absorbs this lesser radiance. When the moon totally shuts out the sun there is seen around the black body of the moon this halo or glory of light, brightest near the place of the concealed sun, but fading away outward until lost in the general tint of the sky.

It is the visibility of this corona and the revelation of the details of the chromosphere, as the outer atmosphere is called, that make solar eclipses of such supreme consequence in the eyes of astronomers, and in the eyes of spectators one of the grandest and most striking of astronomical phenomena. The body of the sun under normal conditions presents a brilliant surface known as the photosphere, which radiates to us our light and heat. Above this is a layer of gases known as the reversing layer, which absorbs portions of the sun's light and produces the well-known dark lines in the solar spectrum. At total eclipses, when the disk of the sun is cut off, this layer has been seen to produce a bright line spectrum, showing it to be glowing gas.



MAP SHOWING PATH OF THE SOLAR ECLIPSE, TO TAKE PLACE ON AUGUST 30, 1905.

Above this is a gaseous envelope known as the chromosphere, through which burst great flames of hydrogen and metallic vapors. Then come the remarkable streamers of the corona, frequently extending out three or four million miles from the sun's disk. Too faint to be seen in sunlight, yet as soon as the sun's disk is covered this pale yet striking halo springs into view. Partly shining with its own light, and partly with reflected light, its exact nature is not yet entirely settled. It is remarkable as containing an element not yet found on earth.

EXPEDITIONS OF AMERICAN ASTRONOMERS.

The most important astronomical expedition from the United States is that dispatched by the Lick Observatory, of California. It is headed by Dr. Heber Curtis and Prof. Joel Stebbins, who have an adequate force of assistants. Its location is Cartwright, a Hudson Bay Company's post, in Sandwich Bay, Labrador, about one hundred and fifty miles north of Belle Isle Strait. One of the most important tasks which this expedition undertakes is that of discovering, if possible, the intramercorial planet Vulcan, the existence of which within the solar region has been asserted by some astronomers, though it has never been positively determined. The solar corona is to be photographed by means of four cameras of five inches' aperture and forty feet focus, fed from a coelostat, with a mirror fourteen inches in diameter, and it is hoped that the supposed planet may show itself during

some of these exposures, while spectrographs will be used to obtain a continuous record of changes in the spectrum of the sun's edge at the time of the second and third contacts.

Eight or ten smaller parties of American scientists, operating on their own account, have established themselves at other points along Labrador, that region being regarded as the most likely to give the best results, because of the eclipse occurring at sunrise, the improbability of fog hampering them at the points up the inlets with which the coast is seamed, and the remoteness of the region assuring the observers against interference from any other cause. Abbé Moreau, a famous astronomer of Paris, in a recent magazine article on the subject, expressed a strong preference for Labrador because of these facts, and hence the number of minor expeditions there, though several contingents of European, and two or three of American, astronomers are located in Spain and Egypt.

PLANS OF THE CANADIAN GOVERNMENT.

The Canadian government has sent out on this occasion the first astronomical expedition it has ever equipped. It is in charge of Prof. W. H. King, chief astronomer, with Mr. J. S. Plaskett as his assistant and six members of the Royal Astronomical Society of Canada as observers, while four members of the Greenwich Observatory staff, invited by the Dominion cabinet to participate, have accepted the invitation, the combined party leaving Quebec on the steamer *King Edward* on August 3 for Northwest River, a Hudson Bay Company post in Hamilton Inlet, 60 miles north of Cartwright. Their equipment is very complete, consisting of a three-thousand-dollar coelostat and four cameras for photographic work, and, in addition to these, for spectrographic work, there will be a Brashear three-prism train spectroscope, and also a number of telescopes to be used for visual observations.

The coelostat consists essentially of a plane mirror moved by clockwork at such a rate that the direction of the beam of sunlight reflected from its silvered surface is stationary. The mirror the Canadian observers will use is twenty inches in diameter, and the nearly circular beam from it is to be sent in a horizontal direction into four cameras and three spectroscopes. The cameras, which are chiefly to be used for photographing the corona, have focal lengths of about 6½, 10, 10, and 44 feet, respectively, and they will produce images of the sun of about ⅔, 1½, 1½, and 5 inches, respectively.

The sublime spectacle of a total solar eclipse is constituted by the gradual mysterious blotting out of the orb of day, the increasing gloom, the

weird atmospheric effects, the darkening of the sky until the planets and stars appear, and then the sun vanishes absolutely, while at the same moment the corona is revealed in all its splendor, its dazzling fires streaming outward for a brief space like the aurora borealis magnified and intensified a thousandfold, and then vanishing again as suddenly. The non-professional observer, who is free to watch the general effects that attend a solar eclipse, obtains a far better idea of it as a spectacle than does the astronomer, who has to devote his whole attention to one particular feature and misses the grandeur of the display as a whole. However, in view of the fact that complete sets of cinematograph views of the eclipse are to be taken in the present instance, it will probably be possible for everybody to witness a reproduction of the phenomena in a few months in music halls and theaters.

EXPLORING LABRADOR.

Availing himself of the scientific interest thus developed with regard to Labrador this summer, Sir William MacGregor, the distinguished explorer of New Guinea, who won the Founders' Medal of the Royal Geographical Society for his researches in the interior of that previously untraveled region, and who is now governor of Newfoundland, has organized an independent expedition to determine the longitude of the principal points on that coast, fixing the position of the stations occupied by scientific parties observing the eclipse, and himself carrying on important astronomical, meteorological, and tidal observations.

Between the mass of scientific data accumulated by the observers of the eclipse, who will be there for some weeks before that special phenomenon occurs and will be devoting themselves to other subjects in the meantime, and the comprehensive investigations of Sir William MacGregor's party, the world's knowledge of Labrador is likely to be substantially enlarged and a number of scientific problems arising with respect to it disposed of for all time.

As regards the eclipse, the only disappointment for the astronomers and other watchers will be if the sky be veiled by fog, cloud, or storm. In such a case, the observing of the corona would not be possible with any prospects of success, but remarkable atmospheric effects are always observable. People in northern areas, where it will appear as a partial eclipse, will see the sun in the curious form of a crescent, varying in size according to the locality where it is observed being near to or remote from the path of the total eclipse.

PROGRESS OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION.

BY E. J. DILLON.

[Dr. Dillon writes from first-hand knowledge and after several years' residence in the Russian capital.]

THE other day a prominent American citizen inquired of a Russian friend whom he unexpectedly came across in Paris how the Czarism was progressing after the reforms. "What reforms?" asked the Muscovite, brusquely. "Why, all the improvements announced by Nicholas II. about which we have been reading during the past twelvemonth or more. They were ushered in by a public statement from the throne to the effect that the whole system of government was rotten, that the administration must at all costs be transformed, and that the Czar had a plan for regenerating it. That was the promise, and unless the press of the United States and Europe was greatly mistaken, the fulfillment began soon afterward. I certainly read of one imperial commission appointed to give to labor what is due to labor, of another to satisfy the pressing needs of the peasants, of a third to curtail the arbitrary power wielded by officials; and it is matter of common knowledge that soon afterward his majesty himself proclaimed liberty of conscience in his dominions and promised to convoke a representative assembly. Are not these measures worthy to be called reforms? If not, what do you term them?" The Czar's subject made answer: "They are words, not deeds; the tinsel of promise, not the gold of achievement."

And he then went on to say: "I am reminded of a curious conversation which took place many years ago between a foreigner and one of our provincial governors,—a most capricious tyrant, wont to flog, imprison, and banish his peasants without rhyme or reason, ruth or fear. The Frenchman whom he had invited to spend a fortnight with him was horrified on the very first day of his sojourn by the utter contempt of justice and humanity which the official displayed vaingloriously. 'But am I to understand, then, that you have no laws at all in the empire?' the republican asked, in amazement. 'Laws, indeed,' the governor repeated, contemptuously. 'Why, man, we have over eighty folio volumes of them! You won't easily beat that record, *mon ami*. Believe me, we take the lead of the world in the matter of laws.' Well, the reforms of which you speak thus feelingly are not even in so advanced a stage as were the contents of those eighty-odd volumes.

As yet they are not entered in any statute book, but only written—as our people picturesquely put it—with a pitchfork on the waters of the ocean."

WHY REFORMS ARE IMPOSSIBLE.

Six paces forward and half-a-dozen backward would seem to be the rule followed by Russian officials in the work of administrative regeneration. They cannot with truth be accused of idleness, for they are all the time moving; but neither have they made any progress. Every measure that comes to them to be fashioned into an instrument of reform is cast into their mill and rendered blunt and useless. And the Czar, who probably knows that this is so and that they cannot act otherwise, sees no way to charge any but them with the execution of his reforms. The consequences are what we behold. Naturally, the people, who see through this jugglery, have lost hope. They feel that they are confronted with a system which has gone wrong so radically that it can only be ended, not mended. Most of the concessions announced by Nicholas II. are at bottom orders issued to the bureaucracy to lay down part of their own power and abolish their own prerogatives. But as these prerogatives are also of the essence of the autocracy, and as the Emperor puts the maintenance of the autocracy above everything else, his officials calmly proceed to strangle these innovations in the germ. In every case, moreover, they are sure of the approval of their imperial master. It is in this duality of promise and achievement that we shall find the clue to the present internal condition of Russia. For the autocracy is in reality the bureaucracy, and the bureaucracy is synonymous with corruption, injustice, ignorance. Hence, when Nicholas II. recently addressed his people, acknowledging the truth of their complaints and the justice of their demands, and solacing them with the prospect of reforms, he was virtually asking his *chinovniks* (officials) who are responsible for the abuses complained of to divest themselves of their power,—to commit political *hara-kiri*. And even they are human.

The story of imperial concessions is for these reasons puzzling to foreigners, irritating to Russian Liberals, and comforting to Russian bureaucrats. It is a record of misleading statements, of broken promises, and of the triumph of use and

went over progress and efficiency. Thus, the Czar solemnly agreed to give his people a representative assembly; but his ministers, with his consent, refused to say when or how they would carry out this promise, and they even punished the simple-minded who took it seriously. More depressing still is the circumstance that almost every step taken by the authorities since then betokens a tendency bitterly hostile to representative government. Recently, for example, the Czar called upon his subjects to assist him with their advice, and for this purpose expressly permitted them, in his ukase of March 3 to the Senate, to discuss the ways and means of convening a representative chamber. Yet in his majesty's name the authorities are now prosecuting communal bodies and individual peasants for having availed themselves of that permission. In like manner, the Emperor undertook to widen the basis of national education. A few days later, however, his minister narrowed it considerably, and deprived the national school-teachers of some of the scanty rights which they had theretofore enjoyed. Again, Nicholas II. adjured the Russian press to defend the cause of truth and to help him with frank advice. Yet the newspapers have ever since been forbidden to publish facts about workmen's strikes, about troubles in rural districts, about most of the burning topics of the day, while every number of the organ of the zemstvos has been confiscated by the police. All this was done by way of preparing the nation for a constitutional régime. And on the very eve of introducing popular representative institutions into the country his majesty appointed General Trepov to be dictator, with power to disregard statutes and override the law.

IS LIBERTY OF CONSCIENCE A DELUSION?

The most welcome of all the concessions emanating from the throne was that which Nicholas II. bestowed upon his subjects last Easter Sunday. Inspired and drafted by M. Witte, it was at first spoken of as liberty of conscience, but was soon afterward seen to amount to nothing more than religious toleration. And since then the bureaucracy has touched and killed it. For instance, the Czar had authorized his Orthodox subjects to leave the State Church with impunity if their conscience prompt them. His bureaucrats, however, resolved to nullify this right, while appearing to respect it. Taking a leaf from the book of *Portia*, who circumvented *Shylock*, they have allowed Orthodox Russians to preserve this right on condition that they do not really exercise it. "You may leave Orthodoxy, but you must not conspire with the clergy-

men of any other church in order to do so," is what they virtually say. And this is how it works out: A member of the Russian State Church can, if he will, become a Protestant. But if the Lutheran pastor help him,—and without such help he cannot effect his purpose,—the clergyman will be prosecuted and punished, and the would-be convert will be severely dealt with as a witness, a status which in Russia may be rendered quite as bad as that of prisoner. Priest and convert, therefore, are both in danger. It is like telling a man that he may travel from New York to Buffalo on condition that he do not pass through all the intermediate space. And that is the tenor of a circular which has been issued on the subject by the governor-general of Warsaw, Maximovitch, to his subordinates. No person may induce or abet a member of the Orthodox Church to enter any other fold, for that is a crime.

The head of the Holy Synod, M. Pobyedonostzev, is alarmed at the exodus of Christian men and women from the true fold and is eager to check it. For the movement will inflict material as well as spiritual damage on the State Church. Hitherto, for example, the Orthodox clergy were well paid in hush-money for not denouncing the Old Believers, whose every act of worship was in certain districts a misdemeanor. Now, the new edict, if loyally carried out, would render their religious worship legal, and would free them from the necessity of buying the connivance of priests of the Established Church. And the priests would, in consequence, lose that source of income. That is an additional reason why the operation of the imperial ukase should be secretly counteracted.

Or take another instance: The Old Believers' temples, shut up for years by orders of the authorities, were solemnly opened after the edict of Easter Sunday. The government was represented at the ceremony by Prince Galitzin and Count Sheremetiev, who gave the Old Believers the "friendly counsel" not to allow their bishops to officiate the first time. That advice was followed. A few days later, the curators of the "emancipated" Church were summoned to the police prefecture and compelled to sign a written undertaking which is believed to be a "voluntary" renunciation of certain of the rights conceded by the Czar. Quite "voluntary," of course, for the Czar may not be accused of taking away what he spontaneously gave. At any rate, the bishops of the Old Believers have never yet discharged their functions in public, although their congregations ardently desire them to do so. They have the right, but they dare not exercise it.

A number of Stundists, or evangelical Christians, have been prosecuted for singing hymns and offering up prayers since the promulgation of the Czar's ukase, which permits them to do this. Naturally, they pleaded the authorization granted them by his majesty. But their superior, the Zemski Nachalnik, forbade them to make any allusion to that document in their pleadings,—because “officially it has not been received.”* Therefore, they have committed a crime for which there is no excuse!

It seems as though religious toleration were meant merely to look well on paper, like the eighty-odd volumes of Russian laws and so much else in Muscovy. It has not formally been rejected by the bureaucrats, but only postponed *sine die*. The officials concerned explain the matter in this ingenious way: “The people misunderstood the imperial ukase, which really did not frame any new law. It only stated generally that recommendations on the subject must be made by the ministers of the Council of the Empire without delay. It does not add that the Council of the Empire must indorse those recommendations. Nor could it mean any such thing, for otherwise it would have been superfluous to make recommendations. The whole question has now been handed over to a new commission, under the chairmanship of Count Ignatieff, and next autumn or winter the views of this body will be duly laid before the ministerial departments . . .”† Meanwhile, things are as they were.

All these reform conferences and commissions, which are so generally misunderstood, are working, but they never manage to carry any measure of reform beyond the stage of a council chamber. Twenty of them now meet and talk and print and publish their views, and will then vanish into space, leaving things as they were. Meanwhile, the grip of the police on the people is gradually tightening. This may possibly be the government's way of ushering in a liberal régime, but the masses cannot see it in that light.

WANTED—A GENEVA CONVENTION FOR CIVIL WAR.

The aim of the autocracy is one and the same,—self-preservation. But its tactics have varied of late. At first it relied upon the army and navy to divert by their victories the attention of the masses and to curb the presumption of the few. Kuropatkin's successes would thus have been the Autocrat's triumph. But the Czar's admirals and generals proving broken reeds, the autocracy had to face the nation and

fight its battle at home. And the methods by which the struggle is now being waged make one regret that there is no human code binding on both parties in this civil war. Devices and deeds which would provoke an outburst of indignation if resorted to by one belligerent against another are approved or connived at when employed in the duel between an absolute government and its unarmed subjects.

The opposition in Russia may be roughly divided into two classes: the elements of the population who take a real interest in reform,—mostly “intellectuals,” whose mind is their fortune,—and the people of means who indulge in political principles by fits and starts. Of these, the former are suppressed without superfluous ruth by the police or the soldiers, while the latter are harassed and attacked by organized “hooligans” in the hope that, stricken with fear, they may beseech the authorities to protect them by force. For the rulers of Russia fancy that if one section of the population were arrayed against the other the problem of how to preserve the autocracy would be solved. Hence, a mysterious force is constantly and methodically at work egging on one element of the nation against another, instigating to robbery, arson, and murder in leaflets and proclamations printed by government institutions and spread by paid servants of the autocracy.

The existence of this secret conclave was first clearly revealed when the bureaucracy shifted the blame for disasters of its own making to the shoulders of the friends of reform, when high dignitaries of Church and State accused the “intellectuals” and the workingmen of having sold their country to Japan. It is noteworthy that this cruel and cowardly accusation was countenanced by the imperial government and indorsed by the Most Holy Synod. But it damaged only those who invented it. After that a secret committee of reactionaries was organized to thwart the reforms outlined by the Czar. It issued instructions to governors, general governors, and police prefects, inspired influential press organs, and generally kindled the consuming zeal of the police. Thus, the *Government Gazette*, of Kazan, published inflammatory articles and proclamations asking its readers to make short work of the domestic foe,—that is, of all that is most honest, intelligent, and progressive in Russian society.* Here is a sample of these proclamations to peasants, workingmen, and tradesmen:

An attempt to upset our empire is being made by lawyers, professors, students, schoolmasters, bankrupt

* Cf. *Nasha Zhizn*, June 21, 1906.

† *Peterburgskaya Gazeta*, June 17, 1906.

* *Russkaya Vedomosti*, June 16, 1906.

landlords, rich merchants, and other gentlemen who term themselves "the intelligence." These persons want to oust the Czar and wield his power, and for this purpose they are fomenting disorder and troubles. The professors have agreed neither to teach nor to learn; the lawyers—useless chatterboxes—impudently demand a constitution; the school children of various towns, egged on by their parents, instead of learning their lessons march with banners through the streets and cry, "Away with the Czar!" Hand-in-hand with the squires are the Jewish, Polish, and Armenian "intellectuals," who also clamor for a constitution, that they may lord it over us Russians. Allied with the Jews and other foreign peoples, the "intellectuals" hope to weaken the Emperor and seize the state treasury. *Yielding to these "intellectuals," the Czar* has already resolved to summon elected representatives, but the gentlefolk insist on being themselves chosen in lieu of peasants and petty tradesmen. . . . If the gentlefolk, thanks to their wiles and violence, should succeed, do not recognize them, brothers, as the governing power, *but tear them to pieces* and show that it is you who are the power in the empire.

A clear and simple behest, but of questionable efficacy. Even if the autocracy were the noblest institution known to man, its maintenance would be dear at the price of such wanton mischief-making. Already these deeds have borne bitter fruit, and in the shape of mutiny and massacre are recoiling upon those who countenanced them.

BY ITS FRUITS YE SHALL KNOW IT.

One result of this system was that in the Caucasus the Tatars and the Armenians,—two nationalities which had lived for ages in peace and friendship and were linked together by innumerable bonds,—suddenly became sworn foes and sought to blow each other's brains out. There was no economic struggle, no religious feud, to account for this curious outburst. According to the Russian press, the blood-bath of Baku was carefully organized beforehand. "At present, nobody has any doubt that the deeds done in Baku were prearranged, and that the late Governor Nakashidze was aware of the impending mass-murders there."*

The police are said to have hired Tatar cutthroats in the outlying villages and to have inflamed their fanaticism with promises of loot. The butchery then perpetrated at Baku was followed by sickening scenes of blood in Nakhichevan and Erivan. And here, too, the authorities winked at the murders when they did not actually incite them. No troops were employed until a large number of Armenians had been killed, their property looted, and their houses burned down. And when it became necessary to stop the killing in the Nakhichevan District, troops were summoned, not from Kars

or Alexandropol (the nearest places), but from Tiflis (which was very much farther off), and even then they were not forwarded by rail. The only occasion when the troops interfered was when in Erivan it had become clear that the Armenians were so well able to defend themselves that if the skirmish continued the Tatars would suffer serious losses!* Then the Christians were violently disarmed. Yet Erivan is in Russia, not in Turkey.

The power which thus wantonly sheds innocent blood cannot, Russian Liberals argue, have any hold on the people. What puzzles the foreign friends of the autocracy is that for robbery, riot, arson, and murder committed under the influence of this hidden committee there is no punishment, no responsibility. A word from the Autocrat would, they say, put an end to the iniquitous system. It would chill the malignant ardor of governors and police prefects, deter the reactionary press from fomenting civil war, and keep the priests from preaching race hatred to the masses. Probably it would. But that earnest word has not been uttered. Far from it, some of the men who were prominent in organizing the carnage of Armenians, Jews, and "intellectuals" have been ostentatiously honored or substantially rewarded.

The recent ordeals of the Jews in Kishinev, Jitomir, and other towns were worse than those through which the Armenians passed. And they, too, appear to have been prearranged. Some of the cutthroats of Jitomir arrested by a band of armed Jews pleaded that they had been hired by the police in Moscow and sent off to the scene of action. They were therefore promoting the cause of the Czar; and that was enough for them and their likes. They knew not what they did. One of the chief instigators of the massacre of the Jews in Kishinev was Krushevan, the editor of the journal *Bessarabets*. It was hoped, when his complicity was proven, that the authorities would seriously punish him, but what they did was to induce the Czar to receive him in audience. And his horn was exalted exceedingly.

Why, it is asked, are the governors not reprimanded, not warned, not interfered with in any way? Obviously because they are doing the will of their imperial master, answer the Liberals. Only in one case,—that of the Kishinev butchery,—was the governor transferred to another province. Not punished; only removed, and even that for his own safety. The governor of Jitomir kept out of sight while the slaughter was going on, and after it was over he told a

* *Russkiya Vedomosti*, June 16, 1905.

* *Russkiya Vedomosti*, June 16, 1905.

deputation of Jews that they had themselves to blame for their sufferings because they had treasonably used the Czar's portrait as a target. This was a cruel calumny, and the Jews forced the governor to admit it. But it was lost labor. The whole system of governing by means of dissensions, the Liberals affirm, might be summarily ended by the Emperor. Peter the Great had no hesitation about punishing provincial satraps. Once, when he convinced himself that the governor of a Siberian province was guilty of peculation, he had him hanged before the Senate house as a warning to others.

But not only has Peter the Great been dead for ages, but his spirit, too, has vanished. Certainly, he would have given short shrift to the autocratic senior doctor of the asylum of Kremenchug, who, stamping angrily, a few days ago, shouted, "Let every Jew in this hospital begone at once!" "Whereupon," says the local journal,* "the hospital attendants set about executing the order. In a twinkling, in the court of the hospital appeared the pallets on which lay the Jewish patients, their features distorted with fear and horror. They were the sufferers who could not rise from their beds. As for the convalescents, they had already been driven out of the hospital with nothing on but their linen. To some of them the attendants gave an old garment to enable them to get home. Among the patients were many women."† Yet the co-religionists of that fiery physician have missions in Japan where the yellowskins are taught to love their enemies.

This sowing of race hatred, it should be noted, followed upon the Czar's express desire that legality should be substituted for injustice. Better treatment for the non-Russian races and religions was announced by the monarch, after which they were incited to cut one another's throats by the monarch's trusty servants. It is to these servants that his majesty still continues to refer all men of noble thought and humane feeling who ask that the Augean stable may at last be thoroughly cleansed. A Russian friend of mine recently commented upon this aspect of the situation in some such words as these: "It is as though a gambling hell were to be turned into an ecclesiastical seminary. The change is, of course, feasible if you drive out the gamblers and usher in divines. But not if you beg the card-sharppers to stay and transform the haunt of vice into a seed-plot of virtue. Well, that is a fair picture of the position of our government and the bureaucracy. Can the people

be blamed for putting their hopes in other methods? The revolution from above is inconceivable."

There are no grounds for assuming that the promise of a representative chamber will fare better than the other reforms, and there are many for believing that it will be speedily explained away. In sooth, it was doomed from the first. Its birth was the result of a painful Cæsarean operation, and its nurse, M. Bulyghin, is a man who, honest enough in his way, is disposed to strangle all popular institutions without exception. The scheme he devised for dealing with popular representation was in harmony with his convictions. The delegates to the assembly are to be chosen by each class apart; the chamber will have no authority to discuss the affairs of the imperial family, the civil list, the imperial domains, the army, the navy, or matters of diplomacy, and it will be split into a number of petty committees. A river losing itself in the sand of a vast desert is the image that comes to one's mind. The ministers will be answerable to the Czar, and only to him. But more decisive still is the right which the monarch will retain of making laws by ukases independently of everybody, even of his professional advisers. He draws up a ukase, publishes it, and his will becomes law forthwith to one hundred and forty millions. Appeal is impossible, and criticism punishable. All the crying abuses, therefore, which provoked and justified the demand for representative institutions could go on as before, unchecked and irrepressible. Certainly, the assembly would be powerless to stop them.

All this was foreseen and resented by the leaders of the popular party. They consequently summoned a zemsky congress in Moscow and drew up an urgent address to the Czar warning him that the empire and his throne were in danger. Nicholas II. graciously agreed to receive them in his palace and have a friendly talk with them. And he listened attentively to the speech of Prince Troubetskoi, who at that very moment was a "criminal," as crime is defined in the autocracy. Curiously enough, the prince's crime was that he had written what the Czar thanked him for saying.

In the nation's name, Prince Troubetskoi informed the monarch of the people's misgivings. "They fear," he said, "that the national chamber might be split into classes, might represent one nationality only, might be an ornament of the old fabric instead of the groundwork of a new one." To which the Emperor cheerily replied: "Cast away your misgivings," and then went on to promise that the scheme should be carried out

* *The Dnieper District Gazette.*

† *Syn Otechestva*, June 25, 1905.

properly. He would be true to the spirit as well as to the letter of his undertaking. Great was the joy of the Russian press when these tidings were brought. Some journals called June 19 the most memorable date in Russian history. Even Prince Troubetskoi himself thought he could catch a glimpse of the new era of which it was the gray dawn.

Within forty-eight hours the Czar's trusty ministers, in their imperial master's name and with his hearty assent, told the Russian people that the words of Nicholas II. had been misinterpreted. The Czar and his people have thus ceased to understand each other. They speak different tongues, live on different planes. Nothing that he had said betokened a change in the autocracy. That God-given institution shall not and cannot be modified. When his majesty exhorted the nation to cast away its doubts he did not mean the doubts expressed by the spokesman of the nation. He meant something else. Therefore, it behooves the nation to cherish no dangerous illusions founded on a misunderstanding. That was the gist of the explanation given by the bureaucrats. What it amounts to is that reform as the nation understands it is not to be expected from above. Wrested it may be; it will not be bestowed.

THE BUREAUCRACY RESPONSIBLE.

That Nicholas II. and his people no longer understand each other is now become distressingly clear in Russia,—is, indeed, one of the central facts of the situation there. And the practical consequences emanating from it are in sober truth alarming. Anarchy and violence have usurped the place of law and order; respect for property and for life has largely disappeared; class is turned against class, race against race, and civil war in its worst aspects appears to have broken out in various districts simultaneously. The mutiny of the crew of the battleship *Kniaz Potemkin*; the revolt of the blue-jackets in Libau; the barricades in Łódź, with their hillocks of dead and dying,—are symptoms which he who runs may read. The beginnings of this social avalanche can be traced to the deliberate action of mischief-making government agents.

The zemstvo delegates now intend, it is said, respectfully to request his majesty to convoke a representative assembly within the next five or six weeks, and if their request be not complied with to form provisional boards of government for the provinces. That move would probably turn the scales by giving the Liberals of all Russia a living center around which to rally. The resolution in question is alleged to have

been provoked by an attempt at further mobilization. That the autocracy is still ready to sacrifice Russian lives, if not for the control of the Pacific, at least for a partial victory over the Japanese, is an open secret. It is but a few days since the official financial paper demonstrated to its own satisfaction that in a few months Japan will be bankrupt. Why not carry on the war until then? The nation's answer is audible in the crackling of rifles, the bursting of explosives, the din of civil war. The pity of it all is that the autocracy, which is compromised, gibbeted, and held up to universal opprobrium for upholding the *régime* by fomenting civil war, can win nothing by success, while it stands to lose all in case of failure. It is really risking its existence for the bureaucracy.

A FORECAST OF THE STRUGGLE.

Were it not the essence of rashness to forecast the upshot of the struggle between the autocracy and the nation, I should confess to a belief that absolutism will disappear before a coalition of all the intelligent classes at home and of the two great island powers abroad. Coercion in Russia and expansion in Asia are the characteristic accompaniments of the autocracy. Now the joint effort of all the articulate classes of the Czarism, employing strikes and other forms of passive, and, unhappily, also active, resistance as weapons, may ultimately succeed in substituting constitutional government for one-man rule. But how and at what cost, one prefers not to think. But if it fail, foreign powers will achieve the feat indirectly.

For, turning to the policy of aggrandizement, which hitherto kept the civilized world in a state of almost continuous alarm, I have little hesitation in affirming that that element of periodic disorder will be entirely got rid of by the coming treaty between Japan and Great Britain, which must, and therefore will, guarantee the peace of all Asia. Any attempted modification of the *status quo* in that continent—as it will have shaped itself after the Washington treaty between the two belligerents—will be regarded by England and Japan as a *casus belli*, and will be hindered by the joint action of the allies. And this consummation, now quite certain, will, I believe, give such an impetus to the endeavors of the reform party in Russia that the autocracy cannot long withstand them. For absolutism at home is inconceivable without a forward policy abroad. As the one is doomed to go within the year,—soon after the Anglo-Japanese alliance has been extended,—the other will surely follow at no great interval, unless, indeed, it have gone before.

HUNGARY'S SIDE IN THE CRISIS WITH AUSTRIA.

BY COUNT ALBERT APPONYI.

(Member of the Hague Court, and for over thirty years an elected member of the Hungarian Parliament.)

THE April issue of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* contained an article on the Austro-Hungarian crisis by Dr. Baumfeld, whom I have the pleasure of knowing as a gentleman of high culture and animated by the best intentions. He approaches this problem, however, blinded by a conception which makes it impossible for him truly to understand or explain it to others.

In Dr. Baumfeld's article, in his mind, in the mind of almost all Austrians, the dominating idea is that of an "Austrian" empire (which they are kind enough to call an "Austro-Hungarian" empire), of which Hungary is a part, endowed with a large amount of home rule, but still a part. To this territorial idea corresponds an Austrian emperor, or,—as Dr. Baumfeld calls him,—an "Austro-Hungarian emperor," who rules all his domains, Hungary included, by this imperial sovereignty, which is understood to contain the sovereignty of the King of Hungary, the time-hallowed holy crown of St. Stephen being degraded into one of the gems adorning that comparatively modern imperial diadem.

Now, this is the very idea to which Hungary will never become reconciled; against which she has struggled—in the main, successfully—through four eventful centuries, the solemn denial of which is inserted in many of our fundamental laws,—laws which are part of that constitution which every king binds himself by his coronation oath to observe and to maintain.

The writer had the honor of delivering at St. Louis, at the Arts and Science Congress of last year, a short historical account of our relation with the Austrian dynasty. There are to be found the chief facts, which show: (1) That our forefathers called that dynasty to the Hungarian throne, not in order to get Hungary absorbed into an Austrian or any other sort of empire, but, on the contrary, under the express condition of keeping the independence and the constitution of the Hungarian kingdom unimpaired; (2) that this condition has been accepted and sworn to by all those members of the dynasty (Joseph II. alone excepted) who ascended the Hungarian throne; (3) that, nevertheless, practical encroachments on our independence, followed by conflicts and reconciliations, have been at all epochs frequent; (4) but that a juridical

fact *never* occurred which could be construed into a modification of that fundamental condition of the dynasty's title in Hungary.

The famous Pragmatic Sanction of 1723, while reasserting in the strongest terms the independence of Hungary, created an identical order of succession to the Austrian and to the Hungarian thrones. It stated at the same time the duty of mutual defense against foreign aggression for both countries. The so-called Compromise (*Ausgleich*) of 1867 created new forms for the fulfillment of that duty by confiding some foreign and some military matters to common executive agents under the control of select committees elected by both parliaments. But by neither of these transactions, both emanating from Hungary's sovereign free will, did we abdicate any portion of our independence and sovereignty as a free nation. If the Compromise of 1867 seems to be on the eve of breaking down; if many Hungarian politicians who held by it for nearly forty years have now, like myself, thrown over allegiance to it; if its crisis is at present shaking the dual monarchy to its very foundations; all this comes about precisely because that before-mentioned bias of the Austrian mind exerted itself during this whole epoch to distort the enactments of that compromise into some sort of realization of the unified Austrian empire (the idea of which is not rendered more palatable by calling it "Austro-Hungarian"), because "common" institutions, the idea of which is quite compatible with the independence of the parties concerned, were distorted into "imperial" institutions, which means a flat denial of that same independence.

Dr. Baumfeld astonishes me when he states that Austria and Hungary together are called the "Austro-Hungarian Empire." Does he consider such an error of nomenclature as a mere trifle which may do for American readers, as it makes things shorter to explain in the Austrian sense? In truth, not even diplomatic language, though not yet brought into perfect conformity with our public law, blunders so severely as that. It never uses the term "Austro-Hungarian Empire," but only "Austro-Hungarian monarchy." The difference is plain. "Empire" means an objective unity; "monarchy"

implies only the fact that the two countries are ruled by one monarch. But even this term, though less offensive, is to some extent misleading. The physical person of the ruler is, in truth, the same in both countries, but the juridical personality of the King of Hungary is distinct and, as to the contents of its prerogative, widely different from the juridical personality of the Emperor of Austria. Hungary is the oldest constitutional country on the European Continent. The royal prerogative in her case is an emanation of the constitution,—not prior to it,—and consists in such rights as the nation has thought fit to vest in her king. In Austria, on the other hand, the existing constitution is a free gift of the Emperor, and has conferred on the people of Austria such rights as the Emperor has thought fit to grant to them. The title of "Emperor of Austria-Hungary," which Dr. Baumfeld once uses in his text, is—he will excuse my saying so—simply nonsense. The time-hallowed old Hungarian crown has not been melted into the brand-new Austrian imperial diadem. That imperial title does not contain, to any extent, the Hungarian royal title. The Emperor of Austria, as such, has just as much legal power in Hungary as the President of the United States has. He is, juridically speaking, a foreign potentate to us.

On these fundamental truths, no Hungarian—to whatever party he may belong—admits discussion. It is because the opposite erroneous views, so clearly apparent in Dr. Baumfeld's article, have been constantly smuggled into the daily practice of our common institutions that the country has lost its faith in the Compromise of 1867, and no state of constant tranquillity can prevail in the dual monarchy.

The Liberal party, vanquished at the last elections, does not in the least differ from the victorious opposition as to the principles laid down in these pages; it only advocated a greater amount of forbearance against the petty encroachments which practically obscured them. That policy of forbearance became gradually distasteful to the country; seeing it shaken in the public mind, the recent prime minister, Count Tisza, formed the unhappy idea of gaining a new lease of power on its behalf by a parliamentary *coup d'état*. The rules of the House were broken, in order to prevent future obstruction, chiefly against military bills. This brought matters to an acute crisis. The parliament in which that breach of the rules had taken place became unfit for work of any sort, the country had to be consulted, and down went the Liberal party and the half-hearted policy it represented with no hope for revival.

The army question, with its ever-recurring difficulties, is a highly characteristic feature of the chronic latent conflict between the Austrian and the Hungarian mentality. It amounts to this, that, as we are a nation, we mean to have an armed force corresponding to our national individuality, commanded in our language, and serving under our flags and emblems. It would be unnatural for any nation, and would be, in fact, an abdication of the title of "nation," to renounce such a national claim. The Austrians, on the other hand,—and, unhappily, their influence is still prevalent in this question,—not yet having abandoned the idea of a pan-Austrian empire, uncompromisingly adhere to the present military organization, which makes the German language and the imperial emblems prevalent throughout the whole army, its Hungarian portion included. Behind a thin veil of argument drawn from considerations of military expediency, which Dr. Baumfeld seems to think unanswerable, but which to us appear rather childish, it is the last stronghold of pan-Austrian imperialism which we have before us in that military *statu quo*, which, for that very reason, is as unacceptable to us as it is hard to conquer. The present majority in the Hungarian Parliament insists, therefore, on a thoroughgoing military reform in a national sense. The King, on the other hand, inspired by the traditions of his dynasty, is averse to any serious change in military matters. This is the reason why the crisis is still pending, and why no ministry taken from the majority has yet been formed.

The Hungarian people feel confident of the future. We must prevail, because we only want our rights without infringing on the rights of any one else; while our opponents in Austria, whether consciously or not, are invaders of the domain of their neighbors. What we contend for is simply the loyal fulfillment of those fundamental compacts which made Hungary secure of her national independence when she called the present dynasty to the throne. On that ground,—Dr. Baumfeld quite correctly quotes my St. Louis address to that effect,—we shall keep faith with the dynasty and with our Austrian allies. On that ground only can the present crisis be ended, and the constant recurrence of similar ones be prevented. And it is because I heartily agree with Dr. Baumfeld in everything he says concerning the wisdom and exalted sense of duty which adorn emperor and king, Francis Joseph, that I feel quite confident that, in conformity with the programme of our parliamentary majority, a solution on such grounds will ultimately prevail.

BUDAPEST, June, 1905.

OUR TARIFF DIFFERENCES WITH GERMANY.

BY WOLF VON SCHIERBRAND.

(Author of "Germany: The Welding of a World Power.")

A TARIFF war between this country and Germany has been threatening for some time, but it is only since the announcement by the German Government, a couple of months ago, that it had been decided to terminate the tariff arrangement now existing with the United States that the situation has assumed an aspect warranting serious discussion of such a contingency. It may be worth while to look this danger in the face, and to examine the causes leading up to it as well as the defensive (and offensive) armor with which each of the two opponents would enter the lists. It will then be seen that there is something to be said on both sides. It will, perhaps, be still more profitable to indicate a way whereby a tariff war may probably be avoided without yielding on either side essential advantages.

In the main, it has been the commercial treaty of 1828 between the United States and Prussia (and the Hansa towns, etc.) under the terms of which trade relations between the German Empire and this republic have developed. These terms have been, broadly speaking, those of the "most favored nation." Germany, on her part, has adhered, so far, unswervingly to these terms, although in Bismarck's time, and several times since, Germany has used the weapon of sanitary regulations to hamper American imports of certain kinds in answer to measures employed here which diminished German trade with us. The American hog, it will be remembered, was boycotted by Bismarck for years, and more lately American dried fruit, preserved meats, etc., were tabooed for a time on the pretext of their "unhygienic qualities." These, however, were but needle-pricks, irritating, but not sensibly decreasing the volume of our trade with the empire. And the principle of the "most favored nation" was ostensibly lived up to on both sides. The first slight breach in this was made by us through reciprocity treaties (though to Germany they were not of great practical importance), the benefits of which were denied to Germany in Washington.

On the other hand, Germany, after making, herself, a whole series of highly important commercial (or reciprocity) treaties with Russia, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Switzerland, Rumania,

Belgium, Servia, and a number of South and Central American states, admitted the United States to the benefits of these treaties without receiving any equivalent whatever, merely on the strength of the old treaty of 1828, mentioned above, and its "most favored nation" clause. There have been a few special agreements between the two countries, however, and the most important of them was the one of 1900, the so-called Saratoga convention, concluded on the German side by Mumm von Schwarzenstein, then *chargé d'affaires* at Washington, by virtue of which Germany withdrew all her objections to our meats and pork and we admitted German sugar on favorable terms. The effect of this treaty became manifest at once, for American exports to Germany during the ensuing twelve months bounded up to \$250,000,000, an increase of about \$70,000,000, and German sugar flooded our own market, rising many millions in value.

WHY THE GERMANS ARE DISSATISFIED.

There has been for a number of years deep dissatisfaction in Germany with these conditions. In support of it, facts and allegations were cited, as follows: To admit the United States to the same special (and far lower) tariff rates as those provided for in reciprocity treaties with a score of countries yielding Germany likewise special tariff rates without getting anything in return from the American Congress in the shape of reduced customs duties naturally placed American export to Germany on a better footing than that of any other competing nation, and led to a steadily increasing trade balance in America's favor. This fact is best shown by the official statistics. Germany's commercial-treaty policy dates from 1891. In that year American exports to Germany amounted to 456,000,000 marks (about \$113,000,000), and constituted 10.4 per cent. of Germany's total foreign trade; by 1900 they amounted to 1,020,000,000 marks (about \$250,000,000), and constituted 17 per cent. of Germany's total foreign trade. In the same period, though Germany's total exports grew 85 per cent., her exports to the United States increased but from 357,000,000 marks to 439,000,000 marks (about \$108,000,000), and in percentage there was a positive decrease,—from

10.7 per cent. to 9.3 per cent.* Since 1900, things in this respect have not vitally changed, although German exports to this country have slightly increased. That in itself, however, would not trouble Germany so much; there is another side to this question. For with the American exporter (though unaided by a special reciprocity treaty) forcing his way in, to the great disadvantage of Germany's commercial-treaty friends, Germany does not form for the latter as valuable a field for exploitation as it otherwise would, and Germany's treaty terms with these countries suffer correspondingly. That, indeed, is the gravest detriment to Germany from her own point of view.

Again, American tariff laws have changed so greatly and within so short a period that Germany's exporters have all along been unable to properly gauge their commercial chances here and to introduce such changes in manufacturing methods, etc., as would best conduce to a steady trade, since the element of stability has been lacking on this side. Again, Germany complains of underhanded methods employed by the United States consular corps and by the United States customs service for the purpose, on the one hand, of obtaining trade and manufacturing secrets from German competitors, and, on the other hand, of unfairly hampering German export trade to this country.

THE RECIPROCITY MOVEMENT.

Now, a couple of years ago a new German tariff law was adopted, partly to facilitate renewal of the lapsing reciprocity treaties or the concluding of new ones, but also, in part, to put Germany on a better footing as regards this country if a tariff war should be unavoidable, or, on the other hand, if a reciprocity treaty with the United States should be concluded. This new tariff law increases considerably duties on cereals, foodstuffs, and rawstuffs of every kind (these constituting, it must be remembered, 75 per cent. of the American imports in Germany) for all countries with which the empire has no special tariff treaty or other similar agreement. In the case of cereals, this increase varies between 250 and 120 per cent.; in the case of canned and preserved goods, it is between 50 and 360 per cent.; in the case of many manufactures (especially those in which America excels, such as sewing-machines, agricultural ma-

chinery, etc.) it is between 60 and 110 per cent.; even in petroleum, copper wire, and other articles which cannot easily be obtained of equal quality elsewhere than from the United States, there are large increases in duty. The tariff is, to put it plainly, a war measure, or, at least, a measure intended to exert hard pressure on the United States to come to a friendly understanding with Germany before it is too late.*

But what about the old treaty of 1828 and its "most favored nation" clause? That treaty is still in existence, it is true enough. But Germany has indicated her intention to denounce it in time to abrogate it before the new reciprocity treaties she has recently concluded go into effect. The date of their going into effect is March, 1906, and if Germany carries out her intention of denouncing her old treaty with the United States, she has still a number of months to do it in. That she was to denounce this treaty was, it is said, one of the silent stipulations of her new commercial treaties. If no reciprocity or other special commercial treaty with the United States takes the place of the old one, Germany will then be within her rights in applying to American imports her new "autonomous" tariff, placing the latter on several

*Tariff duties of Germany: Maximum under present law, reductions by treaty, autonomous duties to go into effect in 1906, and reductions granted to certain European countries on articles of import, expressed in American currency per 100 kilograms (220.4 pounds).

Merchandise.	Present tariff (adopted in 1879).		New tariff law of 1902 (to go into effect in 1906).	
	Maxi- mum.	Reduced by treaty.	Autono- mous.	Reduced by treaty.
Wheat.....	\$1.19	\$0.88	\$1.78	\$1.30
Rye.....	1.19	.82	1.68	1.19
Oats.....	.95	.67	1.68	1.19
Barley.....	.58	.47	1.68	.95
Corn.....	.47	.38	1.19	.71
Wheat flour.....	2.50	1.74	4.36	2.48
Malt.....	.95	.85	2.44	1.37
Potatoes.....	Free.	Free.	.59	1.34
Hops.....	4.76	3.38	16.66	4.76
Dried apples, pears, apricots, and peaches	.95	.95	2.38	.95
Dried prunes.....	Free.	Free.	2.38	1.19
Fresh apples in barrels	4.76	4.04	16.66	9.52
Sausages.....	2.38	2.38	3.97	2.38
Lard.....	4.76	4.04	10.71	8.32-9.25
Salted meats.....	4.76	3.80	7.14	4.76
Butter.....	4.76	4.76	7.14	3.57-4.76
Cheese.....	.71	.47	1.42	.71
Eggs.....	4.76	3.80	7.14	4.76
Margarine.....	Free.	Free.	4.76	Free.
Wood alcohol.....				
Cows and oxen, per head.....	2.14	2.14	4.28	1.90
Horses, per head.....	4.76	4.76	21.42-35.68	7.14-28.56
Hogs, per head.....	1.19	1.19	4.28	2.14
Shoes, coarse.....	11.90	11.90	20.22	20.22
Shoes, medium.....	15.47	15.47	28.86	23.50
Shoes, fine.....	15.47	15.47	42.84	35.70
Lumber, rough.....			1.42	.47
Lumber, dressed.....	2.38	2.38	2.38	2.38
Sewing-machines.....	5.71	5.71	8.58	2.85
Sewing-mach's, power	5.71	5.71	4.76	1.90

*I am quoting here German official statistics, for the reason that they take into due account the "Ursprungsland,"—i.e., the country whence imports are derived, thus including as American imports those which reach Germany via Belgian and Dutch ports, a thing which American official statistics fail to do, to the frequent misleading of students of tariff conditions.

hundreds of articles (including some of the most important) at such a disadvantage that the prospective loss to American trade is variously estimated at between \$40,000,000 and \$100,000,000.

This, it must be understood, is the German idea of the matter. It is, on the whole, the idea of the Agrarian party in Germany, the party which hates in the United States its keenest and most successful rival in the home market for food-stuffs, etc. This party, too, it is which has driven the present German Government to pursue its new course. But while Prince von Bülow and the Kaiser have so far yielded to the Agrarian party, and also to the peculiar force of circumstances, it is not the German Government which is anxious to enter on a "merry tariff war" with this country, as Count Kanitz, the Agrarian leader, once put it in the Reichstag. Such a war forms no part of their policy, and both the government and the bulk of the German nation would deplore it if it should get that far. They would vastly prefer a reciprocity treaty with this country. They are perfectly aware of the fact that a tariff war is a double-edged sword, invariably cutting both ways, and that it is questionable indeed which of the two opponents would suffer most.

GERMANY NOT PREPARED FOR A TARIFF WAR.

For a tariff war with this country Germany is, indeed, poorly prepared. And this for the well-known reason that while the articles she imports from America are very largely indispensable (like cereals, meats, hams, bacon, dried, canned, and preserved foodstuffs), which she cannot obtain elsewhere as cheaply and of as good quality; rawstuffs required for her own varied industries (like cotton, lumber, leather, copper), which she would likewise find it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to get in sufficient quantity from any other source; industrial articles (like agricultural machinery and tool machines), in which this country stands unrivaled, Germany's exports to this country are, with relatively few and unimportant exceptions, not indispensable at all, and for the most part easily replaced, such as beet sugar, chemicals and dyes, porcelains and stoneware, toys, cloths, hosiery, etc. It is not necessary to enter in detail into this argument, for its force is self-evident.

Unfortunately, slight hope exists of the feasibility of a reciprocity treaty between the two countries. Germany has urged such a treaty for many years, and again and again (and, to confine myself to very recent times, both during Cleveland's and McKinley's terms) negotiations have been diplomatically conducted to that

end in Berlin as well as in Washington. These negotiations were always vigorously pushed by Germany, but they never led to anything tangible, and this for the very good reason that the United States had every reason in the world to be quite satisfied with the existing treaty. Even now, if Germany should terminate the old treaty, there seems to be slight chance of a reciprocity treaty. Weighty reasons speak against it. Recent public utterances by Secretary Shaw appear to show that for the present, at least, President Roosevelt and his advisers have dropped reciprocity. The country as a whole, as well as the administration, are engrossed with the railroad-rebate question, the trust problem, and other matters, and the tariff issue is somnolent. But aside from this, no reciprocity treaty of any description could pass the present Senate, even if the lower house had sanctioned it.

However, even without such a new and formal treaty, I believe it possible to avoid a tariff war between the United States and Germany, for half the grievances of which Germany complains can easily be remedied on this side without in the least infringing on the policy or practice of protectionism. German manufacturers and exporters allege that in many recent instances American consuls, under cover of their official status, have spied out their trade secrets and manufacturing processes, or else have aided American emissaries to do so. Again, they claim that the United States Government, through its customs officials here, has unduly annoyed, financially injured, and hampered them by varying interpretations of the Dingley law, by arbitrary and unfair appraisements, and by other means. Of these things, in fact, they complain more loudly and bitterly than of the present high tariff on German goods itself, and the German press constantly rings with new instances of this kind. That there is a fair measure of truth in these complaints admits scarcely of doubt. The administration in Washington is perfectly aware of it. Personally, I could mention a number of cases which bear out this contention,—cases which occurred, in the course of the past few years, in industrial centers like Glauchau (cloths), Chemnitz (hosiery), Plauen (laces), Sonnefeld (toys), Berlin (notions, dry goods, etc.), and Elberfeld (silk ribbons).

If, therefore, these official abuses were rigidly eliminated by our Treasury and State departments, the Germans would be deprived of half their reasons for just complaint, and the spirit of bitterness which now adds so much to the chances of a tariff war with this country would quickly die away. It is a method worth trying, at any rate.

THE JAPANESE MERCHANT FLEET.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

(Secretary of the United States Merchant Marine Commission.)

THERE are four nations which within a dozen years, by dint of lavish expenditure, have rapidly created great war fleet and joined the proud company of the world's sea powers. These, in the order of their strength as it existed a year ago, are Russia, Germany, the United States, and Japan. Two of these four nations, realizing that a war fleet must not be a mere mushroom growth, but must have the indispensable reserve of a large merchant fleet behind it, have simultaneously developed a fine, prosperous, commercial shipping. These prudent and enlightened nations are Germany and Japan. Two nations have been content to build armor-clads and guns, and have fatuously neglected the problem of properly manning and supplying their squadrons in the shock of war. These blind governments are Russia and America.

The Japanese merchant marine has increased from 151,000 tons in 1890 to 830,000 in 1904; the Russian merchant tonnage, on the other hand, is chiefly local, confined to the Baltic or the Black Sea. Only one company, the so-called "volunteer fleet"—really a government concern—has engaged to any extent in distant voyages. Russia's ocean shipping in general is even feeble than that of the United States, which has been shrinking for forty years and now scarcely suffices to convey one-tenth of our commercial interchanges.

With few Russian ocean ships, there are, of course, few Russian officers and seamen. Richard Cobden, visiting Russia years ago, pointed unerringly to the hidden weakness which has just brought such terrible humiliation in the sea battles with Japan:

People confuse in their minds the defensive and the aggressive power of Russia. She is invulnerable against foreign attack by land, because no large army can be concentrated within her borders (unless it be in Moscow or St. Petersburg), for want of accumulated store of food, etc. . . . She has, it is true, a large force of ships of war, but they are manned by serfs taken from the villages of the interior, who are undeserving the name of sailors, and it is pretty certain they would never venture into an engagement with an English or American fleet; and if they did, it is quite certain they would be taken or destroyed.

Ship for ship and gun for gun, there was not much to choose between the Port Arthur or the Baltic fleet and the victorious force of Admiral

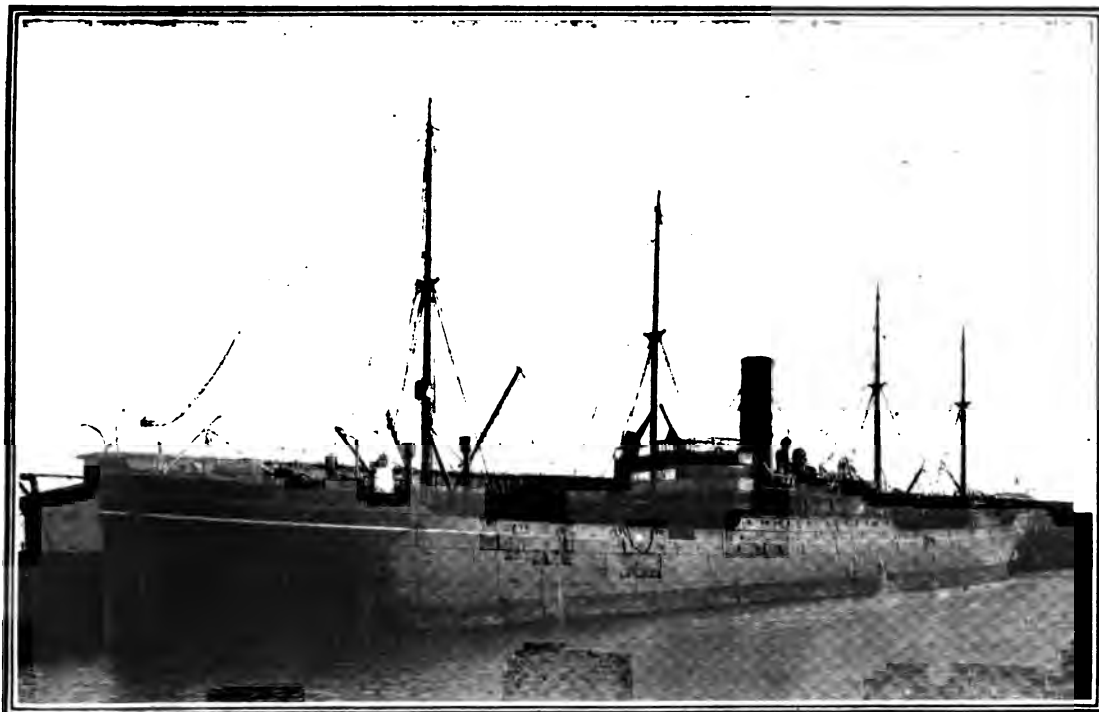
Togo. But there was this vital difference,—that while the Japanese crews were good seamen, and therefore, of course, good fighting men, the Russian crews were chiefly the raw and seasick sons of Cobden's "serfs from the interior."

For Japan had profited by the lesson of her conflict with China eleven years ago. In the words of Baron Kaneko: "We had too small a fleet in the time of the China-Japanese war even to carry our own soldiers. Therefore, we ordered a subsidy paid for all ships of a certain tonnage trading in foreign waters, and for iron boats of 1,000 tons or over built either in Japan or abroad." This new, comprehensive, and brilliantly successful expedient was put into force in 1896, for a period of fifteen years. Japan in 1896 had no native shipyards capable of heavy steel construction. All of her few large merchant steamers, and, indeed, all of the important cruisers that had just won for her the glorious triumph of the Yalu, were foreign-built. It was necessary to procure abroad the powerful vessels required for the first increase of Japan's merchant marine, for they could not be fabricated within the empire.

But the statesmen of Tokio were both shrewd and patriotic enough to realize that no sea power worthy of the name could afford to depend upon its competitors in trade for the ships to convey its commerce. So, though Japanese registry was necessarily kept open to foreign-built vessels, a new and significant departure was now taken toward developing strong home shipyards, by a grant of a bounty of from \$6 to \$12 per ton and of \$5 per indicated horse-power to all seagoing steamers constructed in Japan. Under the same act, all Japanese steamers, of native or foreign origin, owned exclusively by Japanese subjects, were given a navigation or maintenance bounty of from 12½ to 30 cents per ton for every 1,000 miles sailed in foreign commerce,—this bounty being paid in full for the first five years, and then decreasing 5 per cent. every year until the fifteenth year, when it ceases altogether.

THE LESSON OF WAR.

Before the Chinese war of 1894, Japan, under a "free ship" policy but without national assistance, had had a poor and languishing mer-



THE TWIN-SCREW STEAMSHIP "KANAGAWA MARU," OF THE NIPPON YUSEN KAISHA.

chant marine. The total Japanese tonnage, steam and sail, in 1890, was only 151,000. In 1891, it was 146,000; in 1892, 148,000; in 1893, 179,000,—a petty increase of only 28,000 tons, or the equivalent of four or five steamers, in three or four years. The conflict of 1894 in Korea and Manchuria, compelling the Japanese Government to purchase anything which it could get for transport purposes, brought the empire's merchant tonnage up to 312,000 tons in 1895. But the real growth of the Japanese merchant marine as the world now knows it may be said to date from the general subsidy act of 1896. Every year since then has witnessed a steady gain, to the handsome tonnage of 830,000 in 1904. The Japanese fleet, including vessels built, purchased, and captured, is now not far from 1,000,000 tons.

In 1872, the Japanese commercial navy consisted chiefly of ancient and unwieldy junks. There were only 96 small steamers, of an aggregate tonnage of 24,000, in the empire. By 1900, Japan possessed 846 steamers, of 528,000 tons. A considerable part of this great fleet, including nearly all of the large steamers first acquired, was built in Europe, because—as has already been explained—Japan in 1896 had none of the modern shipyards which we already possess in the United States. But the liberal

bounty offered by the Japanese Government for home-built vessels has developed native shipbuilding almost as swiftly as the navigation bounties have developed native ship-owning.

The principal yard of the empire is that of the Mitsubishi Company, of Nagasaki, which in 1900 launched a steel steamer of 7,000 tons. Many vessels of a similar type have since been constructed in Japan. Ten large vessels are now on the stocks at Nagasaki. Nor has the effect of this national assistance to Japanese shipbuilding ceased with the merchant marine. Success in constructing ocean liners has now encouraged Japan to lay the keels of a 16,000-ton battleship and a 12,000-ton cruiser, and has thus relieved the empire of the cost and peril of depending upon Europe for her heavy men-of-war.

NATIONAL AID AND NATIVE APTITUDE.

Not even Germany, which invokes other forms of state aid besides direct subsidy or bounty, has been so successful in the swift creation of sea power as Japan. But it must not be assumed that therefore subsidy as applied to shipping is all-potent and all-sufficient, and that a nation need only give help from the treasury to see its ocean shipping grow as Jonah's gourd. There must be also the essential quality of native aptitude, and this Japan has in abundant measure.

At first she was forced to employ Europeans to officer her ocean ships, but she began at once to train her own sons, and though a dozen years ago she possessed few sailors of experience in distant voyaging, she now boasts of thousands of brave and skillful mariners,—a naval reserve which has just proved its inestimable value.

Japan's regular navy has not been a large one, but when war came it was quickly and efficiently recruited from the merchant service. The best and fastest of the Japanese liners, armed and equipped as cruisers, have given a good account of themselves in Admiral Togo's operations. The main use of the large Japanese merchant tonnage, however, has been in the indispensable work, first, of carrying several hundred thousand soldiers, with their artillery and equipment, overseas, and then in maintaining communication with the victorious armies in Korea and Manchuria. All observers agree that this transport service has been wonderful in its precision, and there can be no doubt that the subsidized merchant ships, plying ceaselessly to and fro from the Japanese ports to the mainland, and keeping food ever in the haversacks and cartridges in the belts of the soldiers of Oyama and Nogi, have repaid manifold all that they have cost the Japanese people and their government.

There is certainly an eloquent contrast between Japan's preparedness and our own desperate hunt for a transport shipping in the war with Spain. Indeed, it is fair to say that but for the Japanese subsidy legislation and its fruit in a large, modern, efficient of merchant marine the triumphs of the Japanese armies in the war of 1904-05 would have been absolutely impossible.

DOMINATING THE PACIFIC.

This truth is so clearly realized by the Japanese statesmen that a still more notable expansion of Japanese commercial shipping is sure to follow the return of peace. Already the Japanese merchant flag holds a formidable place on the Pacific Ocean. Until the war drafted them into the national service, Japanese steamers ran in regular lines to Puget Sound, to San Francisco *via* Hawaii, and to Australia *via* the Philippines. Under a revision of the Japanese shipping laws, adopted in 1900, these lines are receiving large annual subsidies. It ought to be instructive to Americans to know that three Japanese steamers running from the Orient to San Francisco are given by their government \$517,000 a year, while the five American steamers of the Pacific Mail Company, carrying much

more mail and performing a more frequent service, receive \$64,000 from the United States.

Moreover, the three Japanese ships which come to Puget Sound enjoy a subsidy of \$333,500 a year, while the five American vessels operated by the Boston Steamship Company on the same route receive \$4,935 from our government. It is not necessary to look beyond such amazing facts as these to understand why Japan expects to drive the merchant flag of the United States from the Pacific as completely as she has driven off the naval flag of Russia.

A POWERFUL COMPANY.

The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the chief steamship company of Japan, though only a few years old, is far larger and more powerful, and possesses more tonnage, than any ocean steamship company in America. It has 70 steamers, of 236,000 tons, and has recently declared a 12 per cent. dividend. Besides the lines to Australia and Puget Sound, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha operates a line of twelve fourteen-knot steamers to Europe, for which it receives a subsidy of \$1,364,000 annually, or as much as the United States gives in mail and naval subventions to all the ocean lines beneath the American flag.

It is said that the shipping laws which have wrought this swift expansion of the Japanese merchant marine,—the act of 1896 and the amendatory act of 1900,—passed the Diet by unanimous vote. Regularly for years our American Presidents have urged in their formal messages that steps be taken for the rehabilitation of the American merchant marine. This has been repeatedly demanded by the commercial interests of the United States, and it has been promised in successive national party platforms. Until now, however, Congress has neglected to adopt any comprehensive measure of relief or encouragement. Meanwhile, our European competitors have destroyed American shipping on the steam routes of the North Atlantic, as the Japanese are preparing to do on the Pacific. Trained American officers and seamen, available for a naval reserve, will soon become as few as Russia has just found her own officers and men in the awful hour of her trial and humiliation.

The maintenance of an adequate merchant shipping has thus far been regarded in America as mainly a commercial question. But the experience of Japan and the fate of Russia sharply suggest whether this is not even more imperatively a question of naval preparedness, of national defense.

THE PEACE NEGOTIATORS AT WASHINGTON.

WITH the announcement of the appointment of the peace plenipotentiaries and the agreement of Russia and Japan upon Portsmouth, N. H., as an adjourned place of meeting during the hot weather, all the details preliminary to the conference between the two belligerents have been practically arranged. The negotiators finally chosen are: For Russia, Count Sergius Witte (he is a count, although he seldom uses his title) and Baron Roman Romanovitch Rosen; for Japan, Baron Jutaro Komura and Mr. Kogoro Takahira. Each commission will bring with it a corps of secretaries and legal advisers, including some of the most eminent diplomatic and legal talent obtainable.

Baron Rosen and Mr. Takahira are already in this country, and Count Witte and Baron Komura will have arrived before this number of the REVIEW reaches most of its readers. There were several changes in the original announcement of names for the commission,—M. Nelidov, Russian ambassador to France, and Ambassador Muraviev having been successively named and declining to serve on the Russian side; while Count Ito, prominently mentioned as Japan's chief negotiator, but never officially appointed, had been generally regarded as unable to serve because of advanced age.

The names of all these commissioners are such as to indicate the sincerity and high intentions of both contending powers, and the announcement of their appointment has been received with satisfaction throughout the world. They are all plenipotentiary,—that is, clothed with full power to negotiate terms of peace, subject only in matters of the most vital importance to the revision of their home governments.

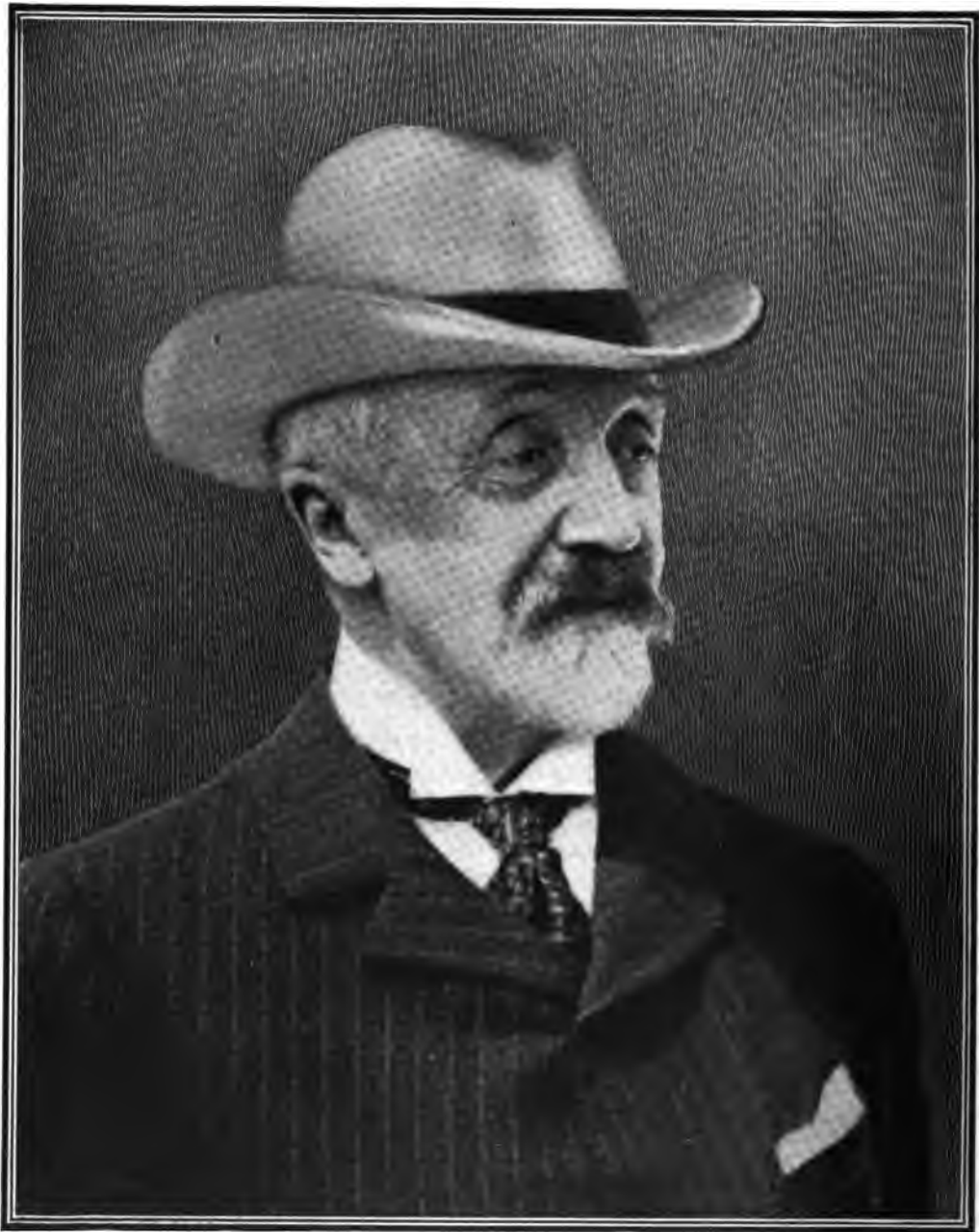
The commission will sit in the government building in the navy yard at Portsmouth, and will be the guest of the United States Government during its stay.

That Czar Nicholas is earnestly and sincerely desirous of peace is plainly evident from his appointment of Sergius Witte as Russia's chief negotiator. This statesman's eminent services to his country, and his high native ability, as well as his known desire for peace and his considerate attitude toward the Tokio government, are a guarantee that Russia will obtain the most favorable terms compatible with the vital interests of Japan. Mr. Witte is thoroughly imbued with the modern spirit. An aristocrat by temperament and naturally inclined to favor the autocracy, he is yet far-sighted and truly patri-

otic enough to see that the days of despotism in Russia are over, and that an industrial, commercial nation, such as the Russians are rapidly becoming, is impossible unless the arbitrary interferences of the autocracy and the bureaucracy be removed.

Mr. Witte, who comes of old Dutch stock, is now in his fifty-seventh year. Born the son of a poor tradesman at Tiflis, Witte began life as a railroad clerk, who also performed the functions of porter. He has been a railroad man all his life, and it is in railroad service that he sees a large feature of his country's future prosperity. In the war with Turkey, in 1878, Russia's military communications were in a terrible condition, and it was Witte who, having risen steadily from his provincial position to one of national import, brought order out of chaos and did more than any one civilian to bring victory to Russia. Promotion came swiftly. He was successively director and administrator of a number of important railway systems, wrote a number of volumes on railway administration, and prepared the first statute of Russian railways. Finally, as minister of ways and communications (a post to which he was appointed in 1892), Mr. Witte was able to introduce a finely organized system into all the Russian railways and convert many of them from liabilities into assets. Barely half a year after his appointment as minister of ways and communications, he was elevated to the important position of minister of finance.

Mr. Witte found Russia practically a medieval, largely Oriental, country. By his energy, and with the aid of his practical experience, he succeeded in leaving her well advanced on the way toward a truly modern commonwealth, commercially and industrially. He championed Russian manufacturing interests; used the vast enterprises and resources of the state to build up manufactures in many ways; discouraged investment in speculative schemes; brought about the adoption of the gold standard by the Russian Government; created the Siberian Railway; prevailed upon the state to assume a monopoly of the manufacture and sale of whiskey, improving the quality of this production and restricting its sale so that drunkenness has been largely decreased; established a government reserve fund, from which distressed agriculturists have been able to borrow millions of rubles annually; and, while refraining from increasing the burden of direct taxation, almost doubled the government revenue from



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BARON ROMAN ROMANOVITCH ROSEN.

(New Russian ambassador to the United States and Russia's second peace negotiator with Japan. A portrait of Russia's leading negotiator, Count Sergius Witte, is frontispiece to this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*.)

indirect taxation. But he was too progressive and too thoroughly imbued with the modern spirit for the reactionaries, and after acting for some years as secretary of state and privy counselor he was shelved by being made president of the Committee of Ministers.

Russia's other commissioner, Baron Rosen, who is also the new ambassador to Washington,

succeeding Count Cassini, has a long-standing acquaintance with the United States and American life. Baron Rosen was for eight years first secretary of the Russian embassy in Washington, and for years consul-general in New York. Baron Rosen is eminently a peace man. He served his country for many years as secretary of legation, and then as minister, in Tokio, and



BARON JUTARO KOMURA.

(Japan's minister of foreign affairs and her leading peace negotiator.)

was emphatic in his denunciation of the war policy of Alexiev and others. He has never forfeited the respect and admiration of the Japanese people, and his appointment as one of the commissioners has already brightened the chances of a permanent and honorable peace.

Baron Jutaro Komura is one of the most remarkable of the younger statesmen of Japan. He comes from the ministry of foreign affairs, a

post which he has filled with dignity and success since 1900. He conducted the Manchurian negotiations which led up to the war in a manner highly satisfactory to the Emperor and the entire people. Baron Komura is a Harvard man, and speaks English with a strong Boston accent. He won his spurs in Korea, in 1895, when Japanese diplomacy was so discredited. Five years later, he went to Peking, and participated in the peace



Photograph by Prince, Washington.

MR. KOGORO TAKAHIRA.

(Japanese minister to the United States and second peace negotiator.)

conference there, as a result of the Boxer rebellion and the expedition of the allied powers. During his stay at the Chinese capital he won the confidence of China so largely that there has existed an unpublished but effective alliance between Japan and China, which has been very helpful to the former during her war with Russia. Baron Komura was Japanese minister to Washington preceding Mr. Takahira. His greatest

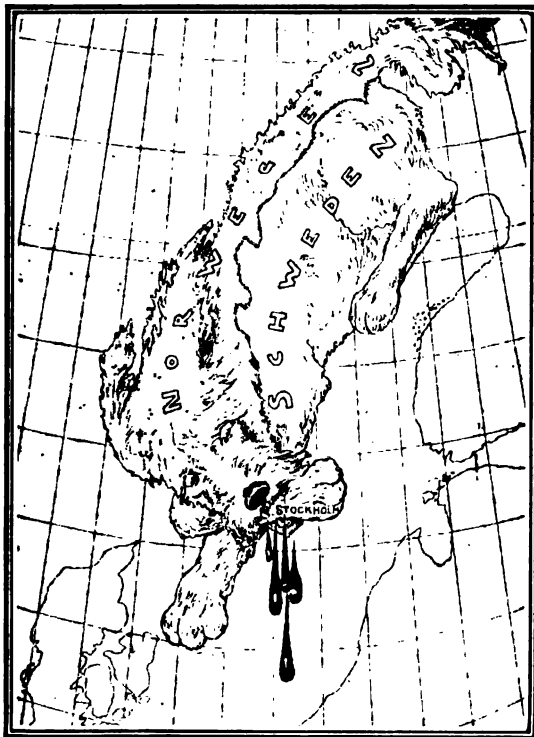
triumph may be said to be the long and delicate negotiations which he, as foreign minister, conducted with Baron Rosen, then Russian minister, which culminated in the great struggle between the two powers.

The second Japanese commissioner is Mr. Takahira, present Japanese minister to the United States, whose career and diplomatic accomplishments were outlined in this REVIEW for June.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE SEPARATION OF NORWAY AND SWEDEN.

WRITING in the *Monthly Review* on "Scandinavia in the Scales of the Future," Mr. E. John Solano lays stress upon the danger that Germany, by way of creating bad blood between Briton and Slav, may encourage Russia to seize the northern seaports of Norway. The Norwegian littoral, he points out, is more than



GERMAN ADVICE TO NORWAY.

"In biting off Sweden's nose, be careful you do not lose your own teeth!"—From *Ulk* (Berlin).

ever tempting to Russia now that she has been driven out of the Pacific. He hopes that Norway will not sever all union with Sweden.

If the Norwegian people have finally decided on separation, the situation is indeed hopeless. But if they are truly desirous of maintaining the principle of the union,—which their ministers have stated to be the case,—and, at the same time, determined to vindicate peacefully, their right to stand as an independent sov-

ereign state, there is one practical way for the attainment of both of these ends. They have now declared that the issues with Sweden are international—not domestic. Then, through the present admirable and conciliatory attitude of Sweden, they may, without loss of dignity or prestige, follow the precedent of other independent states and propose to seek final arbitration upon the issues with Sweden—from a friendly and trusted foreign ruler, with a view to preserving the principle of the union in whatever form it may be both possible and acceptable. For such an office King Edward VII. of Greater Britain may well be preferred, both by reason of his relationship to the future Queen of Sweden,—who would have been the joint queen of Sweden and Norway,—and his reputation as an advocate of peace. Such an arbitrament would further set the seal of Britain upon the essential condition of the future safety of Scandinavia—the union, to which she gave her sanction when, through her fleets and armies, she gave peace to Europe a century ago. This suggestion—if all others fail—is at least worth the attention of Scandinavian statesmen.

Sweden's National Parliament, the Riksdag.

The only real opposition to the peaceful, quiet settlement of the Norwegian-Swedish difficulty has so far come from the landed class of Sweden and the Swedish upper house. In the Danish review *Det Nye Aarhundrede*, of Copenhagen, a writer who signs himself Spånberg sketches the history and general attitude of this body. It was established, he tells us, by legislation of the same aristocratic character as the Danish house. This upper chamber of the Riksdag is composed of one hundred and fifty members, or about one-half the number of the lower house. They are chosen by electors. The voters have votes in proportion to their income, with the only limit, that no single voter may cast more than five hundred ballots. Thus, the predominance of the wealthy is secured. In addition, this is further secured by the regulation that no one is eligible to membership in the upper house unless he possess 80,000 kroner (approximately, \$20,000), or a yearly income of 4,000 kroner (approximately, \$1,000). According to Mr. Spånberg, the history of this house has been a very discreditable one. He asserts that it has always been opposed to progress and liberalism. It has always been bitterly opposed to the Norwegian demands. It has always demanded a larger army and navy, and has invariably stood for more kingly power. The upper chamber has also brought about the

passage of a high protective tariff for industry and agriculture. This policy, which Mr. Spångberg insists was brought about through political fraud, has, he believes, impoverished the workingman and the common people in the interest

of the manufacturers and landlords. In regard to religious liberty, education, and other questions, this writer finds the upper house of the Swedish parliament always considering its own privileges before the interests of the people.

DELCASSÉ AND GERMAN "WELTPOLITIK."

WHAT the French cannot forgive M. Delcassé, says M. de Pressensé, writing in the *Nineteenth Century*, is "not to have known his mind, not to have chosen between a policy of friendly talk and a policy of silent indifference, and to have maladroitly given pretext and



DELCASSÉ'S NEST DISTURBED.

(One of the chickens, Morocco, is represented as trying to break away from the protection of the mother bird, and the Russian Baltic fleet is enjoying the sheltering protection of French "neutrality," while Germany, England, and Japan look on threateningly.)—From *Le Grelot* (Paris).

occasion to what we call, in France, a *querelle d'Allemand*. When the crisis came, when Wilhelm the Second went to Fez and talked big, it was not too late to put him in the wrong, to take back the interrupted method of negotiations, and to free the way to peaceful action in Morocco." Congratulating the nation on the accession of M. Rouvier, this writer continues :

M. Rouvier promised,—first, the immediate return to neutrality in Indo-Chinese waters, and we got it ; secondly, the immediate opening of friendly conversation with Germany ; but here he was, and we were, too, balked by the obstinacy of his colleague. I do not think English opinion would have tolerated for an hour a minister who, without offering any denial, any explanation, any answer, before the only legitimate instance, Parliament, after having left the head of the government to save him by making specific promises in his name, should have immediately taken up his intrigues, should have put into use in a most dangerous crisis the force of inertia, and should have secretly got the tribe of officious journalists and of sympathetic correspondents to trumpet his greatness, to traduce the policy of his critics, and to serve his obstinacy. Time went by. No progress was made. The advocates of M. Delcassé proclaimed that it was all the fault of Wilhelm the Second, and everybody was tempted to believe it. All at once it was discovered that while Germany without doubt brought "no milk of human kindness" to sweeten the negotiations, it was M. Delcassé who deliberately persisted in keeping silent. A question was threatened in the House ; it was put to him in the cabinet. Brought to bay, he let the secret out. This small man was mad enough to look serenely, even joyfully, on the fearful prospect of a great Continental war on such a pretext. Facts came out. It was proved that, not satisfied with imperiling the peace of the world by putting under his feet the orders of Parliament and the instructions of his colleagues, he negotiated secretly with the Vatican at the time when relations were broken and when France was engaged in divorcing Church and State. Such unforgivable mistakes are surely sufficient reason for the dismissal of a politician.

How the Germans Regard Delcassé's Fall.

Mr. Austen Harrison, the son of Mr. Frederic Harrison, who is Reuter's agent at Berlin, sends to the same review the German view of the French minister's fall. He says :

M. Delcassé had ended by flouting Germany ; Morocco was about to become a French colony, America was pro-English, and the Spanish plans had proved abortive. England had quite recovered her position in the world. This was the plight of Germany when suddenly the collapse of Russia was revealed to Europe. With consummate skill the Emperor William gauged the situation, and acted accordingly. He went to Morocco. In one day he completely changed the whole military situation. For the plain fact is, German military opinion no longer fears France. Moreover, from the most martial people in Europe the French have become emi-

nently industrious and peace-loving. Their fighting zest has gone. All this the German Emperor was fully aware of. He immediately began to browbeat France, which, it must be admitted, was in a very delicate position. Gradually the situation grew worse. Germany continued silently arming, but still M. Delcassé showed no sign of relenting, and things rapidly drifted into a dangerous state of tension. The crisis came suddenly. About the time that the bride of the crown prince was making her state entry into Berlin, the German Government was officially informed of certain movements of French troops near the frontier; regiments had been brought up to their full strength, and officers' leave had been stopped. The reply of Germany was practically an ultimatum. For a couple of days the situation was really critical. Germany demanded that the massing of troops on the frontier should cease, or it would be regarded as an unfriendly act; and to her great relief the long-wished-for reply was ultimately flashed across the wires. M. Delcassé was to retire. All immediate danger was averted. Count Bülow was elevated to the dignity of prince, and by sacrificing M. Delcassé France proclaimed to the world her peaceful proclivities.

For the continuance of M. Delcassé in office, concludes this writer, would have forced France to face the eventuality of war with Germany, who, whether bluffing (as some suppose) or not, gave France clearly to understand that further evasion on her part to enter into negotiations with Germany regarding Morocco would jeopardize the peace of Europe. And so France decided to meet Germany half-way. That is the reason and the meaning of M. Delcassé's fall.

The Overlordship of Germany.

That the effacement of Russia means the ascendancy of Germany has been rudely brought home to many European statesmen by the dismissal of M. Delcassé at the bidding of the

Kaiser. Dr. E. J. Dillon, in the *Contemporary*, moralizes upon the consequences of the paramountcy of Germany. He tells us quite frankly:

The effective barrier to Germany's policy of aggression has been swept away, and with it one of the mainstays of the world's peace. And to remedy that state of things ought to be the primary aim of our foreign policy in the present and in the future. The Hohenzollern world-empire is no longer a mere dream. Politicians note with amazement how suddenly that ambitious aim, long scoffed at as chimerical, has come to be reckoned with as one of the contingencies of the near future. Europe will henceforward be policed and watched over by Germany, and the only contribution she will expect from her *protégés* is that they shall adjust their foreign policy to her interests, which are, of course, those of peace. But what they must be prepared for is the intermeddling in every international, and even purely national, question, not merely of the German Kaiser or his government, whom we are wont to look upon as lovers of peace, but also of the Prussian war party, whose aims the Kaiser and his government are said to disavow, deprecate, and act upon. If one may judge by the present temper of the French Chamber, henceforth no secretary of state for foreign affairs will be tolerated in France whose policy or person is disagreeable to the German Kaiser, the German chancellor, or the German war party. Whenever the differences between France and Germany are settled, and they will probably be solved diplomatically by the representatives of the two interested powers, southern Morocco will, it is alleged, be earmarked for the Fatherland.

It is more difficult to remove Germany's grievance against England. For "the main interest of Germany was, is, and will be, the perpetuation of the immemorial feud between England and France. To end that once for all would be to do Germany a permanent and a vital injury. That, it is affirmed, is the standpoint of the Kaiser's government."

THE DISINTEGRATION OF MOROCCO.

AN elaborate and keen analysis of the present status of Morocco and the future possibilities of that country is contributed to the *International Quarterly* by Ion Perdicaris, whose first-hand knowledge of Morocco and conditions of life in that empire are certainly not excelled. Mr. Perdicaris believes that, after the evolution of Japan, the development of China will come, and then, "ultimately, poor Morocco, very limp and lame, will begin to move into line, though slowly and most unwillingly, despite the physis held so insistently to her lips by her would-be foster-mother, Madame France, who has so alluringly labeled the unwelcome drug 'Pacific Penetration.'" For centuries, he continues, "this woe-begone child of sorrow, Morocco, has lain like a misshapen incubus along the north-

western shore of Africa, a nest of pirates, a constant menace to the mariner, an abode of unmitigated cruelty and oppression, a curse to its own inhabitants and a terror to the rest of the world."

A detailed recapitulation of the history of Morocco for the past century follows, and the reign of the former Sultan, Mulai-el-Hassan, is treated exhaustively. Coming to the reign of the present Sultan, Abd-el-Aziz, Mr. Perdicaris describes the political and economic condition of the country as hopelessly bad, compelling the interference of foreign powers to preserve order and peace. England and France had worked together in comparative harmony, and matters were on the way to a peaceful settlement, says Mr. Perdicaris, when, "last and

greatest of all the trials to which the French had been exposed, came the dramatic announcement of the approaching arrival at Tangier of the Emperor William in person, an ominous presence, boding ill to penetration, pacific or otherwise." Despite the possibilities for trouble in the German Emperor's visit, Mr. Perdicaris believes that there is "indisputable justification of the Kaiser's intervention in the evident determination of the French to reserve for themselves all government concessions, in spite of their enforced inability to assure the maintenance of order in the Moorish sultanate or to protect the inhabitants even of the coast towns against aggressions." In further justification of the Kaiser's visit Mr. Perdicaris says:

What critics who are ignorant of trade conditions in Morocco do not realize is that the entire trade, both imports and exports, only amounts to about fifteen million dollars per annum, and that the fulfillment of government orders for public works required to develop transport and other resources indispensably needed to render any serious expansion of trade possible constitutes the only important financial operation of the immediate future. If France were willing to assume the responsibility or expense of maintaining order, she might have been entitled to reserve for French syndicates alone such advantages; but as it is, the Kaiser is amply justified in insisting that German merchants shall have a share in placing tenders for these Moorish orders, tenders or bids which, unless thus especially protected, would be defeated by the predominant influence which the French profess the right to assert by virtue of the Anglo-French agreement of April, 1904, and the subsequent Franco-Spanish agreement. The only way to secure this right to a share in such enterprises is for the various governments represented at the Madrid conference of 1880 to hold the Sultan to that agreement, and to refuse to recognize any right on the part of France, England, or Spain to guarantee to France or to any power an exclusive or predominating influence in Morocco.

Should the conference actually take place, he continues, "it might be advisable, in the interests of an amicable solution, to suggest a division of these Moorish government concessions," classified under some of the following heads, each class to be awarded to syndicates of the respective powers interested in the settlement of this thorny question:

1. Austria-Hungary, Concessions for uniforms and small arms, with other similar equipments.
2. Belgium, Electric appliances.
3. France, Execution of works for ports and harbors.
4. Germany, Artillery and ammunition.
5. Great Britain, Railways.
6. Spain, Vessels and naval material.
7. Italy, Mining concessions.
8. United States, Sectional steel bridges.

While admitting the purity of motive of the French foreign office and the French minister to Morocco, Mr. Perdicaris says, in concluding his interesting article:

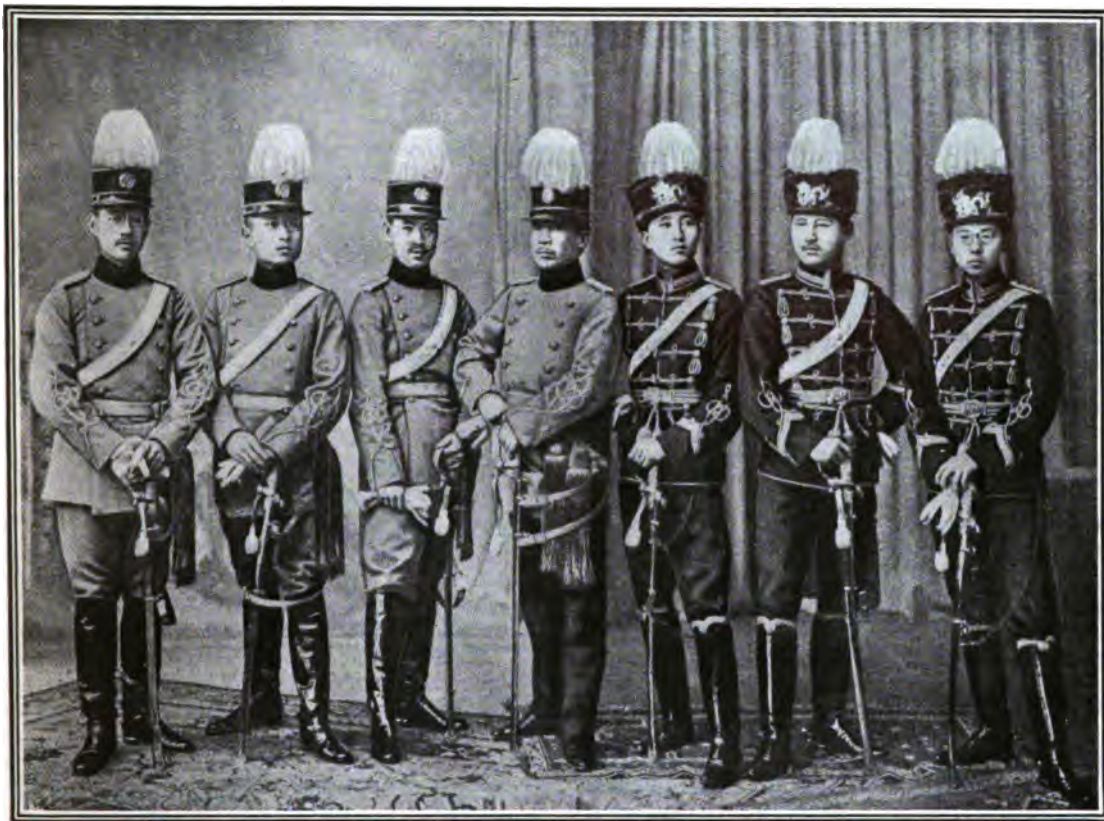
The contention that because France possesses a co-terminous frontier along the Algerian border she has a right to claim absolute and exclusive control, even while she declines all outlay or the assumption of any obligation to maintain law or order, conditions upon whose successful fulfillment the ordinary trade interests of every nation and of the country itself absolutely depend,—such a contention is not worthy a moment's consideration. And we take it that, however inconvenient either to M. Delcassé or to other French statesmen, or even to simple residents in the Sultan's dominions, like the writer, such an incident as the Emperor William's dramatic intervention may have proved, yet it should be realized that the sovereign who controls the German legions was fully justified in asking where he and his merchants were to "come in" under this new process of diplomatic legerdemain favored by M. Delcassé and by Lord Lansdowne.

IS JAPAN REALLY PREPARING THE "YELLOW PERIL?"

TO a "French diplomat" who writes in the *Deutsche Revue*, the "yellow peril" is a reality of dire proportions. The Japanese, he believes, are intent upon aggrandizement, achieved by no matter what means. They will find some cause or pretext, he maintains, to wrest from the French, the Dutch, and the Americans their Asiatic possessions. Fanatical, bound by no traditions, either as regards their own self-respect or the interests of other nations, their increase of power bodes evil to the hard-earned progress of Western civilization. "Their advance is a borrowed one,—not like the Western, reached by slow, painful stages.

They are at bottom barbarians whose spiritual growth has not kept pace with their material development."

All the Asiatic peoples now recognize that the axis of the Asiatic world has been shifted. They had resigned themselves to their fate, submitted themselves to the civilizing process, had given up the hope of regaining the lost freedom of the state of nature, and even India, which once had firm faith in Russia, had ceased to hope anything from her; the British nation seemed to be the world-power to which all nations would become tributary. The Japanese successes, first at sea, then by land, struck this enervated world like a cannon-stroke, and Siam, which is led by British sentiment; India, which is under England's dominion; the



THE OYAMAS, NOGIS, AND KUROKIS OF CHINA, WHO ARE BEING EDUCATED IN JAPAN AND GERMANY.

Malay Islands, Java and Sumatra, the Anamites of Anam, Tonquin, and Cochin China, pricked up their ears. Five hundred East Indians at once set out to attend the lectures at the Japanese universities; Siam concluded a compact of amity, of whose provisions Europe has remained ignorant, with Japan; in Singapore, Batavia, Surabaya, Saigon, Hanoi, and Hai-phong the Chinese secret societies have redoubled their precautionary measures and their activity; China has opened its doors to Japanese traders, Japanese officials, and Japanese military instructors; in French Indo-China it was found necessary to prohibit Chinese newspapers and to order the imprisonment of Chinese and Japanese spies.

The eyes of the nations of Asia are now turned upon Japan; upon her they set their hopes. Is not that a sufficiently earnest signal, which the nations of Europe are henceforth bound to notice, and which must make England pause in her course, impelled as she has been by the secret thought that she has become the chosen people of God, the people to whom the entire earth has been promised, and who will one day rule over all races? Japan is not alone, as I have before observed, a strong and organized nation; it is more than that. The Japanese nation, like the English, believes in its mission, and feels called to liberate all the races of Asia, to snatch from the hands of the Europeans all the dominions which they have taken from the natives. This is an exalted mission, and this belief in their destiny is a

fruitful, inspiring idea which is capable of producing heroes and imbuing a whole nation with the fanaticism which constituted the strength of France in the Revolution. Now, a people like the Japanese, which is still near enough to barbarism to be possessed of its brutal energy, its muscles independent of nerves, its frugality, and is at the same time civilized enough to have all those means at its disposal which the other races have in a long course of progress achieved,—a people like that is dangerous; yes, more dangerous than a nation with hundreds of years of civilization behind it, for this people, which has contributed nothing to the great work of humanity, which has received everything from the other races, need have no regard for what has conduced to make it great. It does not harbor in its soul that certain something which creates a feeling of solidarity among all nations that have worked in unison for progress; it does not feel called upon to respect the things that are, has not the human ideals of the old races. If it is impelled by a great idea, it has regard only for what will further that idea, and for nothing beyond it. In a word, it is above all destructive, not conservative; it is a civilized Attila, but nevertheless an Attila.

If Japan should infuse a little of the spirit which now animates her into China, if she should instill into her a feeling of self-confidence, electrify that inert mass, unconscious of its strength,

and hurl it upon India, rising up against England; upon the Sunda Islands, Java and Sumatra, on the brink of revolt against Holland; upon Europe, so divided by the interests of the moment, where nations which are constituted to agree with each other, to arrive at an understanding, dream of acquiring dominions containing a few million people,—what will the future of the white race be?

Of Western civilization they have the arms, the garb, the equipments, but their spirit has remained Japanese, and the civilization which they are capable of founding will not be a daughter of ours, which has educated them,—it will be a disfigurement, a bastard form of it, an adaptation of a sort whereby the moral and intellectual fate of mankind will be changed.

What China Is Learning from the War.

The new attitude of China toward Western civilization, due largely to the Russo-Japanese war, is intelligently analyzed and described by L. N. di Giura, of Peking, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). He thinks that the events of the Boxer revolution showed the Chinese people that they must become a power respected, if not feared, by other nations if they wished to maintain their independence, but the government, willfully blind, has been slow to change the existing order. The same events convinced the people that the Japanese troops conducted themselves best at Tientsin and Peking. Instead of pillaging shops, desecrating temples, and vexing the populace, they devoted themselves to maintaining order, and their quarter was a secure haven for returning fugitives. The Chinese had called the Japanese "*wo-jen*," or "dwarfs," but they learned to admire their valor and sturdiness. Two years ago, Japanese were called to China to organize the gendarmerie. After Natung, of the Peking ministry of foreign affairs, had made a voyage to Japan, many Chinese students were sent there, though the government rather followed than led in the pro-Japanese movement. Then came the Russian occupation of the ancestral home of the Manchus, which, threatening to be permanent, rendered the Chinese furious, though they would perhaps have patiently endured it if the Japanese had not undertaken to oust the intruders, and thus vastly increased Chinese sympathy for them, and also suggested that China might do as much if only organized.

The writer says that the highest functionaries in China are ignoramuses who are simply saturated with Confucianism and the ancient prejudices; but those who have traveled, especially the younger element, realize what China might be if organized after European fashion. Study

in Japan and the founding of modern schools in China have created a young reform party, not favorable to foreigners, but anxious that China should take her proper place among nations. The government gropes its way and establishes new organisms without destroying the old. For instance, the *Lien-ping-chu*, or committee of national defense, has been founded side by side with the *Ping-pu*, or decadent ministry of war, as a result of the lessons of the present war. Hence, Japanese officers have been called to reform the Chinese army. Military students at the Military School of the South have been ordered to cut off their queues, and European uniforms have been planned. A loan of about three million dollars, at high interest (12 per cent.), has been arranged by the viceroy of Pe-chi-li for making over the army of that province. Only the best European arms and equipment are now acquired.

The awakening of a national spirit is quite largely due to the students in Japan, who are spectators of the joyous self-sacrifice of patriotic young soldiers and the rejoicings over victories. For instance, they have issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of the province of Szechuen, saying that if they do not cease giving concessions for mines and railroads to foreigners some fine day the Russians will quietly make themselves masters of the region. To prevent the possibility of the railroad from Chung-ching-fu to Hankow passing from the hands of the Belgian promoters to the Russians, the students organized a syndicate to buy up all the bonds and keep it under Chinese control,—a significant sign of a new spirit. The Chinese newspapers continually report the refusal of concessions to foreign applicants.

Another significant event is the calling of a diet of all the mandarins down to the fifth grade to discuss affairs of state. Opposition to this was promptly overruled by the Emperor himself. In the eyes of the government, China will not change, but only modify herself sufficiently to carry out more successfully the same old programme,—China for the Chinese, and away with the foreigners. Signor di Giura believes, however, that, unwittingly, the government is preparing the way for revolution when the Dowager-Empress dies. When the students return home from Japan, America, and Europe and find that the government can only give them the task of lighting the pipe of some fat official or carrying in visiting cards, they will feel themselves superior to the governing functionaries and will form a nucleus of discontent which may overturn the old governmental edifice.

JAPAN'S TRAFALGAR.

THE European reviews are publishing analytical articles on Admiral Togo's triumph in the battle of the Sea of Japan. These articles do not add much to what has already been written and presented in this magazine, but one study, from the standpoint of a British naval authority, appearing in the *United Service Magazine*, of London, is noteworthy. It is Admiral Sir E. R. Fremantle, G.C.B., who writes. He points out that by some curious psychological turn public attention has always been engrossed with the decisive results obtained in battles on shore,—Tours, Hastings, Waterloo, and Sedan,—while in reality the more decisive battles in the history of the world have been those on sea. The admiral mentions Actium, Lepanto, the defeat of the Armada, Trafalgar, and Navarino. The battle of the Sea of Japan, he declares, has been a victory more complete than Trafalgar. It is not only a victory,—it is a conquest. After a brief consideration of the principal sea fights since Trafalgar (Navarino, Lissa, the Yalu, and Santiago), Admiral Fremantle proceeds to discuss the battle of the Sea of Japan from the standpoint of a naval tactician. He commends Admiral Rozhdestvenski for his considerable skill and seamanship in bringing his armada to the far East in such comparatively good shape, con-

sidering his lack of support and supplies. He condemns the Russian commander, however, for so dividing up his ships that none of his units were homogeneous. Turning his attention to Admiral Togo and his tactics, this British naval writer cannot admire too much the Japanese commander's self-restraint in awaiting battle in his own waters. The Japanese admiral's maneuvers are characterized as "sheep-dog tactics," which were certainly justified by the results. On this point, Admiral Fremantle compliments Admiral Togo highly. He says:

It is doubtful whether any other course of action would have achieved such complete success, but they could not have been safely adopted without the advantage of speed, and with a less perfectly trained fleet. Rozhdestvenski's formation, on the other hand, was essentially faulty, and he had set himself an impossible task in endeavoring to force his way north in the face of Togo's superior fleet, encumbered with non-fighting ships. These he should have got rid of, either leaving them behind till he had disposed of Togo or sending them around Japan to endeavor to reach Vladivostok by the Tsugaru or Pérouse straits. The mere mention of these alternatives shows how desperate was Rozhdestvenski's position. As it was, he fought in an order of sailing unsuitable for action in the endeavor to protect his non-fighting ships, while comparatively weak-protected cruisers appear to have been mixed up with the battleships.

ONE OF THE SECRETS OF JAPANESE VICTORIES.

A WELL-KNOWN author and journalist, and former member of the Japanese House of Representatives, Mr. S. Shiga, contributes to the *Keizai Zasshi* an article in which he gives an analysis of the Japanese soldier, stating his opinion that all of Japan's success is not due to the spiritual and moral education founded upon the system of *bushido*, or Japanese chivalry. He points out the fact that in the early stages of the siege of Port Arthur the Japanese were unsuccessful. They were not combating animate beings called Russians, he says, but "a huge, inanimate matter, consisting of enormous works of iron and steel, and of an appalling mass of rocks and stones." While the importance of the Japanese system of warlike training is very great, it has been overestimated, Mr. Shiga believes. It has been permitted to overshadow the yet greater importance of the application of scientific knowledge and invention to the attack of strongly fortified garrisons. Mr. Shiga gives an account of the barbed wires, the entangling nets of electric wires, the numberless mines, the

explosives spreading nauseating odors, the moats often fifteen meters deep, and the appalling batteries, all of which conspired to baffle the assault of the Japanese. To cope with this stupendous work of defense the attacking force was obliged to seek for the help of the new instruments and machines, the devising of which taxed heavily upon the brains of the Japanese inventors and scientists. As the destruction of the Port Arthur batteries was mainly due to the application of science, so was the sinking of most Russian warships that sought refuge in the harbor of the port. Were it not for their accurate knowledge of mathematics, how could the Japanese gunners shell those ships of the enemy of which they could not get the slightest glimpse from behind the hills at Port Arthur that sheltered them against the shells of the besieging force? Indeed, the accuracy of their marks was so marvelous that many a Chinese in the invested town declared that the Japanese shells had eyes which seemed to see exactly what they were after. For all these results, Mr.

Shiga believes, the Japanese army is indebted to the power of science.

Even if she have to sacrifice *bushido*, declares Mr. Shiga, Japan is bound to foster the development of science. It is fortunate for Japan that in the present struggle her adversary is Russia, "the most backward of the civilized countries of Europe." If, however, Japan should find herself confronted by an enemy far more advanced in scientific attainments, "she will have nothing but regret if she reverences *bushido* as all the soul of Japan."

After praising the generosity of the Russians in many instances of which he was an eye-witness at Port Arthur, Mr. Shiga goes on to say that the Japanese people are not essentially generous.

Pluck and spirit are the basic elements of Japanese character to which Japan is mainly indebted for her invariable successes in the warfares with foreign countries. It is feared that the encouragement of broad-mindedness and equanimity, which are essential to a really great nation, would cause the decay of the militant spirit and the indomitableness of the nation.

THE RUSSIAN BUREAUCRACY AND THE LABOR QUESTION.

ONE of the most clear-thinking and modern of the Russian economic writers, Mr. Victor Portugalov, in a recent issue of the St. Petersburg weekly *Nedelya*, reviews the second edition of a rather famous book on the labor question in Russia, written some years ago by Litvinov-Falinski. This is practically the only work in Russian containing even an attempt at a systematic review of the imperial legislation

on the labor question. As Mr. Portugalov points out, the author, in giving an account of Russian factory legislation, has endeavored to hold fast to the opinions which have guided the bureaucracy in its enactment of laws. The author himself is a factory inspector, and he has really given a digest (sometimes a verbal reproduction) of the official rulings on the relations of labor and capital. In his comment on the work, Mr.



THE DELEGATES FROM THE MOSCOW AND ST. PETERSBURG ZEMSTVO CONGRESS, WHICH ON JUNE 20 PRESENTED TO THE Czar A NATIONAL MEMORIAL FOR POLITICAL AND LABOR REFORM.

(Beginning at the top and reading to the right, following are the members: N. N. Zvov, of Saratov; F. I. Rodichev, of Tver; Count Zvov, of Tula; F. A. Golovine, of Moscow; Kovalevsky, of Kharkov; Count Dolgoroukov, of Rossisk; Count Troubetskoi, of Moscow [who spoke for the delegates]; Novossiltzev, of Temnikovsk; and Count Chakovski, of Yaroslav. The bottom row, beginning from the left, are Baron P. Z. Korv, of St. Petersburg; Count Heyden, of Pskov [the president of the delegation]; J. J. Petrunkevitch, of Tver; M. P. Federov, of St. Petersburg; and A. N. Nikotina, of St. Petersburg.)

Portugalov says: "It is, of course, well known that our bureaucracy denies the existence of every useful phenomenon when it first manifests itself." The very existence of the labor problem was not recognized by the Russian bureaucracy until last year, the *chinovniki* having insisted until that time that only patriarchal relations existed between Russian employers and their workmen, and that the entire "labor question" in Russia was invented by evil-minded persons.

As early as 1870, the review writer points out, a labor commission, known as the Ignatyev commission, was appointed for the elaboration of rules relating to the hiring of workmen and servants. After several years of sitting, however, no agreement could be reached, and the decision was, therefore, that it was premature to form general enactments on the hiring of labor. That is, "the legislation imperatively demanded by the events of 1870 turned out to be premature in 1880." Several other commissions were appointed, but did nothing. The first one to accomplish any real results was the one under the chairmanship of the late minister of the interior, Plehve. The work of this commission Mr. Litvinov-Falinski declares to have been "noble and timely." Whatever good there was in it, however, the re-

viewer insists, was forced from the bureaucracy in order to avoid a recurrence of labor agitation which might prove a menace to the "established order." Indeed, its entire point of view was that of the policeman.

It thus becomes clear that to the bureaucracy the labor question is, first of all, a question of "order," in the police sense of the word; and in the adjustment of the various conflicts between labor and capital the bureaucracy endeavors, in the first place, to protect its own interests, and it is because of this that our entire labor legislation is permeated with the spirit of paternalism and surveillance, with the attempt to deprive the groups interested of any opportunity for independent, active participation in the gratification of their needs. The entire treatment of labor legislation by the bureaucracy is little more than juggling.

With a great flourish of trumpets (the trumpeting is usually done by the *Novoye Vremya* and its kin), it enacts a law for the ostensible protection of labor, but really aiming at the "establishment of order." Immediately afterward it hands over the workmen to the tender mercies of the exploiters, through the previously established loopholes in the law. It thus satisfies the class and police point of view. It may be assumed that after the recent occurrences among our workmen the bureaucracy will not try to enforce this system.

RELIGIOUS TOLERATION AND THE JEWISH QUESTION IN RUSSIA.

THE Czar's rescript granting freedom of worship and conscience to thirteen million dissenters, sectarians, and others has been criticised even in Russian papers as falling short of the ideal of religious freedom and toleration as understood in Europe and America. It has been pointed out that, for one thing, the reform "does nothing for the Jews." The political writer for the leading radical monthly, the *Russkoye Bogatsvo*, discusses the political and economic aspects of the Jewish question in connection with the religious reforms. The Jews, he says, do get something under the rescript, but they do not get what they are primarily entitled to, and what the country must grant them at once if it is to turn its face in the direction of culture, progress, and freedom at all. Indeed, of all problems pressing for solution in Russia, the Jewish one, says this advanced monthly, the organ of the "Left," as the conservative papers call it, is the most vital and burning. The Jews, it is true, may worship in their own way, and certain restrictions as to the building of synagogues and the formation of

religious societies have been removed. Besides, many thousands of "converted" Jews are now permitted to return to their real faith. But these are mere trifles. The great sin and blunder of Russia, says this magazine, with regard to her Jewish population is found in the denial of equal rights of citizenship to millions whose religion is not proscribed or persecuted. Here is the anomaly, the crying contradiction,—it is lawful to profess Judaism, but he who does profess it is yet treated as an outlaw and deprived of the essential attributes of citizenship. He is confined within a "pale;" he is prohibited from engaging in certain occupations or from practising the liberal professions. He may not own land or cultivate it in large areas; his children are excluded from educational institutions.

On what ground are all these restrictions imposed upon the Jewish subjects of the Czar? They are not aliens; they have been in the country ever since Russia acquired the provinces they inhabit. They have not forfeited their rights through rebellion. Whatever injustice and oppression Russia has been guilty

of toward Poland, Finland, and other subject populations (and she has been guilty of much injustice) may be attributed to political error; in the case of the Jew, the injustice is morally as well as politically reprehensible.

Anti-Semitic organs affect to believe, continues the writer, that the anti-Jewish measures are economic, not racial or religious. The Jew is accused of plundering and "exploiting" the peasant and monopolizing the wealth of the country; but what are the facts? The millions of Jews in the pale are impoverished, and reduced to a state of wretchedness bordering on pauperism. In spite of the severest and most exhausting toil, they cannot make a decent living. An elaborate investigation covering twenty-five provinces and over seven hundred thousand families showed that in recent years nearly 19 per cent. of the Jews have been compelled to apply for charitable relief. That is, one man in five is a pauper, as against one man in twenty of the Christian population. In some governments the percentage of destitution or pauperism among the Jews rises to 25.

In view of these figures, asks the writer, what a mockery it is to charge the Jews of Russia

with robbing the peasants of their substance, and how absurd it is to say that they must be denied ordinary rights of industry, property, and residence in order to prevent their absorption of the wealth and resources of the empire!

The conclusion reached by the writer is that without any further delay Russia must grant the Jews full equality of rights. This alone will realize true religious toleration. But mere negative emancipation,—the withdrawal of galling restrictions,—will not answer the requirements of a situation produced by a long period of discrimination, persecution, and cruelty. When the serfs were liberated, the government gave them land; without economic opportunity, emancipation would have been a sham and a delusion. The Jews, likewise, must be provided with means of subsistence.

It is understood that the commission now considering economic reform has passed over the Jewish question as too involved and difficult, and has decided to refer it in its entirety to the national assembly which is shortly to be convoked. Liberal Russia is ready to grant the Jews equal rights and opportunities.

IS THERE NEW HOPE FOR POLAND?

RECALLING the fact that the last Polish uprising was coincident with the central year of the American Civil War, Mr. David Bell Macgowan, in a very instructive article in the *July Century*, draws a comparison which is very graphic. He asks us to assume that the Confederate States are still under martial law. Then imagine such a state of affairs as the following:

All Southerners excluded from offices with salaries exceeding five hundred dollars a year, and the entire South run by corrupt "carpet-baggers" animated by racial hatred. Scarcely a new school or post-office opened since the inauguration of Lincoln. The States without Legislatures; counties and cities handed over to Washington appointees; the courts intrusted to aliens ignorant of the laws of the land. The press under a censorship as capricious as it is severe,—the newspapers forbidden even to copy sympathetic articles from Northern journals; the theaters controlled by the police. Railway tariffs discriminating against home products, and taxes in some instances eight times as high as in the North, and devoted mainly to the support of the national government, which makes no concealment of its policy of encouraging racial and class discord. Then imagine Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri, southern Indiana, and southern Illinois ruled in the same manner, with a view to the suppression of "Copperheads;" suppose persons of Southern descent denied the right of buying, leasing, or farming land in these States, or of bequeathing it except in direct succession, and you will

have a faint notion of the restrictions still imposed, after the lapse of forty years, upon the former grand duchy of Lithuania and Ukraine, which were united to Poland for four hundred years and still have a large Polish-speaking population.

OPPRESSION AS TO RELIGION AND LANGUAGE.

This imperfect comparison takes no account of religious differences felt by those concerned to be as great as between Protestantism and Catholicism, and differences of language as wide as between English and French. Consider, therefore, the following situation:

The Russian language used exclusively in the courts and in public buildings, and in such schools as exist even in teaching Polish, which is forbidden altogether in Lithuania and the Ukraine; Roman Catholic priests, like ticket-of-leave men, forbidden to leave their parishes without police permission, and subject to fine, imprisonment, and deportation if, for instance, they obey their consciences instead of the constables and heed a death-bed call while on a visit away from home, or if some one reports that they read the prayers for the safety of the imperial family with less than due care. A large number of the people having been dragooned into nominal orthodoxy eighty years ago, their descendants are denied the privilege of the religious offices of Catholic clergymen, and therefore those that cannot afford to go abroad for ceremonial purposes prefer to live out of wedlock and to die unshriven.



A GERMAN COMMENT ON GENERAL TREPOV'S REPLY (FOR THE CZAR) TO POLAND'S DEMAND FOR LIBERTIES.

"The Czar promises to all his subjects the same freedom that he enjoys himself. Thanks, awfully!"

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

One would naturally suppose that such conditions could not be endured for more than a generation. One would expect to find the Poles engaging in repeated rebellions. It has not been so. The Poles, continues Mr. Macgowan, have had their schooling of a hard master.

Not only do they not rebel,—they have become modest in their demands. The Finlanders are struggling with fair prospects of success for the restoration of their hereditary constitutional liberties; the Poles would be grateful for such crumbs of freedom as the Russians already enjoy. They ask mainly for teaching that their children can understand, for zemstvo and municipal institutions, for the right to exist as a separate race, and the right to worship God,—I would add the usual phrase, "according to their own consciences," if there were any other way to worship.

WHAT THE POLES WANT.

Mr. Macgowan quotes the following statement of the Polish case from the mouth of a professional man, an influential member of the National Democracy. Why should Poles be loyal? he asked.

Though only one-twelfth of the population of the empire, we are now, December, 1904, supplying 40 per cent. of the troops in Manchuria. Our land taxes are eight times as high as in Russia. The railway tariff on grain is seventy-five kopecks from Odessa to Warsaw; it is ninety-two kopecks from Lublin, a Polish town on the same line of railway, and only a fifth as far as Odessa. This is to give the Russian grain-producers a market at our expense. Here is the report of the department of control for 1899. Any other year would serve as well. The revenues derived from the ten provinces of Poland are stated as 135,000,000 rubles. Of this sum, 37,000,000 was transferred to the imperial treasury, 48,000,000 was expended for the army and the public debt, and only 47,000,000 was allotted to the support of the civil government and for civilizing agencies in Poland. The National Democracy refuses to recognize the obligations of tripartite loyalty. We want future independence, like Hungary. For the present, we demand the recognition of national rights, while remaining in the Russian Empire. This is the programme of the immense majority of the Polish people. The National Democracy is the chief agency for the instruction of the people, particularly the peasants and artisans, in history and geography. It circulates immense numbers of newspapers printed in Galicia. There are special organs for the educated classes, the peasants, the school children.

"Everything in Poland that is worth while is an evasion," Mr. Macgowan was told by a leading barrister.

Everything is done by stealth or bribery, everything takes a side turn. The educational energies of the people are wholly directed in illegal channels. There are educational institutions whose existence is unknown to the government. Inspectors are employed on regular salaries. Young ladies who do not teach are frowned upon in good society.

Last year the Poles were invited to state what they wished to obtain from the government of Russia.

A delegate meeting of one hundred and five persons assembled in the home of a nobleman, under the chairmanship of the Catholic Bishop of Warsaw, and adopted a long memorial for presentation to Prince Mirski. It closed by making the following demands:

1. The use of the Polish language in the schools, courts, and public offices.
2. The appointment of Poles to all public offices.
3. Self-government on an elective basis in town and country, with the retention of the existing commune, or "gmina."
4. Freedom of conscience.

Such were the minimum demands of all the parties, excepting the Social Democrats, the "Bund," and the "Proletariat," as another radical labor party is called. Many of the Liberals and National Democrats were disposed to add a fifth clause,—a national diet and an autonomous government subordinate merely in matters of imperial concern to the authorities at St. Petersburg.

WHAT HAS BEEN GIVEN THEM.

The editor of the *Century* appends to Mr. Macgowan's article the following note:

Since the above article was made ready for the press, the Czar, in a rescript issued May 16, 1905, removed many of the restrictive ordinances from which Poland has suffered. Permission to introduce the Polish and Lithuanian languages into the primary and secondary schools is granted; the assemblies of Polish nobles are reestablished; the purchase of land by Catholic peasants is permitted; and these measures, it is understood, are to be followed by local self-government through the *zemstvo*. Should these reforms be put in force, the result will mark a complete reversal of Russian policy in Poland.

Will Prussia Also Grant Concessions?

Commenting on the Czar's recent ukase granting certain important concessions to the Poles,

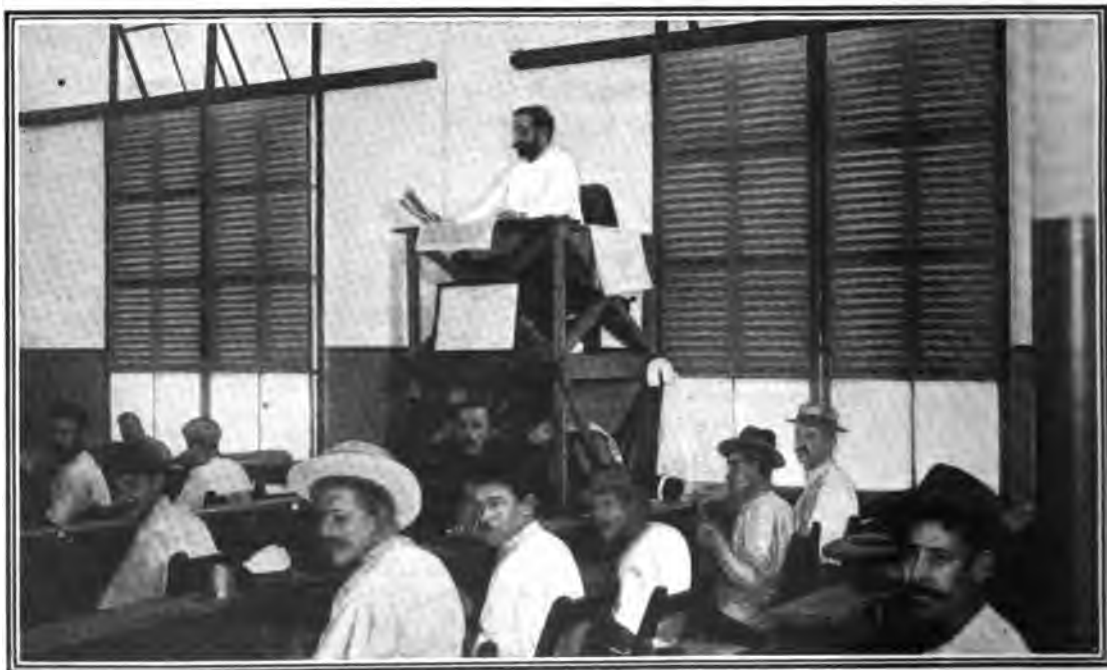
the *Hilfe*, of Berlin (in an article by Herr F. Naumann), declares that the sacrifices of the Russian revolutionist have not, after all, been in vain. If the spirit of the ukase be carried out, says this writer, the Poles in Russia will regain much that they lost after their revolution of 1863. This has so encouraged the Poles, says this writer, that hope of a free Poland in the future has been strengthened. Another significant phase of the situation is the fact that now it will become increasingly difficult for Berlin to continue the forced Germanization of the Poles. If Russia accords more liberty than Prussia, the latter will be compelled to keep pace.

PAID READERS IN CUBAN CIGAR FACTORIES.

LITERATURE and cigar-making are associated in a striking way by a practice which prevails in many of the Havana cigar factories. The employment of paid readers, at good salaries, in these establishments has become a settled custom, interference with which would result only in strikes. The duties of these readers are described in the July *Bookman* by James H. Collins.

The reading occupies three hours daily, commonly in the afternoon. Half of this time is

given to the newspapers (occasionally including American papers, which are translated by the reader as he goes along), and half to novels. The choice of reading is controlled by the workers, or *tabaqueros*, themselves, who elect for the purpose a president, secretary, and treasurer. Each cigarmaker pays into the common fund the sum of fifteen cents a week. In factories where from three hundred to five hundred cigarmakers are employed, this assessment creates a revenue of from \$50 to \$75 a week, from which is paid



SEÑOR MUNOZ READING IN THE CABAÑAS FACTORY.

the reader's weekly salary of from \$30 to \$60, as well as the cost of books and newspapers. Each day the president and secretary go over daily papers with the reader, marking what is to be read aloud.

THE CHOICE OF NOVELS.

The selection of novels is determined by popular vote.

The reading of a book like "Quo Vadis" takes about three weeks, while shorter works may be finished in two weeks or ten days. The reader judges the period required for a given book with great nicety, and a few days before he is to finish one the secretary holds an election to determine what novel shall be taken up next. Not all of the *tabaqueros* can read themselves. But each learns of certain books through friends, or sees them in one of the bookshops, so that upon the day of election each has a preference. As many as fifty different novels may be proposed at one of the elections, but the choice usually centers on three or four of wide note. "Quo Vadis" was elected by 180 votes in one of the Cabañas factory's *galeras* recently, defeating "Père Goriot" by 80 ballots. The choice falls oftenest on modern novels, and those of Spain are preferred because a wider range is possible. Perez Galdós is a favorite author, and each new Spanish celebrity in fiction quickly gets his hearing in the Havana factories.

Among English novels read are "Vanity Fair," "Oliver Twist," "A Tale of Two Cities," and others of greater melodramatic interest, as the books of Wilkie Collins and Hugh Conway. Señor Muñoz, chief reader in the Cabañas factory, had never heard of Hall Caine or Marie Corelli, and said that only such English works as are to be had in Spanish come up for choice. Some of the English poets are favorites, Byron in particular being read repeatedly. Poetry is a staple in the reading, long poems frequently being chosen instead of novels. Shakespeare is not unknown. Only one American book has ever had the honor of repeated reading in Havana cigar factories, the readers say, and that fell into disuse about ten years ago. It was "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Some books are elected and reflected, just as favorite plays are revived. Victor Hugo is an unflin-

favorite, while no year passes in any Havana cigar factory, it is said, without a reading of "Don Quixote."

THE CANDIDATE'S ORDEAL.

Men who seek positions as readers are tested by methods not unlike those of the Civil Service Commission.

When it becomes known that a certain *galera* is without a reader, all the men of that calling seeking a place come and occupy the reader's box for a short test period, usually an hour. The trial period lasts a week, and as each candidate presents himself the president gives him a novel marked at the place where the last aspirant left off. At the stroke of a bell he ceases and steps down, to be replaced by another candidate. Many of the Havana readers are men of note in their singular profession, and have been identified with one *galera* for years, gaining reputation for their superior rendition. Others rise out of the ranks of the *tabaqueros*, first as candidates, then as readers, often sinking back again ignominiously. At the end of the week's test a reader is chosen by general ballot from all the candidates. When the *tabaqueros* are dissatisfied with their reader, a petition signed by at least ten men may be handed to the president, who then causes the box to be vacated and a new reader chosen. The outgoing reader is never told that his rendition has been unsatisfactory, however. With Spanish delicacy the president informs him that it has been decided to have no more reading for a time, and thus his feelings are spared. All books and newspapers purchased are subsequently sold at half-price to *tabaqueros* who may want them. No library is maintained.

The custom of reading in the cigar factories was established about 1878 by the distinguished Cuban poet, Martínez, who was at that time a *tabaquero*. Secretary Morna, of the Cuban Senate, was formerly a reader, and so was Señor Ambrosio Berges, who is one of the orators of the Cuban House. Señor Victor Muñoz, editor of *El Mundo*, one of the Havana daily papers, has been a reader for many years, both in Cabañas and Havana.

THE WORLD'S MOST DIFFICULT MOUNTAIN-CLIMBING.

WHAT is the most difficult peak known to mountain-climbers? Not the Matterhorn, says George D. Abraham in the August *Cosmopolitan*. That mountain has a record of tragedy, but there are other heights which mountaineers regard as far more perilous. Such are the "aiguilles" of Mont Blanc, which only experienced mountain-climbers have attempted, and then after careful preparation. Mr. Abraham, who is a member of the English Climbers' Club and the Swiss and German Alpine clubs, tells the story of a climb that he made in late autumn to the pinnacle of the famous Aiguille de Grépon.

After narrating a start up the mountain-side made long before dawn by himself, a guide, and a porter, Mr. Abraham proceeds to describe the first of the real difficulties that confronted these intrepid mountaineers:

The huge bastion of the North Peak looked absolutely impossible to direct assault, but across the couloir to our right an almost vertical crack, some seventy feet high, led up between a large detached slab of rock and the face of the cliff. It actually overhung in its lower portion, and the hand-holds in its inner recesses were insidiously covered with flaky ice. This was the well-known "Cheminée Mummery."

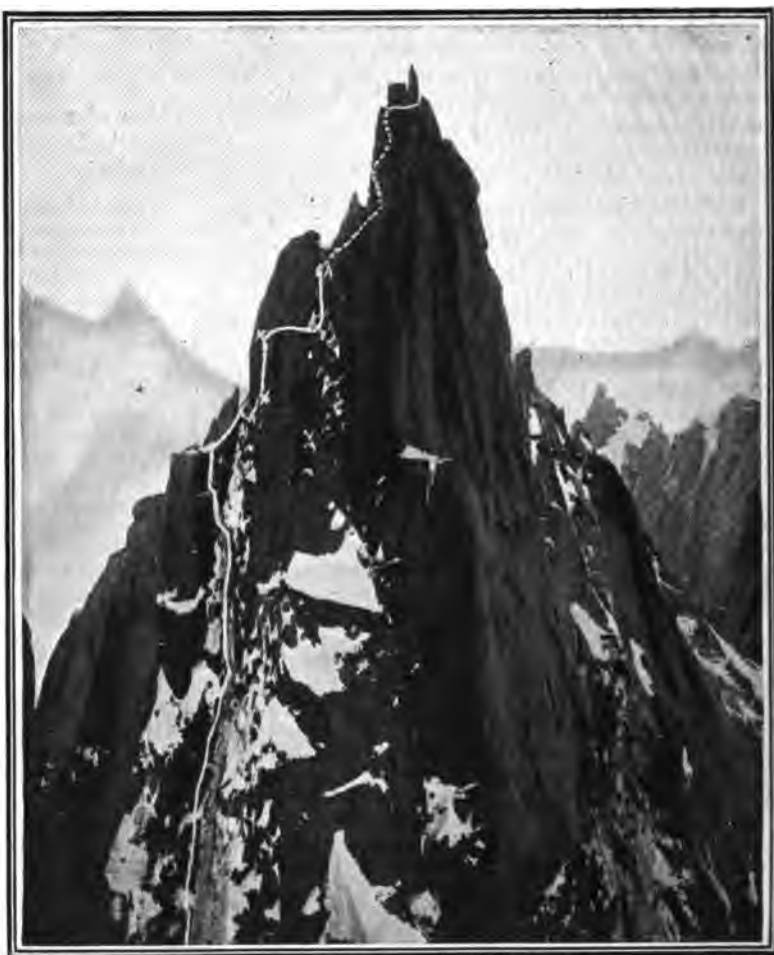
There being proverbial authority that "many hands

make labor light," we assumed that this applied also to heads and shoulders. Acting on this deduction, we crossed to the foot of the crack, where Amand skillfully acted as a sort of flying buttress and held me against the rocks while Simond mounted on my shoulders, and by a final kick-off from the top of my head was able to hoist himself half-way up the difficult part. Struggling carefully up for some ten feet, until a shelving ledge conveniently placed as hold for the left foot served as a resting-place, he recouped his strength for the upper portion. This proved easier than expected, for by this time the warm sun had dispelled the mist and its welcome rays had thawed the ice from the tiny ledges which serve as hand and foot holds.

From this point on the route led up steep cliffs, now in the shade and again in bright sunlight, five thousand feet above the Mer de Glace. Finally, a broad pinnacle seemed to bar farther passage, but the guide was able to lead the way up its smooth front. A ledge on the other side afforded a pathway to the base of the last peak to be ascended. There a series of narrow chimneys led up to a diminutive ledge, where the climbers were forced out on to an upright nose of granite. Two small vertical cracks, an inch or two wide and rising parallel about a yard apart, supplied the only available holds. The culmination of this hazardous climb may best be told in Mr. Abraham's own words :

With the right foot jammed in one crack and the hands gripping the other firmly, I scrambled cautiously up until a slab could be reached, where the hand-holds were just sufficient to make one feel the desperate nature of the situation. To leave the friendly cracks and allow one's body to swing steadily out between earth and sky on those holds was the crux of this portion. However, a steady movement to the left brought a satisfying knob of rock within reach, and by severe muscular effort the body could be raised to the top of the buttress. It was a mystery to me how Simond led up this portion. Truly, there is much to learn in the art of rock-climbing.

The main difficulties were now over, and a struggle up another chimney landed us safely at the summit.



ROUTE (INDICATED BY WHITE LINE) FOLLOWED IN CLIMBING THE AIGUILLE DE GRÉPON.

As we stood on its apex and gazed across at the glorious array of Alpine giants which crouched all around on their glacier beds we appreciated to the full the feelings described by Tennyson :

"The joy of life in steepness overcome
And victories of ascent, and looking down
On all that had looked down on us,
In breathing nearer heaven."

The route of descent lay down the south face of the peak, and consisted mainly of a series of climbs down hitched ropes. A number of *pitons* driven into cracks in the rocks enabled the climbers to secure the rope and pull it down after them, as they had done previously in the Great Gap. They became tired of this process, and found it a great relief to gain the snow-covered rocks below the peak. After a scramble over the soft snow of the glacier, they stood once more on the loose rocks of the moraine.

THE NEW RAILROAD BRIDGE OVER THE ZAMBESI.

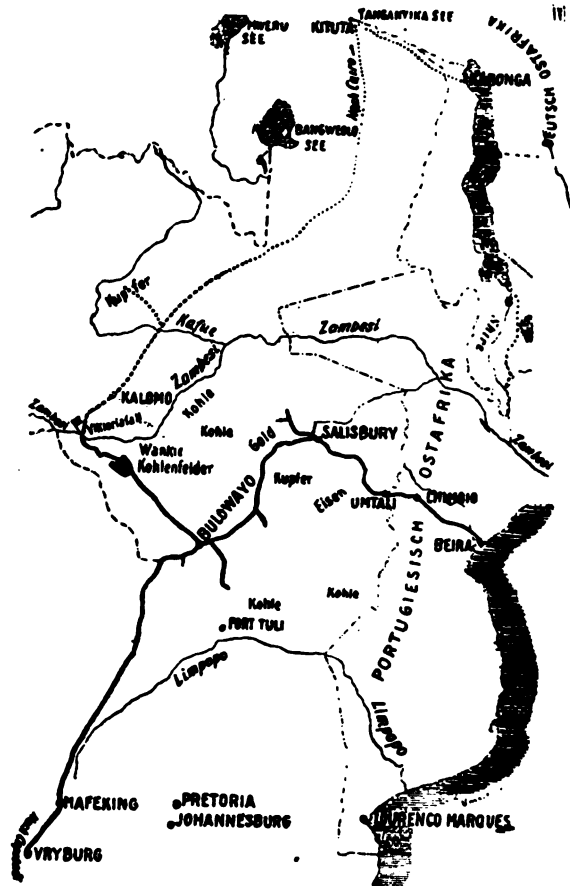
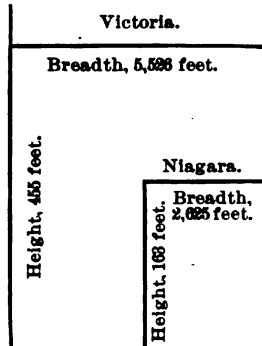
A STUDY of the entire Rhodesian railroad system, with special attention to the engineering work, is contributed to the German magazine *Umschau* (Frankfort-on-the-Main) by Dr. Faerg. A glance at this system will readily demonstrate, says this writer, in what a wonderful way the English engineer has solved the problem of building a railroad at once economical and attractive to the tourist. The line begun at Kimberley in 1890 was constructed to Bulawayo in 1897. After the close of the Boer war, the railroad made great strides, until the line was completed to Beira, a port on the sea, and had already begun to tap that wonderful country with its enormous mineral and other resources. The scenery along this line is magnificent.

With a connection made over the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi River an important link would be established in the Cape to Cairo railroad. On the completion of this connection between the Victoria Falls and Lake Tanganyika the Mediterranean Sea will at last be in direct railroad communication with Cape Town.

THE HIGHEST BRIDGE IN THE WORLD.

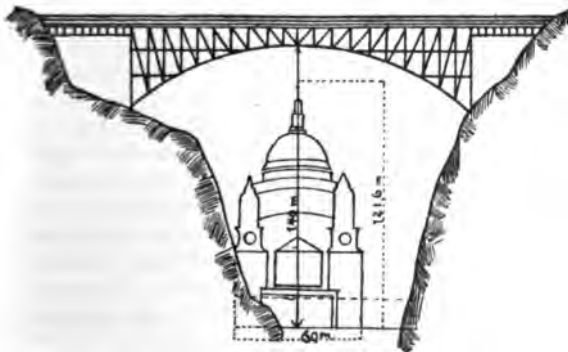
The wonderful bridge over the Zambesi River at Victoria Falls, already under construction (and which is promised to be open for traffic this month), will have a total length of 660 feet, and will cross the river at an altitude of 520 feet. This bridge is therefore the highest in

the world,—much higher than the Brooklyn Bridge, the Lansdowne Bridge, or that over the Firth of Forth. St. Paul's Cathedral, the highest church building in the world, might be built under the bridge and there would still be plenty



CENTRAL AFRICAN LAKE REGION.

(Showing the country through which the new railroad runs to the sea.—From a map printed in the *Umschau*.)



A COMPARISON OF THE NEW ZAMBESI RAILROAD BRIDGE WITH ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, LONDON.

of room between its dome and the roadway, which has been so chosen that the traveler may look from the train-window and see the entire fall in all its beauty. As to the size of this fall, it is sufficient, perhaps, to say that it is three times as high as Niagara and twenty times as broad. The construction of the bridge is an engineering triumph. It was built by the aid of electrical cable wagons, which delivered the material ten tons at a time. All this material had to be transported by sea from England, and then overland from Cape Town.

RIDER HAGGARD, EXPLORER, AUTHOR, AND LAND COMMISSIONER.

AN extended character sketch of Mr. H. Rider Haggard is one of Mr. William T. Stead's personal contributions to the *English Review of Reviews*. Upon Mr. Haggard's return to England after his recent tour of the United States investigating the Salvation Army colonies in this country, an extended account of his work was presented to the British Government.



MR. H. RIDER HAGGARD.

Mr. Haggard visited many portions of this country and Canada, and was especially interested in the vacant-land cultivation in Philadelphia, and in the Salvation Army farm colonies in California and Colorado. He was promised by the Canadian premier a land grant in Canada for experiments. Mr. Stead traces the novelist-economist's career in all its phases. He points out that Mr. Haggard, while British-born, began his life in South Africa, and that he comes of Scandinavian stock. In 1875, while still in his teens, he went to Natal as secretary to Sir Henry Bulwer. He did some fighting in Africa, and after the disaster at Majuba Hill the Transvaal abandonment convention was signed in his house. He then left South Africa and began to publish his books on life in that part of the world, his first book being "Cetewayo and His White Neighbors" (1882). Mr. Haggard's entrance into the field of literature was with a

purely imaginary description of an operation in a hospital, written when a child. He had never witnessed an operation, or been in a hospital, but he won the prize. His first novel, "Dawn," was published in 1884, and five hundred copies were sold. Then followed "The Witch's Head," and then "King Solomon's Mines." His great success was "She," which he wrote in six weeks. Very close to a million copies of this novel were sold.

The story grew, like Topsy, under his pen. On its appearance it was hailed with enthusiasm. It shares with Sherlock Holmes the first place in popularity, and like Sir Conan Doyle, who had to resuscitate Sherlock Holmes, so in response to the impatient calls of innumerable readers, more imperious even than "She who must be obeyed," the immortal queen is now with us once more in the story of "Ayesha," which is now running through the *Windsor Magazine*.

It has been only during the past fifteen years that Mr. Haggard has become an agricultural economist. He is devoted to the land, and he is probably now one of the most intelligent and lucid writers on agriculture. His two books, "The Farmer's Year" and "The Gardener's Year," are "full of the fascination, the flavor, and the fragrance of rural life." In his garden at Ditchingham, between Norwich and Bungay, Mr. Haggard grows everything from cabbages to orchids. The work of which he is most proud, and to which he has devoted four years of incessant labor, is his survey of "rural England." He traveled all over the United Kingdom, interviewing farmers everywhere, and embodied the result of his observations in "two of the most interesting, fact-crammed surveys of contemporary England that have ever been published." With the help of fifteen hundred dollars subscribed by the Rhodes trustees, he set out, on behalf of the British Government, as a special commissioner "to inspect and report upon the conditions and character of the agricultural and industrial settlements which have been established there by the Salvation Army with a view to the transmigration of suitable persons from the great cities of the United States to the land and the formation of agricultural communities." The net result of his interviews and investigations are embodied in a scheme which he has drawn up, the adoption of which is strongly urged upon the British Government. He summarizes his suggestions as follows:

1. That the interest of a loan, or loans, of an amount to be fixed hereafter, should be guaranteed by the imperial government, or by the imperial and certain colo-

nial governments jointly, if that is thought desirable and can be arranged.

2. That the poor-law authorities in the large cities of Great Britain should be approached in order to ascertain whether they would be prepared to make a *per capita* contribution for every selected family of which the burden was taken off the local rates.

3. That a permanent officer should be appointed by the imperial government, to be known as the superintendent of land settlements, whose duties and responsibilities I have sketched out above.

4. That the Salvation Army, or any other well-established and approved social, charitable, or religious organization, should be deputed to carry out the work of selecting, distributing, and organizing the settlers on land colonies anywhere within the boundaries of the British Empire, who should remain in charge of such organization until all liabilities were paid.

5. That no title to land should be given to any colonist until he had discharged these liabilities, on which he should pay 5 per cent. interest and 1 per cent. sinking fund, recoverable in an agreed period of years.

6. That the possibility of establishing similar colonies in the United Kingdom should be carefully considered.

7. That, if these suggestions are approved, a bill, to be designated the "National Land Settlements Act," embodying and giving life to them, should be laid before Parliament.

In elaborating these suggestions he proposes that 7,500 persons should be sent out—or 1,500 families—to occupy the 360 square miles of fertile Canadian land promised as a free grant by the Canadian government. He thinks that they could be planted out at a cost of £200 per family. This would require a loan of £300,000, which the state could raise at 3 per cent. and make a profit by charging them 5 per cent. plus 1 per cent. sinking fund, which would enable them to become owners of an unencumbered freehold in thirty three-years.

THE ECONOMIC REGENERATION OF IRELAND.

EVIDENCES are not wanting that a slow but thorough economic and industrial evolution is taking place in Ireland. One of the very hopeful signs is the increasing frequency of local industrial exhibitions. The leading manufacturers and merchants of Limerick at a recent meeting decided to hold such a display in the summer of each year, designed to embrace all the industries of Munster and Connaught. Limerick is the natural center of the two provinces, situated as it is on a splendid waterway, and is the junction of five railroad systems connecting the south and the west. Limerick's industries, though still considerable, have greatly declined, but would be bound to benefit by such an exhibition, which would tend to revive some of the decayed manufactures and stimulate the existing ones toward increased enterprise and greater prosperity.

The agricultural and technical progress of the Emerald Isle during the past five years, since the creation of the department of agricultural and technical instruction, is discussed statistically in the latest annual report of the department, which has just been issued. A digest of this report is given by United States Consul Knabenshue, in a recent *Consular Daily*. It shows that the fundamental idea of helping self-help has taken a firm grasp upon the local county committees of the board, and that satisfactory progress is being made, especially in technical instruction at Belfast. The agricultural work is divided into the betterment of methods and the improvement of breeds of live stock. The

most effective of the plans thus far introduced for agricultural improvement is the employment of traveling instructors,—the equivalent of the American Farmers' Institute. In certain places there has grown an increased demand for a more regular and fixed course of instruction, for the benefit of young farmers, and at seven centers, five of them in Ulster, what is practically a winter school of agriculture has been established in which a regular course of instruction is given in tillage, stock-breeding, veterinary hygiene, poultry-keeping, and elementary agricultural science. There are now 30 poultry instructresses at work, and the department distributed 40,875 dozen eggs of pure-bred fowls from 392 stations during the year. There are 14 instructors in horticulture, an increase of 5 since the previous year. Under their direction 170,000 young fruit trees were distributed within the year, and 8,000 kitchen gardens "improved beyond recognition," as the board states. Energetic work has been done in arousing the farmers to the commercial value of fruit-growing. The report shows great progress in technical instruction in cities and towns. There were 40,000 pupils in attendance during the year 1903-04. In addition, 8,600 pupils received instruction in experimental science, etc., in secondary day schools supported by the science and art grants. In centers where three or four years ago no instruction of the kind existed there are now largely and regularly attended schools. Even British journals are publishing hearty praise for the work of the local Irish authorities.

Ireland's Salvation at Last: In Her Bogs!

In the *World's Work and Play*, Mr. R. J. Lynn describes a recent invention which may at last make it possible to utilize the wealth in Irish bogs,—in other words, to produce peat fuel as a paying commercial undertaking. This, it is proposed, can be done by an invention using electricity for releasing the water from the peat.

The discovery of a substitute for coal in abundance cannot fail to have a widespread effect. Experts calculate that Irish bogs are capable of turning out 50,000,000 tons of fuel per year for a thousand years, and if this were sold at the moderate figure of five shillings per ton it would bring in £12,500,000 a year. When this sum is multiplied by a thousand it will be seen that Ireland is richer in undeveloped resources than is sometimes imagined. At present, Ireland pays to Great Britain something like £1,000,000 a year for coal, but with the utilization of the bogs it will be possible to keep this money at home, and, in addition, to add considerably to the national income.

Already, at Athy, a peat fuel-producing plant is being erected with which it is hoped that fuel as good as the best Welsh coal may be put on the market at a third the cost.

Quite a number of advantages are claimed for this

fuel. In the first place, it is practically smokeless, and its use should help to lessen the smoke nuisance which has now become so serious in many cities. The importance of a fuel in the navy which would take up less space than coal and produce no smoke cannot be over-estimated. It makes no clinker or cinder, deteriorates but little by keeping, does not crumble by handling, and has a high calorific value. Another important consideration is the amount of space that will be required for the storing of this fuel in railway trucks, ships' holds, or bunkers. Ordinary coal takes, on an average, 40 cubic feet for a ton and weighs 55 pounds per cubic foot. The electro peat coal takes about 34 cubic feet to the ton and weighs 66 pounds per cubic foot.

The extent of the Irish bogs is almost as great as that of those in the German Empire; and the prospect of exhausting them seems very remote. Moreover, it is thought by a great authority that they will reproduce themselves in fifty to a hundred years. And, again, peat bogs do not yield fuel only.

The use of peat powder as a disinfectant is on the increase in Germany and other Continental countries. It is used for packing fruit, preserving ice, and it also makes a splendid covering for hot-water pipes. Peat molasses as a food for cattle is another industry which is coming to the front.

A DEFENSE OF "STANDARD OIL."

AMERICAN magazines are not devoting much space just now to the ethical justification of the oil monopoly. Much has been printed in recent issues concerning the personal character of Mr. Rockefeller, and a recent cartoon represents that gentleman as inquiring, wearily, of his newsdealer, "Is there anything on this stand that isn't about me?" The mass of these articles are frankly hostile, and it gives the magazine reader a new sensation to come upon a serious defense of "Standard" ethics in the current number of one of the most dignified and respected of our theological quarterlies,—the *Bibliotheca Sacra*.

The writer of the article in question, Prof. G. Frederick Wright, from his study of the means by which the oil business has been developed, arrives at the conclusion that, in the main, the methods employed "are the only ones possible in the service of the public good, and such as are fully justified by all the ethical principles upon which the system of competition is permitted to work out its beneficial results."

RAILROAD RATES AND REBATES.

Professor Wright sums up the transportation question under the following three heads:

1. An economical factor in the problem which is

little appreciated by the general public is found in the skillful selection of points most convenient for the col-



MR. ROCKEFELLER: "Is there any reading matter here that isn't about me?"—From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).

lection of the crude oil and the distribution of the refined. With the means of communication available in the early days of the oil industry, Cleveland, Ohio, combined the greatest number of facilities for such collection and distribution. From this point competing railroads ran both east and west, while through the larger part of the year water communication was open both to New York and Chicago.

2. One of the leading advantages arising from the choice of such a center existed in the cheapness of transportation to distant points secured by competing railroads and waterways. If the railroads obtained any of the business of transporting oil between Cleveland and New York, they must do it at rates closely approaching those which were offered by the waterways. Not only was it perfectly fair that the Standard Oil Company at Cleveland should take advantage of these rates, but in the service of the public good they were bound to do it, while the railroads were justified in hauling the product as through freight at cheaper rates than they could make for shorter hauls of way freight. If they had put up their through freights to match their way freights, they would have lost the traffic, and deprived themselves of the relatively small profits derived therefrom, and to that extent burdened themselves with the duty of making their whole earnings from the way freight, which would add still more to the expenses of all the industries of the interior towns.

3. By furnishing a large amount of freight regularly, the actual cost of transportation was greatly reduced, and it was but fair that the organization which secured this should derive advantage from it.

The statement of Mr. Rockefeller that the discriminations which he has received from the transportation lines have been amply paid for, and that equal discriminations were open to anybody else who should select equally favorable points of distribution and carry on a business of the same magnitude, is declared to be fully justified by the evidence. The system of railroad rebates in vogue between 1872 and 1882 is explained as a system introduced by the railroads themselves, so that every shipper who did business with them had to make a special bargain. The Standard Oil Company, of course, had great advantages in driving a bargain of this kind.

One instance that seems on its face indefensible is the rebate of 22½ cents a barrel paid by the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1879 to the American Transfer Company (an adjunct of the Standard Oil Company) on oil shipped by other parties. This, however, is explained as being not a rebate, but a "sum paid, out of the total freight rate, to the Transfer Company, for the service of gathering the oil and bringing it to the Pennsylvania Railroad rather than to some other transporting line."

MONOPOLY VERSUS COMPETITION.

Professor Wright points out that the public has been greatly benefited by the success of the Standard Oil Company, both in improving the

quality of the marketable product and in bringing the price down to a very narrow margin of profit.

While it is true that the production of many of the main staples of commerce is monopolized by large combinations of capital so as to shut off individual competition, it is not true that the career of the individual is thereby greatly circumscribed, for the very success of these so-called monopolies in excluding competition by lowering the margin of profit and cheapening the product opens innumerable other channels of effort into which the individual may freely enter with hope of success. In the oil business, for example, the greatest evils existed in connection with the waste of that "cut-throat competition" which was practised in the first decade of its existence. When five competing pipe lines were built to Pit Hole City where only one was necessary, four-fifths of the capital was wasted, and became a dead loss, not only to the individuals expending it, but to the community, which was compelled in the long run to pay higher prices for oil on account of the great waste attending such unwise competition.

Those extreme fluctuations of prices inevitable in handling such a product by small capitalists were productive of the worst classes of evils connected with the gambling mania. The elimination of those evils by the growth of the Standard Oil Company is an incalculable service to the whole public, and especially to the great crowds of young men who are freed from the temptations incident to the former condition of things. The men engaged in those two hundred and forty oil refineries, more or less, which failed before the Standard Oil Company originated were free to go about safer and more profitable business to themselves, and to bless the world by activities less connected with hazards than those through which their original failure was brought about.

In Professor Wright's opinion, it is a mistake to assume that the Standard Oil Company is or can be beyond the reach of competition. In the first place, oil is not the only commodity which provides light and heat. It has to compete with wood, gas, coal, and the water power of Niagara, and of all the cataracts by which electricity is being generated and distributed to an increasing extent. It also has to compete with other large organizations which deal in petroleum. At the present time, the percentage of business controlled by the Standard Oil Company is considerably less than it was a few years ago. Its chief rival, the Pure Oil Company, has a capital of \$10,000,000 and an independent pipe-line to the Atlantic coast. In foreign trade, the Standard is in competition with the oil interests of Russia, which are greater than those of America, and are owned by the Rothschilds and the Nobel Brothers. Furthermore, one of the most powerful influences in reducing the selling price of oil to consumers is the latent competition of probable or possible competitors. It is profitable for the Standard to keep prices at so low a rate that capital will not be tempted to compete.

THE SUPERVISION OF LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

RECENT sensational disclosures in the business of life insurance have served to focus public attention on the methods of supervision employed by the insurance departments of our State governments. In this connection an article contributed to the *North American Review* for July by S. Herbert Wolfe, an actuary who has conducted examinations of insurance companies for various of these State departments, or bureaus, has a timely interest.

A great defect of the system of insurance supervision in this country is that in each State the supervising officer is part of the State's political machinery. In most cases, the office of insurance commissioner is handed out as a reward for political services. So it comes about that men with no technical equipment are placed in charge of investigations which demand special training and experience. They are then compelled to employ trained actuaries to do the real work of conducting examinations. Mr. Wolfe intimates that the insurance laws of most of the States, having been enacted when life insurance companies were practically in their infancy, are inadequate to meet the needs of present conditions. The chief points of regulation to be aimed at in insurance laws are: The establishment of a standard of solvency by which the financial condition of the organization may be tested; the designation of the investments in which a company may invest its funds; the prescription of adequate forms under which the companies shall render their annual accounts; and providing for the verification of these accounts and reports by a personal examination of the affairs of the company on the part of the supervisor.

THE QUESTION OF INVESTMENTS.

The second point mentioned by Mr. Wolfe,—the prescribing of investments,—must be recognized as one of the most important features of supervision. This has been clearly illustrated in the Equitable exposures. Mr. Wolfe's discussion of this point is worthy of the attention of all policy-holders:

The laws of nearly all the States permit companies to purchase sufficient real estate for the conduct of their own business. This has been, by practice, construed to permit a company to erect a large office building but a small part of which is occupied for its own operations. It goes without saying, of course, that companies are permitted to take title to such real estate as they are compelled to acquire under foreclosure, although the laws of many of the States require such property to be sold within a given time, usually five years, unless the necessary certificate is secured from some State officer setting forth that a forced sale would

result injuriously to the interests of the policy-holders. A large part of the funds of insurance companies is invested in bond and mortgage on real estate, and the laws usually prescribe that such real property shall be improved, unencumbered, and worth 50 per cent. more than the amount loaned thereon. The weak part of this requirement is that it makes no provision for ascertaining the actual worth of the property. The restriction is, therefore, valueless.

The next broad subdivision of investments is the bonds and stocks. The statutes of a State in which are located large insurance interests provide that, after making the deposit with the superintendent of insurance, the residue of the capital and the surplus money and funds "may be invested in, or loaned on the pledge of, any of the securities in which deposits are required to be invested, or in the public stocks and bonds of any one of the United States, or, except as herein provided, in the stocks, bonds, or other evidence of indebtedness of any solvent institution incorporated under the laws of the United States, or of any State thereof." Companies are not permitted to loan upon or own the stock of any other insurance corporation transacting the same kind of business.

It will be seen at once that the field of investment permitted under this act is so broad as to contain, practically, no restrictions. It is responsible for many of the evils which have crept into the business, and which must, in the very near future, be remedied, in order that the institution of life insurance shall occupy its legitimate field. It was never intended that the funds of any corporation of this kind should be used for the purpose of controlling subsidiary corporations, engaged in the transaction of other forms of commercial enterprises. The spectacle of insurance companies owning the controlling interest in the stock of banks, trust companies, trolley roads, and industrial corporations of various kinds is neither a pleasant nor a reassuring one. The evils to which such a condition of affairs can lead have been given great prominence in recent public prints.

If the supervision of insurance companies is to be worth anything, it must, in the very near future, devote its serious consideration to the establishment of more rigorous standards, preventing the use (or misuse) of the policy-holders' contributions for personal gain or aggrandizement. In addition to the foregoing, companies are permitted to loan to their policy-holders an amount not exceeding the reserve which is maintained on their policies. This constitutes one of the safest and most desirable investments which a company can make. It is hard to imagine a more thoroughly secured loan than one of this character. Should the policy-holder die, the loan, by its terms, immediately becomes due and payable and is deducted from any proceeds which are turned over to the beneficiary. It is dependent for its security upon the progress of no outside institution. It can never be repudiated, as have been the bonds of some municipalities. If the policy-holder permits his policy to lapse, the company is amply protected; for it has in its possession the man's reserve, which, it will be borne in mind, is the excess payments which he has made to provide for the maintenance of a level premium throughout his contract.

THE "SCHOOL CITY" IN PHILADELPHIA.

PUPIL self-government in the form known as the school city, as originated by Mr. Wilson L. Gill and described at length in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for December, 1899, has been introduced in the public schools of Philadelphia, and is meeting, apparently, with much success there. In the current number of *Social Service* (New York), Mr. Gill outlines the purposes of the movement and suggests some of its possibilities. In a brief statement which heads the article, President Roosevelt expresses his appreciation of Mr. Gill's work both in this country and in Cuba, where he inaugurated this form of instruction upon the invitation of General Wood.

Mr. Gill's contention is that our public schools, as commonly administered, teach by example, if not by precept, the principles of monarchical government rather than of republicanism.

In the olden time, the government of a school was a monarchy. But it did not make very much difference; it was only for a little while. If it were a bad tyranny, it simply made children hate it.

That same sort of government has been continued in the schools of the republic, and now we have the child being trained by the schools for monarchy. The only government that an educated American comes in contact with while his character is being established, while he is forming the habits of his life, is that of a monarchy. He is being made intelligent; perhaps he is being made to understand a good many questions in relation to government and citizenship, but while he is being made intelligent in regard to these things he is being compelled to form the habit of being a subject and of accepting a government in which he has no part whatever, except to obey.

PHILADELPHIA'S ILLS THE RESULT OF
MONARCHICAL TEACHINGS.

It is possible to find in Philadelphia as good an illustration of the bad results of this kind of instruction as any American municipality can furnish. Mr. Gill describes the situation in the following paragraphs:

In the city of Philadelphia, at the last two municipal elections, 45 per cent. of the people who were registered to vote did vote. Fifty-five per cent. of those who had the right did not vote. This 45 per cent. who did vote, and who go to the primaries, is made up largely of the men who work in factories and shops and on the streets, under the orders of foremen. Their whole business life is spent in taking orders and in carrying them into execution. They belong to political clubs, and there they are governed as in the shop. They are told what they shall do at the primary meetings, and they do it. They are told what they shall do at the polls, and they do that. They do not go to the primaries and to the polls as independent American citizens, but simply as parts of a machine, under the orders of the officers of the bosses.

When we see who those 55 per cent. are who do not vote in the primaries, and do not go to the polls, we find they are practically the entire body of those who have graduated from the colleges and universities; not absolutely, but practically the whole body of men who are at the heads of business, including professional men, and those who take the initiative in their daily business. All of these have been eliminated from municipal citizenship in the city of Philadelphia; so that the bosses are left to use the machine exactly as they see fit. Thus, we have in Philadelphia,—we do not call him King Durham, we call him "the easy boss,"—but he is a king, just as much as any man in any country in the world was ever king. That same condition exists, to a less extent, perhaps, in almost every city of the Union.

A WAY TO MAKE GOOD CITIZENS.

Mr. Gill declares that a method has been found which is actually making "citizens, instead of subjects," out of thousands and thousands of children in that same city of Philadelphia.

Every school that organizes the "School City" government receives a charter from the Board of Education, under which they form a complete municipal government, a room corresponding to a ward. A mayor, board of councilmen, judges, policemen, and other officials are chosen by a majority vote of the scholars for a term of ten weeks. The children are not playing city government. There is no make-belief. The laws, together with the trials, convictions, and punishments for their violation, are all real, and the result of this real experience is a real training in civic responsibility, and the development of the civic spirit.

The following are the laws of the School City:

CHAPTER I.—THE GENERAL CITY LAW.

Do to others as you would wish them to do to you. This is the natural law, without which no popular government can succeed, and it is the general law of this School City, to which all other laws and regulations must conform.

CHAPTER II.—THINGS PROHIBITED.

Article 1. Do not to others that which you would not wish them to do to you.

ORDER.

Art. 2. Anything which disturbs the order in halls, classrooms, or in any place within the jurisdiction of the School City is prohibited.

Art. 3. Anything which is profane, rude, intentionally unkind or impolite, is prohibited.

CLEANLINESS.

Art. 4. Anything which detracts from the neat and orderly appearance of our School City is prohibited.

HEALTH.

Art. 5. Anything which detracts from the healthful conditions of our School City is prohibited.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Art. 6. Anything which mars or destroys property in our School City is prohibited.

CHAPTER III.—DUTIES.

Article 1. Every citizen is in duty bound to call the attention of the authorities to any violation of the laws of this School City.

CHAPTER IV.—PUNISHMENTS.

Article 1. Any citizen violating any law of this School City shall be subject to punishment not less

than a reprimand, and not greater than a withdrawal of the rights of citizenship.

Art. 2. No punishment shall be carried into execution before it has been approved by the principal of the school, and then it must be put promptly into effect.

NOTE.—The children are free to accept, change, or reject these laws, and to make additional laws as circumstances require. They invariably accept them without change, and generally with much enthusiasm.

AN ITALIAN PRINCE'S OPINION OF NEW YORK.

IMPRESSIONS of New York by Prince Baldassare Odescalchi, an Italian Senator, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), have the never-failing interest of seeing ourselves as others see us. The article, which is very elaborate, opens thus :

New York is an immense hive where swarms an infinity of people ; there is concentrated an extraordinary and gigantic agglomeration of work. New York is a monstrous factory, an inferno,—anything that you will save an æsthetic and refined city. Neither the ancient Greeks nor the Italians of the Renaissance would have been able to conceive of it. The ancient Romans, with all their power, would not have been capable of building it. The feverish activity of our times and the discoveries of modern science were needed to bring it forth. New York is essentially a modern monster.

The prince's first shock was the inability to find a guide to show him about town, as in European cities. Being directed to the tourist automobiles, he discovered why out-of-date methods of touring no longer obtained. Only a modern invention could cope with the task of "doing" New York. The Broadway buildings he found of "ugly architecture, with a few rare ones in good style," but the churches "generally in good taste, the Gothic style predominating;" though they "appeared like Nuremberg toys, placed against many-storied buildings overtopping their towers." One skyscraper with a Greek temple below and fifteen or twenty stories above he regarded as a symbol of the miracle of modern statics crushing the simplicity and the purity of classic antiquity. The jokes of the megaphone man at the expense of the Liberty statue did not impress him, and he remarks :

And here it is to be noted that the Americans are great lovers of jokes, and are not very exigent as to their being refined. To explain such an infantile taste, they say that, being a laborious people, with minds always active and on business tension, they consider jokes as useful and hygienic refreshment, and are not too critical of their quality.

The Italian quarter made him think he was in Naples, but though it seemed miserable in comparison with other quarters of New York, he

thought it cleaner, and the people politer than in Naples, and the absence of beggars indicated that the emigrants had bettered themselves. After commenting on the hotel arrangements, and the many conveniences, he continues :

However, all human service is lacking. In the morning, you have to fill your own bath-tub, and, having taken the bath, you must empty it. To dry yourself, you must use the little towels of the washstand ; you must clean your own clothes, and to get your boots cleaned you must descend to the street and go in search of a bootblack if you do not find one on the lower floor of your hotel. If you ring the bell, usually no one comes, or some one presents himself with a pitcher of ice-water, the only service they imagine you should require. All other service is reduced to that of a maid who every morning remakes the bed and cleans superficially.

Speaking of amusements, the writer says :

As for American dramatic literature, it seems to me of infantile simplicity ; but with all that, the public gives it warm welcome, and I myself have heard them laugh boisterously over the most common jokes.

Of the people in the streets, he says :

No one goes on the street for pleasure, as too often happens in our cities. It is a busy people, proceeding rapidly to expedite their own affairs. The gait of both women and men is remarkable for firmness. I think that comes from American education, which accustoms them from childhood not to have recourse to outside aid, but to do everything for themselves. Besides that, they go alone from their earliest years, whence comes that frankness and ease with which they walk. In spite of the enormous immigration, they all have an Anglo-Saxon type, if not from their origin, at least from acquired habit and mode of clothing. Their aspect is robust and healthy, both men and women. The latter have fine proportions and fresh complexions, and are of calm demeanor ; but they all resemble one another, both in form and in a certain uniformity of costume.

He remarks, however, a certain carelessness that distinguishes the American from the Briton. The habit of not carrying sticks he thinks is to enable the men to catch moving cars and get into them quickly. Remarking on the freedom of women and the respect for them that makes it possible for them to go alone, day or evening,

through the streets, even hatless in hot weather, or when driving or riding, he says :

All this indicates a certain rudeness in manners that reveals itself in many ways. For example, people are seen going hastily and bumping into one another, without, however, stopping to beg pardon. However, you would err greatly if you attributed this rudeness to ill-will, for the American is by nature good-natured, *bonaccione*, as is vulgarly said in Italy. Such rudeness of manner comes, it seems to me, from the Americans not having time to lose, because overloaded with business. For example, if you go up to any one in the street to ask information, the American will stop politely, and, if your request be precise and clear, will answer you with courtesy, but in few words. If, however, you try to continue to talk, he will forsake you and take up his way without even greeting you.

Seeking to express the typical American spirit, the prince says :

First of all, I recall the characteristic notes of the American spirit as audacity, energy, activity, intensity of work, and a natural tendency for business. But it appears to me that they attend to affairs, day and night, from puberty to death, not so much from cupidity to accumulate money as from the passion that comes from that same activity and from the attraction of extending old enterprises and starting new ones. Even the millionaires never cease working or stop to enjoy an idle life and taste the pleasures that could be enjoyed with the accumulated riches, because enamored of the work that awaits them, and pushed by the desire

to make it ever more gigantic. Contrary to that which too often exists with us, their work is esteemed and always prized, and does not exclude one from the highest society. For example, there are poor young students who to procure the means of pursuing courses in the universities in the winter take places as waiters in the restaurants and cafés of the principal watering-places. That does not keep them from attending, in the evening, the most elegant social gatherings and dancing with the most noted young ladies. In aesthetics, American fancy causes them to admire above all the grandiose, the enormous, the gigantic. Hence the phrase "the highest in the world" that they apply to everything in their country. In America they are at the beginning of the work. They are blocking out the statue, but before long they will certainly begin to refine it. Their tendency to instruction, the works of their architects, painters, and sculptors, as well as the foundation of museums, are certain signs that demonstrate how much the American taste is being raised and tends to become refined. The writer finds American patriotism a very special brand which mostly ignores Europe, past and present, completely. He recounts the boasting of history, products, and future addressed to the delegates of all European parliaments. He tells especially of the mayor of Philadelphia, who ingenuously offered to welcome any of the European guests at a banquet as citizens of his great and beautiful city—and the writer was *civis romanus* and proud of it! "But the times have changed," he sighs, "and the epoch when to be a Roman citizen was an honor envied by the people of all the world is past by many centuries."

CONEY ISLAND, THE WORLD'S GREATEST PLAYGROUND.

IT may well be doubted whether most New Yorkers themselves have come to a realizing sense of the importance which travelers attach to their great summer beach resort, Coney Island. Outside of New York, the transformation which the island has undergone during the past three years is only partially comprehended. The illustrated description of the great play city, by Lindsay Denison, in the August number of *Munsey's*, may be read with profit by all summer visitors to the metropolis.

Mr. Denison tells how the resort sprang into existence a generation ago and from a haphazard assemblage of bath-houses, carousels, cheap eating-places, shooting galleries, music halls, dancing pavilions, "freak" shows, and various catchpenny devices gradually developed into a populous summer settlement where vice was rampant and honor at a discount. Finally, after the place had grown to be so "tough" that thousands shunned it after a single visit, it was found that respectable fun-seekers demanded and would support a decently conducted resort on the island. In course of time it was

duly impressed on certain capitalists that decency could be made to pay dividends, and so there came about a revolution in the character of the Coney Island amusement places. Soon the character of the crowds that went to the island showed a marked change. There was far less rowdiness than formerly. Men brought their families with them and behaved themselves. Mr. Denison notes some of the present characteristics of the resort in the following paragraphs.

THE FUN-SEEKER'S PARADISE.

It is essentially a place of merriment. There is no reason for going to Coney Island except to have fun. Over its railway termini might well be written, "Leave care behind all ye who enter here." Down from the big city—which, thanks to the hurry of the railroads to carry as many passengers as possible, is but little more than half an hour's journey away,—the tens of thousands come down hungry for laughter every afternoon and night in the week. On Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays the crowds increase to a hundred, two hundred, three hundred, thousand. The fun-loving spirit cannot but get into the very atmosphere. There are hundreds who come with only their return car fare in

their pockets, merely for the joy of mixing with the crowds on the public streets and catching the livesense of humanity and of good-humor that is everywhere.

THE ISLAND'S SIGHTS AND SOUNDS.

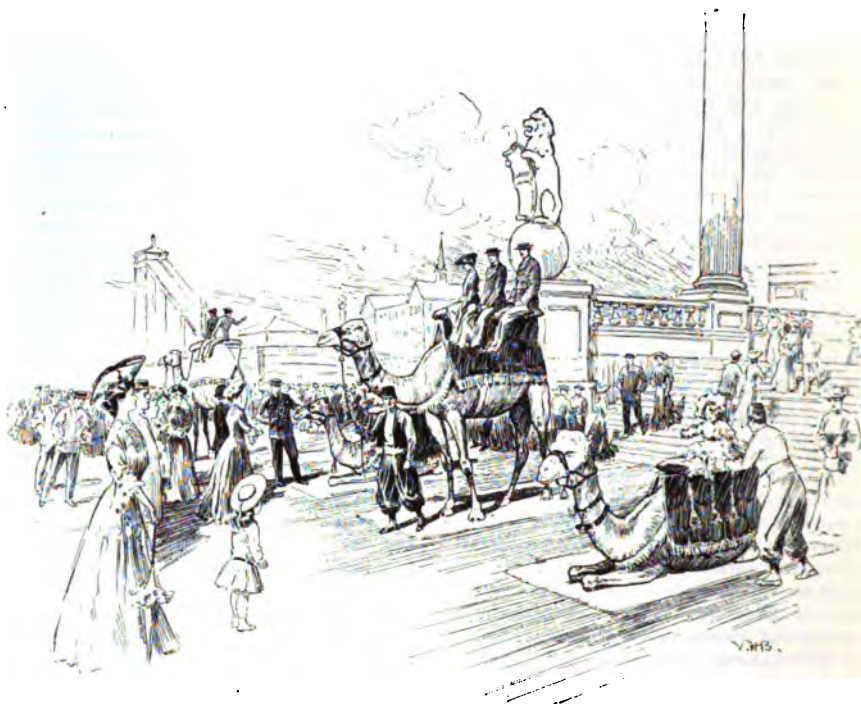
There is a constant braying of bands on the main thoroughfare and its branches. The frankfurter kitchen, the miniature barbecue for the manufacture of beef sandwiches, the mechanical taffy-pullers, the swishing pop-corn roasters, countless exhibitions of marksmanship with rifle and hand-thrown ball at a hundred booths,—these entertainments and countless others are free as air for those who want them. For him who has ten cents of good and lawful money and a willingness to spend it, the inclosures are open with further opportunities to laugh. Here one may watch those who ride on camels or miniature trains, who "shoot the chutes" or "slide the slides,"—exploits that sometimes prove more amusing to the spectator than to the performer.

As for the shows one can see if he begins a round of the inside entertainments,—who shall number or describe them? The appetite of the American people for rapid motion has produced innumerable gravity railways and chutes and whirling airship swings. There is every variation,—a trip through the Swiss Alps, a whirl through scenes from heaven and hell as pictured by artists of somewhat crude but always highly colored imagination, a tour of Europe, a visit to a coal mine, to the North Pole, and to every other place on or over or under the earth to which the paraphernalia of the gravity railway can be adapted.

All the inclosures, too, have dancing pavilions, where public dancing is free. The most notable of these is built on the Dreamland pier,—a marvelously beautiful room of simply designed decorations, all in white, which sparkles with electric lights, at night, like a gem-set casket.

THE BIG SPECTACULAR SHOWS.

Then there are firemen's exhibitions, in which trained fire-fighters attack sham conflagrations in a city block made of iron scenery, after a rather elaborate acting out, by a crowd of two or three hundred people, of the life in a city street, just to make the display more realistic. The fire-engines are real, the horses are real, the



SCENE IN ONE OF THE GREAT CONEY ISLAND INCLOSURES.

water is real, and the leaps of men and women from the roofs of the buildings into the life-nets are real. There are spectacles like "Creation," in which a panorama of the beginning of the world is presented. In the new Brighton Beach Park, which is well over toward the aristocratic Manhattan Beach, is the "Boer War," where actual participants in the South African struggle fight their battles over again twice a day. The battlefield covers thirteen acres, and the musketry and cannonading are heard miles up and down the coast. Most pretentious of all this year's spectacles is the "Fall of Port Arthur," at Luna Park, where Russian and Japanese armies bombard each other over the crests of tin hills, and forty miniature warships, under their own power, circle in a harbor of real water, flying the flags of the Czar and of the Mikado, and blaze away at one another and the fortifications.

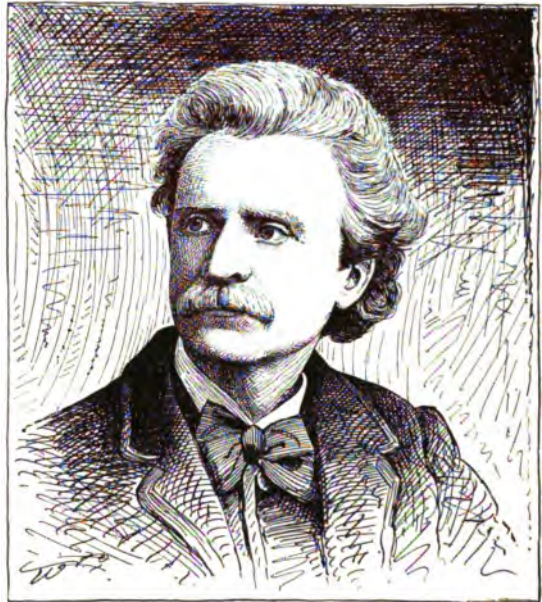
The Brighton Beach Park, when finished, will be as large as was the whole Midway at Buffalo. The shows already on Coney Island are greater than was the Pike at St. Louis. It is a city that will not fade away or tumble in on itself at the end of an exposition season. It has become a permanent institution, with a fixed population of its own.

Similar amusement cities are being built to supply the demands of Chicago and other centers of population, since the new Coney Island has established as a fact and as a safe basis for investment that "the American people will pay freely and eagerly for fun that is clean and honest."

EDVARD GRIEG'S FIRST SUCCESS.

A CHATTY, personal account of Grieg's early boyhood is contributed to the *Contemporary Review* by the Scandinavian composer himself. In his boyhood he suffered many trials, and scored several successes of which he is very proud. He tells with especial glee of his meeting with Ole Bull, and how he (Grieg) succeeded in getting a musical training at Leipsic. He says :

It befell that one summer's day a rider at full gallop dashed up from the road to Landas. He drew up, reined in his fiery Arab, and leaped off. It was he,—the fairy god whom I had dreamed of but never seen ; it was Ole Bull. It did not quite please me that this god simply got off and behaved like a man, came into the room and smilingly greeted us all. I remember well that I felt something like an electric current pass through me when his hand touched mine. But when this divine being let himself go so far as to make jokes, it was clear to me, to my silent sorrow, that he was only a man after all. Unfortunately, he had not his violin with him, but talk he could, and talk he diligently did. We all listened speechless to his astounding stories of his journeys in America. That was indeed something for my childish imagination. But when he heard I had composed music, I had to go to the piano ; all my entreaties were in vain. I cannot now understand what Ole Bull could find at that time in my juvenile pieces. But he was quite serious, and talked quietly to my parents. The matter of their discussion was by no means disagreeable to me. For suddenly Ole Bull came to me, shook me in his own way, and said, "You are to go to Leipsic and become a musician." Everybody



EDVARD GRIEG.

looked at me affectionately, and I understood just one thing, that a good fairy was stroking my cheek and and that I was happy. And my good parents! Not one moment's opposition or hesitation ; everything was arranged, and it seemed to me the most natural thing in the world. What thanks I owed to them—plus Ole Bull—I only saw clearly at a later time.

EXPERIMENTAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE THEORY OF DESCENT.

THE profusion of surprising and significant results which the science of immunity, in spite of its youth, has brought to light serves to greatly increase the interest of medicine as a biological science. The theory of the "anti-bodies," as stated for bacteriology, seems to serve, not only as the focal point of interest for medical investigation, but it has also brought out facts that bear upon fundamental questions of biological significance.

The problem of the origin of the human race, the question of all questions for mankind, has so far found its answer only in the fossil records of the rocks, in the summing up of the evolution of the race which the study of embryology shows to occur during the development of each individual, and in the structural relations which the anatomists have found to exist between different animals.

The possibility of confirming the relationships believed to exist between the different orders of animals by chemical means, as presented by Dr. Robert Rössle in the last two numbers of the *Biologisches Centralblatt* (Leipsic), is most welcome, considering the meager facts, and the links lost from the chain of evidence as we have found it up to the present time.

Bacteriology has shown that certain substances called "anti-bodies," in solution in the blood, resist the action of poisons thrown out by disease germs or other foreign matters, and these resistant principles are produced in greater quantities in proportion to the amount and kind of foreign matter to be resisted.

The three groups of anti-bodies, lysins, agglutins, and precipitins, have, as a common characteristic, a high but not absolute degree of specificity.

The intraperitoneal, nitavenous, or subcutaneous injection of an animal with cellular material causes the blood to react and produce, in resistance against the foreign bodies, *lysins*, which have the power of dissolving material, such as blood corpuscles, having the same origin as the substance injected, and it will also dissolve cells, as blood corpuscles, etc., of closely related species of animals.

In the same way, agglutins, produced in resistance to cells injected from any animal, will cause the blood corpuscles of that animal or of closely related stock to adhere in small groups, in the familiar reaction of agglutination.

Precipitins, resulting from the introduction of foreign albuminous fluids into the blood, produce a precipitate in these same solutions, or in solutions that are very closely related biochemically.

The significance of the imperfect specificity of these resistant principles lies in the fact that by their use it is possible to determine the systematic relationships of animals.

For example, the more marked the reaction of a serum upon the blood corpuscles of an animal is, the nearer that animal must be related to the animal that the serum was originally prepared to act upon. A serum prepared to act on animal *A* produces a stronger reaction on animal *B* in proportion to the closeness of the systematic relationship of the two animals. And in addition to this evidence of relationship, cells from either animal will produce no resist-

ant serum when injected into the blood of the other. The anthropoid apes produce no antibodies in response to the action of human serum or human blood corpuscles.

Different kinds of milk,—for example, human milk and cow's milk,—may be distinguished by means of this biochemical relation, for when the fluid used for making an animal immune to any injurious principle is mixed with the serum of the immunized animal a precipitate will be formed.

By the same process, the close relationship of the chick and the dove, the horse and the donkey, the fox and the dog, the goat and the sheep, has been shown.

The power of reaction of warm-blooded animals against foreign albuminous substances is so delicate that .02 gram injected during the course of a month will cause the formation of a specific precipitin.

Although these reactions serve as experimental proof of the theory of descent, they cannot be taken to distinguish species and varieties, for nature does not make sharp distinctions between different classes of animals, but gives transitional forms.

On the whole, Darwin's theory receives a brilliant support in these biochemical reactions. On the other hand, it is also apparent that animals have the general power of resisting foreign albuminous substances, and it would be an interesting problem to trace the origin of this back through the animal kingdom.

THE REACTION OF THE RUSSIAN DEFEAT UPON THE MOSLEM WORLD IN ASIA.

THE famous Hungarian traveler, Arminius Vámbéry, contributes a timely and spirited article to the *Deutsche Revue*. He speaks of the effect which, after only about a year, the amazing victories of the Japanese have produced upon the Asiatic nations far removed from the scene of action, those under the Russian scepter, and others still politically independent,—the Turks, Persians, Afghans, Khirgiz, and Mongols. He predicts further most momentous changes as a result of Russia's crushing reverses.

In order to appreciate the significance of the Mussulmans' present view of Russia we must bear in mind the awe and fear with which they have regarded her ever since Ivan the Terrible conquered the Asiatic hordes, in the sixteenth century. Since then she has been their arch-enemy, the victorious antagonist who has driven

them ever farther back. That Russia was but an advance guard of Western civilization could not easily become evident to the good but somnolent nations of the Orient; to them, Russia appeared as Allah's scourge, whom it was vain to resist. On the Bosphorus, before the introduction of regular armies, the most insulting and injurious demands of the Russian court were acceded to, in order to avoid war, since it was felt that any conflict would only lead to loss of territory and of prestige. Aided and encouraged by the Western nations, the sinking spirits of the Mohammedans were raised for a while in the Crimean War, but in the end this conflict brought them more loss than gain. In Persia, conditions were no better. Russia's grip upon Persia is even stronger than upon Turkey. Not only is the northern edge of that country radi-

cally undermined, but Russia's influence extends far beyond its center ; and were it not that England bars the way, the whole country would easily fall under the Muscovite sway. Russia's conquest of the Turcomans, the robber barons who had deemed themselves invincible, was the most potent factor in the fear with which the Persians regarded Russia. After the power of those dreaded nomads was broken, the successful campaign against the Afghans, near the Punjab, in 1885, strengthened Russia's influence in the country bordering on India also, and the Afghan nation, which boasted of its heroic resistance to the English, had to recognize a dangerous and invincible foe in the White Czar. This was the condition of things until the recent occurrences in the far East—until news came of the victories of the Japanese by sea and land.

These reports were as startling as thunder in a clear sky to the Moslem nations of Asia, and it may be imagined what profound impression they created, what astonishment they aroused. . . . As a matter of course, as the Japanese are being glorified, so, in corresponding measure, are the Russians contemptuously spoken of, and their government described as criminal and incompetent,—nay, the very shortcomings and weaknesses of which Mohammedan countries have been accused are now charged against the Russians. Along with these manifestations we have, naturally, a harsh criticism of the conception hitherto prevailing in Moslem lands regarding the power and greatness of the northern Colossus. Shame is felt at the fear inspired by a country which has proved to be hollow and impotent, but still more at the defeats which the Moslem nations have sustained at the hands of the so greatly overrated giant, and different writers have come to the conclusion that, owing to the experiences in Manchuria the Moslems may look forward to a more hopeful future. . . . The Mohammedans of India are no less rejoiced at the disasters which have befallen the Russian arms, although the animating principle here is not so much a feeling of revenge against the arch-foe of Islam as the fact that an Asiatic nation has triumphed over a Christian one.

On the whole, the reaction of the Russian reverses in Manchuria upon the relations of Russia to the Mohammedans of Asia will entail serious consequences. The change regards not so much the present as the course of events in the future, for at present the pressure of Russia's hand upon the Mohammedan subjects of the Czar is still sufficiently strong to preclude violent revolts or a sudden shaking off of the yoke. The writer holds that in Turkey Russia's power is too great to justify any fears at this time. The Sultan is almost a vassal of the Czar. Were it not for the unfortunate policy of fear and suspicion which has been followed by the former, the confusion reigning within and without his dominions, now would be the time to take advantage of his arch-

enemy's plight. For the present, Turkey can reap no profit from the events in the far East. Still less can Persia do so, as she is yet more firmly in the clutches of the Czar. Irresolution, false conception of the real state of things, arbitrary tyranny, lawlessness, and the other shortcomings of Turkey beset Persia also.

Far more disastrous for Russia may the reaction caused by her reverses prove in sections where the court of St. Petersburg has only laid its plans, the success of which still rests with the future. In this connection Afghanistan is of prime importance. The present Emir assumed, in contradistinction to his father's policy, an unfriendly attitude toward England, and, on the other hand, gave abundant evidence of friendliness to Russia, which was, of course, reciprocated by that country. Among other things, he constantly sought to fan the fire of revolt among the unruly tribes of northwestern India. After the news of Russia's disasters by sea and land, a sudden change of scene took place at Kabul. The Emir seemed to drop his plans for inciting the border tribes. Khas Khan, the instigator of the anti-English policy, lost his influence at court, and other evidences of friendliness to England were exhibited.

In the eyes of the liberal-minded Asiatics, the Japanese have been chosen by Providence to be the avengers of their brethren, hitherto held in subjection by Russia ; they have broken the spell of Russian invincibility, and it is easily comprehensible that the Oriental should recognize in the Japanese nation his savior, regard it with pride, and wish to take the achievements of Japanese culture for models.

New thoughts and ideas do not, indeed, readily make their way in Islam, but when events are freighted with a hope for betterment, and the people recognize the opportunity of obtaining revenge for the ignominy and degradation which they have suffered, then the chains that bind even the most inveterate conservatism soon burst asunder, humanity steps into its rights, and even the dreamy Oriental girds himself for unexpected effort.

From this point of view, there is no doubt that Russia has, by her reverses in the far East, lost her nimbus of power and greatness, and has fallen greatly in the estimation of the Mohammedans of Asia.

This has reference, not alone to her military prowess, but even far more to the witchcraft and skill with which the simple inhabitants of the northern half of Asia invested her. The Russian propaganda, namely, has always known how to make it appear that all the scientific discoveries of the West, all the appliances of modern technology,—nay, all the achievements of the European intellect,—were pure Russian products ; it has emblazoned the Russian flag with all the achievements of the

Western world. So that in these respects, too, a change will be wrought in the conceptions of the Orientals, and in her struggle with Japan Russia may not only forfeit her present standing in the far East, but the prestige she has hitherto enjoyed throughout all Asia.

Arabia and Home Rule.

A former French consul, writing in *La Revue*, has a note on the national movement in Arabia and the decline of French influence in Asia Minor.

For some time the attention of the world has been attracted to a national Arab movement in Asia Minor, and a short time ago the Supreme Committee of the National Arab Party addressed a manifesto to the Arabs and the foreign powers declaring that it is now desirable for the Arabs to shake off the Turkish yoke and found an independent Arab empire which should include all the Arab countries of Asia, extending from the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates to the Isthmus of Suez, and from the Mediterranean to the Gulf of Oman. The writer thinks this the psychological moment for the French to turn their thoughts to Arabia instead of choosing this very time to abandon almost entirely their religious protectorate in Asia Minor, thus leaving the field free to all other nations. France ought at once to endeavor to regain her influence in this part of the Mediterranean, where, he asserts, she has many friends and warm partisans, and a name universally respected. It is not a question of war or armed conquest, but simple pacific penetration. Syria and Mesopotamia, he con-

tinues, are on the second route to India, and a few great canals in connection with the railways would make these countries remarkably prosperous. He feels certain that for years the English have been intriguing in the Persian Gulf and in Arabia, but the policy of Lord Curzon does not seem to have met with favorable results. In the extreme hinterland of Aden, the people, he is sure, would never accept British rule.

The principal organizers of the Arab Patriotic League are supposed to be in Europe, but it may safely be affirmed that the Arab National Party is in close relations with the Arabs of Asia Minor, and a happy moment has been chosen for issuing the manifesto. Now is the time for France to act in Asia Minor and in Arabia. Tomorrow it will be too late, and what happened in Egypt will be repeated in Asia. It is all very well to cry out against England's action in Egypt,—it was the abstention of France which forced England to act and reap the advantages of her action. France ought not to let Morocco hypnotize her. The monopolies and the markets in Arabia are reserved for the European states which will come to the aid of the Arab nation. England, no doubt, hopes to be remembered, but France has claims quite as good. Meanwhile, the French Catholic protectorate may pass into other hands, and the awakening of the Arab nation may bring disastrous consequences to France if she does not recognize the situation and endeavor to profit by it.

SOME PECULIARITIES OF CHINESE JOURNALISM.

A REMARKABLE awakening is evident in the Chinese press. The publications of China have not developed sufficiently to show the colorlessness and banality of the European and American press. Chinese editors call a spade a spade, and when anybody steals he is known as a thief. One of the most interesting sections of the Chinese newspaper is the section in which are published the imperial decrees. These show the great authority and power of the central government on the one hand and the corruption of the administration employees on the other. A Polish writer, Gustav Olechowski, who has been for some years a student of Chinese affairs, recently published a series of articles on the Chinese press in the *Tygodnik Ilustrowany*, of Warsaw. Mr. Olechowski quotes verbatim some of the more characteristic imperial decrees. Here is one:

The twenty-third day of the second moon [March 8 of our calendar]. Chao-Eng-Chen, governor of Hunan, has asked us to recompense and to punish some of his subalterns. So we thank Ngai-Chow-Ki, the prefect of Chao-Che-Fu; Lien-Chai-Chen, the prefect of Chao-Chen; Tan-Pan-In, the prefect of In-Chu Fu. All these officials deserve our highest praise. In the meantime, we punish Ngai-Lie-Iuen, the prefect of In-Jen-Fu, who permits his subordinates to extort money from the people; Inon-In-Chao, the sub-prefect of In-Ming-Len, because of his lack of energy toward his subalterns and of his bad reputation; Ten-Ai-Chao, because of his selection of unworthy assistants; Chen-Kin-Chao, Lin-Ioen-Tuan, and Ten-Ki-Fang, assistant sub-prefects, who are frivolous and detested by the people. We punish all these officials by degrading them in rank. As to the directors Li-Chen-In, U-San-See, and U-Ze, they are too old and too weak to perform their duties. We order these mandarins to leave their offices at once and return for good to their families and homes. We leave all the other matters presented to us by the governor to his own decision, with this one con-

dition—that he let us know what measures he has taken. Universal respect for this order is commanded.

The Emperor of China, it seems, is not always polite toward his subjects. Here is another decree :

Li-Chien-Soau, viceroy of Fokien and Chekiang, has prayed us to punish the following officials : Sin-Youen-Che, sub-prefect at In-Pin-Chien, because of his bad reputation and frequent visits to disreputable houses ; Lu-Te-Kong, sub-prefect at Chan-Taj-Lien, because of his general incapacity ; In-Ju-Kiang, because the merchants of his district feel bad toward him ; Lai-Ouang-Iong, colonel at Fu-Fu-Men, because of his bad habits and lack of tact ; Pej-Ju-Tag, lieutenant, because he knows nothing ; Laj-Uen-Uao, commander, because he only thinks how to make money and behaves worse than the worst kind of a robber ; Uang-Ko-Fou, commander, because he is so old and lacks vitality. So we degrade all these officials and functionaries. Universal respect for this decree is commanded.

Another characteristic imperial decree is the following, dated "the 25th day of the second moon" :

The president of the department of justice has communicated to the viceroy of both Koangs and to the governor of Kong Tong that the mandarin, Sin-Chen-Nun, while superintending the state examinations last year, committed some serious offenses against the law, and that, later on, he himself asked the court to fix his punishment. He must be punished, according to the law, by suspension from office for nine months ; but as he himself has confessed his culpability and asked for punishment, it is permitted to ask the Emperor to pardon him. With regard to his assistant mandarins, they must be degraded to a lower rank. They will be permitted, however, to buy back their positions. A general respect for this decree is commanded.

SOME CHINESE "WANT ADS."

So much for the official portion of the Chinese journals. As to the non-official section, it is generally poor enough. But in the advertising columns we find some marvelously humorous productions. There are, for example, some matrimonial advertisements. In the *Kuo-Min-Dji-Dji* (National Gazette) for September 17, 1904,

there were two noteworthy announcements. One was signed by a young Chinaman.

WIFE WANTED.—A young man wants to marry a handsome young woman. Following are the virtues which my future wife is certainly expected to possess : (1) Chinese and European education ; (2) perfect health ; (3) excellent knowledge of cookery ; (4) mastery of the art of needlework ; (5) normal, unpinched feet ; (6) character enough to bear poverty if she has to. The candidates for my hand are expected to send application and photograph to the newspaper office.

In a subsequent issue of the same journal appears an advertisement from a Chinese girl who has evidently had experience in practical life, who knows Chinese young men well, and who has, moreover, read the advertisement already quoted. She asks that her "ad" be inserted in the form of a letter to the editor. It follows :

In your issue of September 17, 1904, appeared an advertisement for a wife. Let me begin by saying that I regret having reasons to believe that this particular young man is not gifted with such qualities as I would expect in my future husband. I am twenty years of age, and have waited until now in vain for any one to deliver me from my maiden's prison. Having heard that it is usual in some countries of the world to advertise about such things, I have prepared ten paragraphs embodying the conditions expected of my future husband. I should be glad to have them published in your paper. (1) My husband must have both Chinese and European education ; (2) we must please each other in age and appearance ; (3) my husband will be permitted to have no other wife, nor will he be permitted to have any relations whatsoever with ladies outside of his own home ; (4) he will not be permitted to frequent cafés or gambling-houses, or to drink with actresses ; (5) he must not smoke opium ; (6) he must have no dark spots on his record ; (7) my husband must shave off his mustache and whiskers until he is forty years old ; (8) he must permit his wife full liberty to go out of and come into the house in as free a manner as though she were a man ; (9) my husband must allow me general liberty of movement, like other free people ; (10) my husband must place at my disposal one hundred dollars a month, and deposit with a bank, as a guarantee, this payment for three years in advance. I will thank you very much, Mr. Editor, if you will receive for me replies from the candidates who may respond.

THE PROGRESS OF GERMAN CHINA.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL JANSON discusses, in the *Deutsche Rundschau*, the progress which has recently been made in the German protectorate of Kiao-Chau. He had written, in the same journal, of the conditions there about a year before,—February, 1904. He then observed that the systematic methods of the government, as well as of the missions and financial concerns, gave assurance of a rapid development in every field. His present infor-

mation is based upon the comprehensive report of the imperial navy department, carried up to October, 1904. One of the most essential features of the advance accomplished is the moral victory which has been achieved, the Germans having succeeded in gaining the confidence of the Chinese and of their government. Since last June, Tsi-nan-fu, the capital of Shangtung, and Tsing-tau are connected by rail, and a Chinese hospital has been opened in the former

town under the management of a naval oculist. In a little over half a year, thirty-five hundred Chinese have received treatment there. In the town of Kiao-Chau, in the neutral zone, a polyclinic, established in a temple, was also largely frequented, treatment and medicines being given gratis. Within the protectorate, too, care for the Chinese has been displayed by building a new polyclinic at Li-tsun, and in Tai-tung-tschen the inhabitants themselves built a hospital. Other sanitary undertakings are in progress. The Europeans, too, profit by such measures, for the origin of epidemics is thereby more readily discovered, and steps can be taken in time to fight them. General Janson proceeds:

In consequence of all these sanitary measures, the number of alarming diseases in the protectorate has become very small, and the once notorious "Tsing-tau itself may be considered perfectly salubrious." Perhaps the best evidence of this is its having developed into a seaside resort. In the year covered by the report it had five hundred visitors, among them two hundred English. Of still greater importance for the colony is the completion of the convalescent home "Mecklenburg-haus," in a highland region of Lau-schau, amid wildly romantic, magnificent scenery. As regards intellectual development, special attention has been paid to the needs of the Chinese. The Chinese schools of the different missions are making constant progress. The interest in the German language already extends beyond the limits of Shangtung.

Another field in which there is an increasingly successful coöperation with the natives is agriculture and forestry.

I have spoken of how the interest of the Chinese was aroused in the improvement of fruit trees. I also mentioned how slight their knowledge had up to that time been of the economic significance of forests, and of their rôle as regulators of atmospheric precipitation. In refreshing contrast to this is the vividly aroused interest of the Chinese Government in afforestation. Governor Chou-fou has commissioned some officials to visit the plantation near Tsing-tau, and has expressed a desire to have the range of hills surrounding his capital planted with trees according to the German model, and thereby inaugurate a rational control of the streams.

Trade is evidently in an increasingly flourishing condition. There was a notable increase in imports, exports, and revenue. General Janson believes that German occupation of Kiao-Chau cannot fail to benefit both Germans and Chinese.

All the presumptions, then, of a healthy growth have been verified, and the results thus far justify a full confidence in the ultimate development of Kiao-Chau into a really productive colony, whose significance for us must be compared; not with the worthless Wei-hai-Wei of the English, but with Hongkong, naturally in proportion to the smaller extent of our trade in the East as compared with that of the English. For that very reason, I would here repeat, the strengthening of Tsing-tau's means of defense is a matter of urgent necessity. Since we pursue an honest policy of the open door in our protectorate, and base our relations to China solely upon the promotion of mutual welfare, there is indeed no foundation for the assumption, sometimes expressed, that the issue of the Russo-Japanese war, as yet undetermined, may work some change in our position. Considerations based upon the shifting of relations of the powers in East Asia must not, therefore, lessen our solicitude for Kiao-Chau.

DANE VERSUS GERMAN IN SCHLESWIG.

WHILE some attention has been given to the position of the Poles in the German Empire and the struggle in which they are engaged for the maintenance of their language, national institutions, and even hereditary land, the position of the Danes in Schleswig, also smarting under the policy of Prussification, has not received as much consideration as it deserves. Ever since the Danish-Prussian war of 1864, Germany has been attempting to denationalize the Danes of Schleswig. Attempts to Germanize the land and stamp out the Danish language, however, have not been generally successful. Charges of great injustice have been made. Many Danes born and reared in the province have been disfranchised simply for voting in opposition to the repressive policy of the Prussian Government. The Danish language is forbidden in schools and churches (with the exception of a sermon in Danish once in a while),

numerous fines are imposed for the most trifling offenses, and "life is made intolerable in order that the people might be compelled to become German." A Danish-American reader of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* points out that, according to Clause V. of the peace treaty between Denmark and Prussia, the Danes who wished and voted so were to be accorded the privilege of remaining united with Denmark. Bismarck, however, failed to keep the solemn word of the Prussian Government, and as a result the Schleswig-Holstein question is added to the problems which are pressing for solution before the German Empire of to-day. In a ringing article in the *Contemporary Review*, on what he calls the "struggle for the soil," Mr. Erik Givskov recounts the struggles of Danes and Poles against "Prussification" during the past quarter of a century. Notwithstanding the great intellectual and economic achievements of German culture

during the past fifty years, he says, it cannot be denied that it is on the battlefield that Germany has won her most splendid victories. For that very reason, the victories are incomplete.

For while you can conquer sword in hand, you cannot assimilate an alien race by the sword; but the Germans have been drilled into such excellent soldiers that they have become saturated by the military instinct and fail to see this simple truth. The subjugated races being unwilling to discard their mother tongue and national culture in order to become Germans, only one means presents itself to the militaristic and militant German mind for achieving this matter-of-course purpose,—coercion and force.

Mr. Givskov marvels that it seems impossible for the Prussian ruling classes to understand that the evils of repression are not cured by more repression. It is a fact, he points out with evidence from history, that the national and economic awakening of the Poles and Danes in Germany is simply the reaction against force of two downtrodden races. The Danes have it even worse than the Poles, he reminds us, because, while the Poles are rapidly increasing in numbers and wealth, the Danes are a mere handful (100,000) against all the might of Prussia. When Bismarck repealed Clause V. of the Prague treaty, which ended the Prusso-Danish War, many Danes, discouraged at the prospect, became Germans, or sold out to Germans. All the machinery of the powerful Berlin government is applied to denationalize these Danes. The German language is taught in the schools; the country is deluged with officials; "all that is rich and noble belongs to the dominant race." Still the population does not waver.

It has its backbone in Danish culture. Danish literature and art are the mental property of even the peasant farmer, and when the children,—who do not emigrate any more,—have grown up they are sent to a Danish

high school to improve their neglected education. And they return firm in their resolution to take up the battle where the old generation left it.

This is the reason why, in spite of her overpowering strength, Germany has been unable to make any impression on the little band of Danes on her northern frontier. In spite of German colonization associations, in spite of German land banks and savings-banks amply provided with capital from *das Vaterland*, and in spite of the German Government, which employs the large funds belonging to the crown lands and forests for the purpose of buying land from the Danes,—in spite of all this, the Danes are slowly reacquiring their paternal soil.

As a result of the Germanizing efforts of the first thirty years, the number of Danish farms has increased, and that of the German farms decreased. For the Danish farmers will not become Germans any more than their Polish fellow-citizens. They continue to talk Danish, they teach the immigrated Germans to talk Danish, and very frequently the sons of these Germans become as zealous Danes as their neighbors. Even in the schools, the Danish boys are making proselytes among the immigrated children. This writer believes that in the end the Danish plowshare will conquer the German sword. He says, in conclusion:

The German Empire was founded by the sword; it is kept together by the sword,—the only tool which Germans, in spite of all their industrial and scientific ability, appear to understand the wielding of with real success. But the sword is not by any means a convincing argument against a subjugated race striving to defend its nationality and culture. And when the sword is met by the plowshare, then it will only be able to give a blow in the air. All the while the land is slowly but surely being plowed away from under the hand that wields the sword, and when some day the German sword is broken, or perhaps itself made into plowshares, the conquered races will still speak their own language on their own soil.

SOME FRANK GERMAN VIEWS OF ENGLAND.

AFTER many years of residence and business activity in England, an eminent German has come to some very unflattering conclusions regarding Britain's position, her people, and her prospects in the world. With what he calls the bluntness of a true friend (and under the protection of a *nom de plume*), this Teutonic critic contributes to the *National Review* his impressions, almost all of which are wholly unfavorable. In the first place, he declares that Englishmen are not patriotic. To a German, their indifference to their individual duties as citizens of a great empire is amazing. They look down on their army, in which the German

glories. English schools he regards as beneath comparison with German educational institutions. In fact, the British nation, he declares, "falls into two halves,—one of which has character without full intellectual equipment, and the other a mediocre intellectual equipment without character."

This strange difference between the two parts of the nation explains many of the apparent inconsistencies of England,—why you succeed in India and Egypt, where your men of character govern, and why you fail at home, where your men of character are powerless before the characterless mob. But unless you can change this state of affairs altogether it will go very

hard with you in the future, for the nations with which you will have to compete for mastery in the world are striving to implant in their citizens, even the meanest and humblest, strength of character. What will you English people do in a conflict with such antagonists if you have no deep-rooted sense of duty?

British primary education, he says, is surprisingly bad. Young English boys know nothing of the history or geography of their own land. Moreover, they have no idea of duty, and no knowledge that the "position of their country was won by sacrifices of past generations in war." The young people, he declares, are given to sport and carousing in England.

Nothing is done for the physical training of these young people; and the military service, which in my country forms and develops the manhood of the nation, greatly strengthening the character, is wanting in your land. You have painted fancy pictures of the German army dominated by brutal sergeants and non-commissioned officers; but while no doubt there are some faults in our army, you forget that if things were really as bad as you imagine the German system would be inevitably swept away, since we have manhood suffrage. I miss in your working class the sense of respect, cleanliness, punctuality, and obedience which military service gives, while I see in it an inability to resist the allurements of drink, which seems to me to proceed from some grave weakness of temperament. You have to compete, be it remembered, with the Americans and Japanese (neither of whom drink), as well as with ourselves; and unless you can produce the better type of man, or at least as good a type, how are you going to succeed in the competition?

IS BRITISH MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT BAD?

British towns are badly administered, he says, further,—quite the opposite of the German method.

It is impossible to find out who is responsible for what is done or left undone. The maximum of money is expended for the minimum of effect by a host of jarring authorities, who are driven on to foolish measures by the mob. The workingman pays little in the shape of rates, and he is consequently indifferent to economy; he knows nothing of finance, and he consequently violates its first principles. He has no stake in the town, as he can easily shift his residence if it languishes or decays through the immoderate burden of debt which he is tying round its neck. Yet he outvotes the owner of property, or the company which is prosecuting some great industry in that town, though both of these have a great stake in the continued prosperity of the place and in careful management. The local body which has foolishly borrowed millions or thousands slips away into obscurity when the mischief which it has done is detected, and there is no one to blame or punish.

AS TO BRITISH MILITARY VALOR.

Commenting upon the British repulses and retreats in South Africa, this writer observes that "the character and tenacity of a people are

judged by the losses which its armies will face on the battlefield." He continues:

Your "Japs," whom you so impertinently patronize, will consent to be killed to the last man. A nation which produces such an army, such soldiers, will always be respected, even if it is not loved. But the South African war showed that your men would retreat or put up the white flag if the loss rose above 6 or 7 per cent.; whence you are neither loved nor respected, nor, I may add, even feared. And that, if I may speak the truth, is why many Germans are indignant at your pretensions. A feeling is growing up in Germany that Germans are worthier of empire than you, and that your work in the world is done. The German measures himself with you, and sees that he is a far better and braver soldier; a more far-seeing and determined politician; a better administrator; a better business man; a better manufacturer; a more energetic and laborious worker. Perhaps I deplore this feeling, as I deplore anything which should cause trouble between our two peoples; but it is natural, as, from the Kaiser downward, every German is beginning to realize these things, and entirely through your fault. When you have not even courage to protect your own merchant shipping or fishermen, you can scarcely wonder that our German shipping is growing fast, or that, from artisan to monarch, we realize that your rule of the sea is over, and that "Germany's future lies upon the water." Yet you are angry with us and jealous of our merchant marine and of our navy. A generation hence we shall be protecting you, and you will be only too glad that we built a great fleet and became a naval power.

Englishmen, he says, do not seem to realize that a nation which has not "character enough and strength of will enough to make proper preparations for war, with the small amount of personal discomfort and sacrifice which they involve, will certainly be found wanting in patriotism and devotion when the actual conflict comes." As to English jealousy of German trade and the German navy, this critic declares that the future will see a further stagnation of British industries and a gradually increased expansion of German commerce, and he concludes as follows:

As for your empire, it appears to me unstable as a house of cards. A single hard push from a great power would bring it down, because of the want of patriotism in your people. Would they sacrifice themselves in tens of thousands to defend India? Would they suffer privation and want of food at home? You know that they would want peace at any price, and your statesmen, judging from their recent record, would find humanitarian excuses for the most shameful of surrenders, and pretend that they had hoisted the white flag out of sheer magnanimity. Your power of self-deception at times approaches the marvelous; but, unfortunately for yourselves, you are not the only power in the world, and there are nations on the Continent which are not deceived by your audacious make-believes, but which see you as you really are.

There are many grave weaknesses of temperament in the English people, says this critic, aggravated by the long run of British luck as a nation.

ENGLISH WOMEN WRITERS ON THE WOMAN'S MOVEMENT.

THERE are two papers in defense of the woman's movement in the *Fortnightly Review* for July replying to the recent attacks of Lucas Malet and other women writers.

Mrs. Caird, who entitles her paper "The Duel of the Sexes," remarks somewhat bitterly that

It is a curious and discouraging fact that the women who have profited most by the "woman's movement," those whose genius has enabled them to avail themselves to the full of the increased opportunities it would fain offer to all, have, nearly without exception, risen up to decry it and their sex with singular rancor and contempt.

Mrs. Caird thinks this true of Mrs. Craigie, Lucas Malet, and Miss Robins, of whose "Dark Lantern" she says:

It is a powerfully written modern version of the repellent old story of Patient Griselda, with the difference that the medieval ruffian is by many degrees less of a bully and a coward than his almost inconceivable twentieth-century prototype. Our old friend Rochester is a polished, delicately refined person beside him!

The popularity of this "pray knock me down and trample upon me" doctrine rouses the dark fear that emancipation may have come too late, that the servile nature in-bred for so many generations may have become so ingrained that the sex-slave hugs her chains.

TWO TENDENCIES OF THE MODERN WOMAN.

Mrs. Caird, however, plucks up her courage and recognizes two remarkable features in the development of the modern woman.

On the one hand, we find the shrinking from the maternal function in varying degrees of intensity; on the other, a desperate and overwhelming desire for it, quite regardless of the proprieties.

The orthodox mother, who has no tenderness for any children except her own, is a prey to a blind animal instinct which is gradually being idealized.

Why may we not dare to imagine maternal love growing in the direction of the *human*, depending more and more on personality, less and less on the accident of bodily relationship? May not the civilized woman come to love the *child* rather than her own flesh and blood; its soul rather than her *self*?

Maternal love at present is a projection of self-love. The difference between a stepmother and a mother marks the difference which ought not to exist between a truly maternal love of the helpless child and a merely selfish love of her own child.

AN INDIVIDUAL LIFE FOR WOMEN.

Mrs. Caird protests against the attempt to reestablish the old fetich to which has been sac-

rificed the individual life of the woman for the husband, the family, and the race, inflicting deep injuries on all three.

Happiness for men and women in close relationship it has rendered scarcely possible; it has made of them strangers and secret enemies; friendships between them it has so hampered and hunted that they have generally relinquished it in sheer discouragement; love it has handcuffed and dragooned till the wild thing has drooped and died, an old, old tragedy of how many a "happy home!" And as for the family and the race, they have shared in the misfortunes of their founders.

In the good time that is coming we are to change all that. Already the finer psychic sense is aware of a spiritual union more ideal and divine than that of which the poets have dreamed. With which cryptic utterance we leave Mrs. Caird and turn to Lady Grove.

LADY GROVE ON NATURE'S AFTERTHOUGHT.

Lady Grove is a disciple of Prof. Lester F. Ward, who proclaims that the male is a mere afterthought of nature. Woman is the primary, the original, sex, and therefore naturally and really the superior sex. She also swears by Mrs. Stetson's "Woman and Economics," and adopts the heresy that the race is oversexed. Woman has now awakened to a consciousness of the fact that her true mission, hitherto unconsciously pursued, is to humanize the male. Lady Grove speaks with no uncertain sound.

By desiring to maintain the subjection of women,—a state incidental to racial progress established in order to raise the male to a position of equality with the woman,—these people are in very deed enemies to their own kind, moles crawling in benighted regions of their own making, unconscious of the beautiful world above and around them. They are the fools who whisper in their hearts "There is no God." Who has not noticed that it is always the least virile and manly among the men who are so bent upon "keeping women in their proper place?"

QUANTITY VERSUS QUALITY IN CHILDREN.

As for President Roosevelt's insistence upon large families, Lady Grove asks:

Is not the quality rather than the quantity of children the thing to be aimed at? If, then, by improving women's status the breed improves, as improve it must, is not this preferable to the "plenty" in their present very mixed condition? Has no one sufficient imagination to see in their mind's eye a race that would be incapable of breeding this mass of "undesirable aliens" who are tossed about from shore to shore, welcome nowhere, and a curse to themselves?

THE EXTRAVAGANT ECONOMY OF WOMEN.

There is a third paper in the same review, brightly written, but hardly of such serious im-

port as the two others, entitled "The Extravagant Economy of Women," by Mrs. John Lane. She says that "it takes the great, splendid masculine spendthrifts in high places to glorify the world with treasures of priceless art." Women never have money, and so they make the extravagantly reckless economies, saving a penny at the cost of a pound. Especially does she condemn the rage for chiffons and the family joint.

If the Englishwoman would only take to the chiffons of cooking instead of the chiffons of clothes! It is an extravagance to cook badly; it is an extravagance to buy things because they are cheap; it is an extravagance to waste time in doing what some one else can do better (if one can afford it).

Mrs. Lane is a very lively writer whose contributions always add to the gayety, if not of nations, certainly of the periodicals.

HARVARD'S GERMANIC MUSEUM.

ODDLY enough, the first Germanic museum to be developed in the United States has been started in that part of the country where the influence of the Teutonic stock is least in evidence. The ancient Puritan community of Cambridge, Mass., where the German element in the population has always been comparatively slight, now takes the lead in developing an American museum of German civilization. Frederick W. Coburn, writing in the *Craftsman* (Syracuse, N. Y.) for July, attributes the founding of

the museum to the energy and persistence of Prof. Kuno Francke and his colleagues in the German department of Harvard University.

The museum was dedicated in 1902, on the occasion of a reception given to Prince Henry of Germany by the Harvard Germanic Association. This organization had been founded at the suggestion of Professor Francke, and was presided over by the Hon. Carl Schurz, with the late Herbert Small acting as its secretary. The scheme of the museum is similar to that of a number of national museums in Europe,—the Germanic Museum at Nuremberg, the Swiss Museum at Zurich, and the Hotel de Cluny at Paris. In the words of the prospectus:

Models and reproductions (either plaster or photographic) of typical work, illustrating Germanic life and character from the earliest times to the present day—from the Viking boat and the Anglo-Saxon hall to the national monument or the Niederwold will naturally be the first acquisitions. From the very beginning, however, it is proposed to make an effort to secure originals also; weapons and costumes, implements and utensils; engravings to illustrate the art of the engraver, or to show the customs of a period; books illustrating the history of printing; paintings, sculptures, and carvings of real value, artistically or historically. In selecting objects there will be strict adherence to the principle of avoiding that which is merely striking or curious, and of securing only what is typical and characteristic.

Casts of noteworthy specimens of German sculpture and architecture were made for the museum under the direction of Emperor William. The cost of making these casts was estimated by Berlin newspapers at almost half a million marks (\$125,000).

The most conspicuous object in the museum is the equestrian statue of Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg, of which the original, by Schluetter, is at Berlin. Another important specimen of German sculpture is Schadow's statue of Frederick the Great, in a reproduction which was also the gift of the Kaiser.



REPRODUCTION OF SCHLUETTER'S "ELECTOR OF BRANDENBURG,"—THE GIFT OF EMPEROR WILLIAM TO THE HARVARD GERMANIC MUSEUM.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

Midsummer Magazine Topics.—Light reading predominates in the August numbers, which are made up largely of stories and sketches appropriate to the season. Among the descriptive articles, first place is given to mountain and river touring, the *Century* leading off with a rather elaborate account of "Alpine Climbing in Automobiles," by Sterling Heilig. This writer's experience was in what is known as the Cup of the French Alps. He journeyed over seven mountain circuits in a sixteen horse-power four-cylinder automobile, and confesses to some astonishment that he has come back alive.—We have quoted in another part of this REVIEW from Mr. George D. Abraham's modest record of his achievements in scaling the peaks of Mont Blanc, as given in the *Cosmopolitan*. The same writer contributes to *Outing* an illustrated paper on "Climbing the High Alps," with many hints to amateur mountaineers.—The attractions of river steamboating as a mode of vacation travel are suggested in Thornton Oakley's "Mississippi Sketches," contributed to *Harpers*.—In *Outing*, L. D. Sherman hints at the delights of "Canoeing Down the Connecticut."—This month's *Century* opens with an extremely interesting illustrated comparison of American and English rowing, by Ralph D. Paine, formerly of the Yale crew.—The transatlantic yacht race of last May is exploited in two of the August magazines. Wilson Marshall, owner of the victorious *Atlantic*, tells in *Outing*, through Arthur Goodrich, the full story of his successful run from Sandy Hook to the Lizard. In *Leslie's*, Dr. Henry C. Rowland, who sailed on the *Endymion*, gives the racing log of that vessel, together with several rather remarkable photographs of scenes during the race.

Character Sketches.—The second portion of Miss Tarbell's character study of John D. Rockefeller appears in the August number of *McClure's*. This is not professedly an intimate study of Mr. Rockefeller; for Miss Tarbell admits that "there is probably not a public character in the United States whose private life is more completely concealed than is that of John D. Rockefeller." Miss Tarbell's study, therefore, has to do rather with Mr. Rockefeller as president of the Standard Oil Company, in his relations to the American public. Her point of view is indicated by her elaborate "History of the Standard Oil Company." The sum of her judgments is unfavorable, yet there is a notable absence of malice in her expressions of opinion and an evident attempt to deal justly with her subject.—The character sketch of Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, by David Graham Phillips, in *Success* is thoroughly entertaining. Mr. Phillips was a fellow-student with young Beveridge at De Pauw University, Greencastle, Ind. He tells with gusto of the embryo Senator's struggles to get a college education, and of his brilliant successes in various college competitions,—notably in oratory, where he won the interstate contest, a great

honor in those days.—Under the title "Labor Leaders and Where They Are Leading," Henry Kitchell Webster contributes to *Leslie's* brief and clever characterizations of Samuel Gompers, John Mitchell, Eugene V. Debs, and one or two other men now prominent in the labor movement.—In this month's *Cosmopolitan*, Alfred Henry Lewis begins the "Story of Paul Jones," giving himself the liberty of the fiction-writer in treating this historical character.—*Munsey's* has an excellent account of the career of Admiral Sir John Fisher,—"The Reformer of the British Navy,"—by Fred T. Jane.

Religious and Theological Discussion.—Among those journals which have heretofore been regarded as being distinctly theological in their subject matter we find a growing tendency to admit articles on secular themes. In some of the current quarterlies, from one-third to one-half of the articles are devoted to non-religious topics. In some of these so-called theological journals literary themes seem to exercise a potent influence, while in others economic and sociological matters are discussed at great length. In the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, which represents the Methodist Episcopal Church South, there are articles on Washington Irving, Wordsworth, and the Elizabethan Age of English letters while the *Methodist Review*, published by the Northern branch of the Church, goes so far as to publish an article by Prof. Victor Wilker on Fritz Reuter, the famous Low German humorist. The same journal has a study of George Cassell Rankin, the Minnesota poet, by the Rev. Albert Osborn, while the opening article of the current number is a description of the road traversed by Chaucer's Canterbury pilgrims. This interesting article is contributed by the Rev. John Telford, of Dorking, England.—Prof. T. W. Hunt contributes to the *Princeton Theological Review* an analysis of "The Elements of Shakespeare's Genius."—Among the politico-sociological contributions to the current theological journals are: "The Submerged Tenth Among the Southern Mountaineers," by the Rev. Marion G. Rombo, and "Jap and Negro: A Similarity of Social Problems," by the Rev. William H. Butler,—both articles appearing in the *Methodist Review* (New York); and "The Negro South and North," by W. E. Burghardt DuBois, in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* (Oberlin, Ohio).—The same periodical contains Prof. G. Frederick Wright's defense of the Standard Oil Company, which is quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," and also an interesting chapter from the history of Florence,— "An Ancient Story of Politics and Reform," by Prof. Henry H. Powers.—Among the more strictly technical contributions to recent numbers of these journals are: "The Relation of the Minister to Civic Reform," by J. H. Ecob, D.D., in the *Homiletic Review* for July; "The Nineteenth Psalm in the Criticism of the Nineteenth Century," by John

D. Davis, in the *Princeton Theological Review*; "The Christocentric Theology," by John Wright Bucham, in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* for July; "The Missionary Interpretation of History," by Prof. R. T. Stevenson, in the *Methodist Review* (New York); and "Protestantism and the Religious Situation in Japan," by Dr. S. H. Wainwright, in the *Methodist Quarterly Review* (Nashville).—Papers on the higher criticism in its

various phases are by no means numerous in the current theological reviews. An article favorable to higher criticism appears in the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, of Nashville, from the pen of the Rev. J. T. Curry, presiding elder of the Tennessee Conference. Dr. George S. Rollins contributes to the *Bibliotheca Sacra* a scholarly paper entitled "The Hand of Apollus in the Fourth Gospel."

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

England's Share in Togo's Victory.—Mr. Archibald Hurd, writing in the *Fortnightly Review*, remarks that "to the British people the achievement of the Japanese fleet in the great battle in the Sea of Japan is of peculiar and intimate interest. An admiral who received his early professional training in England, and who served afloat in British men-of-war, has won the greatest naval victory in history—not excepting Trafalgar—with men-of-war constructed almost exclusively in British shipyards, and using as weapons of offense guns and torpedoes similar to those employed by the British fleets and squadrons. Admiral Togo's chief of staff, Captain Shimamura, like many of his colleagues, served in the British fleet, and he had the good fortune to be one of Rear-Admiral Percy Scott's pupils in gunnery. Years ago, when Japan was adopting Western methods, she was the pupil in naval matters of Admiral Sir Archibald Douglas, now commander-in-chief at Portsmouth, who was director of the Imperial Naval College at Yeddo, and had around him a devoted band of British naval officers and men. In later years,—in fact, almost down to the opening of the war with China,—Rear-Admiral John Ingles was lent by the admiralty to the Japanese Government as naval adviser. While the Japanese authorities were shaping their systems of training and administration on British models, orders were dispatched to British shipbuilding yards for men-of-war, and in every respect the young navy was given the hall-mark 'Made in Great Britain.' The triumph of the Mikado's fleet—small, but homogeneous—surely reflects some luster upon the British fleet."

Is a Russo-Japanese Alliance Possible?—In strong contrast to Mr. Hayakawa's suggestion of an alliance between Russia and Japan, which was discussed in the June issue of this REVIEW, Mr. Isobe's article, appearing in a recent number of the *Chokugen*, a Tokio weekly, is enthusiastic for the continuance of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. As for an alliance between the two nations now fighting in the far East, Mr. Isobe considers it absolutely impossible. Referring to the article in the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, immediately after the fall of Port Arthur, advocating the formation of a working alliance between Russia and Japan, Mr. Isobe says: "The present war, it must be confessed, has shown us that the Russian people are not without those generous sentiments which fit in well with Yamato-Damashii, a Japanese war correspondent [he refers here to Mr. Shiga, whose article, "One of the Secrets of Japanese Victories," is reviewed on another page of this magazine], who has gone so far as to intimate that a coalition of Russia and Japan would carry everything before it. Such a coalition, however, is absolutely impossible. All considerations,—political, social, scientific, literary, and spiritual,—are against it. We owe too much to the Anglo-Saxon race, represented by Eng-

land and America. It is the Anglo-Saxon type of civilization which we have assimilated. The Anglo-Japanese alliance was not the growth of a single night. It grew as natural as a tree. It is rooted deeply in the mutual affinity of the two nations. The alliance has been concluded in peace, and is not a mutual understanding arrived at after cutting each other's throat. To enter into an alliance with Russia at the expense of England's good-will would be to pass from a coalition of peace and fair play to a coalition of conquest and spoliation. It is directly against the self-imposed mission of Japan, which has been for peace in the far East."

Failure of Italian School Gymnastics.—It is twenty-six years since physical culture was made compulsory in the public schools of Italy, and 600,000 lire (\$120,000) is annually spent on it, but now there is talk of abolishing it. In the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), Saveria Santori discusses the reasons for the failure of the system to produce the desired results. One is the lack of proper athletic fields. Most schools have only roofed courts, and many not even these. This is so even at Turin, called the cradle of physical culture. In one school there, five classes use one gymnastic court two hours a week, or twenty-four minutes a week apiece. Many Roman schools have no gymnastics. The exercises and the courts lack attractiveness, and it is quite the rule for parents to get physicians' certificates to excuse their children from the classes. The gymnastic professors are often old, and inspire little confidence, and are so poorly paid that they must engage in other occupations. The writer favors abolishing the official gymnastics and facilitating participation in the various sporting societies for canoeing, cycling, swimming, fencing, etc., even granting subventions to the best athletic associations.

Artificial Silk Threatens Sericulture.—The threatened competition of artificial silk with the silk industry of Italy is discussed at length by Ernesto Mancini in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), and by D. Lampertico in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence). There are now eight or ten factories producing artificial silk from the cellulose of cotton, put through treatment by acids and alkalis, and spun through microscopic glass tubes. Various processes are used,—that of De Char-donnet at Besançon; that of Du Vivier, which adds gelatine to the cellulose, making a more resistant and less inflammable fiber; that of Lehner, in which the filaments are picked up by a revolving cylinder and mechanically twisted into threads and skeins; that of Cross and Bevan, which produces viscous silk, suitable for covering paper and fabrics, but not for spinning; and that which makes "vandura," whose threads are treated with gutta-percha and insoluble gelatine. The

product is sold at about three dollars a pound, and the present production is about ten thousand pounds a day. A Frankfort factory paid a dividend of 35 per cent. in 1904. Companies with a capital of two million francs are said to have earned a million and a half last year. Other companies are forming, and the prices are bound to fall. The artificial silk is chiefly used in passementerie, braids, trimmings, and fancy stuffs for cravats, hangings, and other uses not requiring the resistance of real silk, with which it is often mixed. It is used also in its filament state in wigs. In France, the silk-culturists are agitating for a law prohibiting the use of the word *soie* to designate the artificial product. The Agrarian Society of Lombardy resolved to ask the government to require that a particular distinguishing mark be placed on all stuffs or products containing artificial silk, and that the name of silk be denied it. Furthermore, the society asked for a law forbidding the sale as pure silk of those fabrics supercharged with dyestuffs or mineral matter. This "loading" of silks is little known among the uninitiated, but it appears from these articles that one pound of silk can and is made to weigh four or five pounds by the addition of various salts, gelatine, or sugar. Signor Mancini states that pure silk is now practically unknown on the market. The loaded silk cracks and breaks, and is in every way inferior in durability to pure silk. The menace of the artificial product and the adulteration in manufacture is stirring the sericulturists to better methods of raising and feeding the silkworms, and as care can do much in the many operations, the ancient Italian industry may hold its own against the new competition for a time.

Anti-Dueling Propaganda in Italy.—Anti-duelism is a reform movement in Europe similar to temperance or woman suffrage in the United States. A congress of the Anti-duelistic League of Austria was held late in March, and an address on the anti-duel movement in Italy, delivered there by Annibale Campani, is reproduced in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence). It was not until 1902 that the formation of the league against duels in Italy was agitated. Four hundred persons of note, including twenty-two retired admirals and generals, signed the proposal. The minister of war at that time would only say, "Perhaps, when the times have changed, the minister of war may also join an international league against duels." Thus, aid of active army officers could not be asked. Founded in 1908, the Italian league had considerable success, the Lombardy section numbering nine hundred members, but in 1904 interest fell off, and only since January, 1905, has there been renewed activity, with several new local leagues formed. Signor Campani says that two chief obstacles encountered in other countries, the pro-duelist opinion and the lack of courage to proclaim one's opposition to duels, are not the chief obstacles in Italy. The official *devise* of even those who fight duels is anti-duelistic. The pressure of public opinion for duels is weaker than in other countries. Outside the army and the clubs, if one refuse to fight and act sensibly about it he is let alone.

Formic Acid as a Stimulant and a Cure for Rheumatism.—In the pharmacopoeia of the seventeenth century the formula of a powerful stimulant was given called "The Water of Magnanimity; Hoffman's prescription—an external stomachic excitant and

diuretic cordial." The druggists of that day all sold it, and the formula was found in the medical dictionaries, and in the "Pharmacopie Universelle de Lemary" (1754). The whole subject is revived and treated in the light of modern science by an anonymous writer in the *Correspondant* (Paris). The formula given in the "Pharmacopie Universelle" is: "Take two handfuls of ants and one pint of spirits of wine, let the ants digest in the wine, shut in an air-tight bottle until natural putrefaction has dissolved the ants and incorporated them with the liquor. When the solution is perfect, distill the liquor in a water bath, and flavor (or perfume) the medicine with a little cinnamon." This is the "Water of Magnanimity" as prescribed by a prelate of the Latin Church of one of the great religious centers of the world in the seventeenth century. Dr. P. Guigues, professor of the French faculty of Baireuth, recently wrote from Saville that the same remedy is found in the official formulas of Germany and Switzerland. The medicinal properties of formic acid, he claims, were known long before the seventeenth century. He goes on to declare that the Russian peasants have a custom of preparing a medicine of uncooked ants in *vodka*. It is known, also, that the Mexicans use an infusion of ants in alcohol as an excitant. A number of French doctors who have studied the matter declare that this old remedy is of great value in many maladies, including rheumatism. Formic acid augments muscular strength and increases the power to resist fatigue. Its properties are greatly superior to cola, coca, and others. Dr. Clement, a French physician, experimented with this medicine, taking from eight to ten drops of formic acid a day, in water prepared to neutralize its acidity. Almost immediately after taking the medicine, he declares, "I feel the need of active exercise. I want to be doing something,—anything,—climb a mountain. This amount ought to be taken by people who are always tired." Under his direction, a young Frenchman tried his strength by scientific apparatus before and after taking the medicine. It was found that he was able to do five times as much muscular work afterward as before. The doses employed did not exceed forty drops of formic acid, neutralized by carbonate of soda, per day,—the dose being twenty drops taken in half a glass of water twice a day. Whatever bad effects this drug may have remain to be discovered.

A German View of British Colonial Governors.—In the German magazine *Velhagen*, Dr. Hans Plehu has an article on "three of the most important personages of political England,"—namely, Lord Cromer, Lord Milner, and Lord Curzon. The writer describes Egypt, South Africa, and India as the great center of Britain's imperial interests, for her economic and political position depends largely on them, and in all three her position either has been or seems to be more or less endangered by other powers. He notes that the British colonial governors have a much freer hand than the German colonial administrators. He refers to Mr. Chamberlain as the first English colonial secretary who was at the same time a great statesman, the distinguishing point of his administration being his choice of men to fill the most responsible posts. When he went to the colonial office he began a colonial policy in the imperial sense, and thus gave Cairo, Cape Town, and Calcutta a much greater significance, while the three men who have held office in these three possessions have embodied an important part of England's

imperial politics. Biographies of each of the three governors are added, the writer being careful to note that Lord Cromer and Lord Milner are both partly of German extraction.

Compulsory Insurance Against Illness.—An article on this subject, by a Dutch writer named Smis-saerl, appears in *Onze Eeuw* (Haarlem). The principle of such a law, as exemplified by the German method, is to give the employer power to deduct a certain weekly or monthly sum from the wages of his workers, add a percentage himself, and hand the combined sum over to those intrusted with the administration of the municipal or national fund; to this fund the state also contributes. One of the questions which is agitating the Dutch mind is: Shall the administrative council consist of workmen, or employers, or both? There is, of course, the further suggestion that it should be controlled by state or municipal officials. There are advantages and disadvantages in all these methods, but it would appear to the onlooker that the fairest way would be to have a combination of workmen, employers, and state officials.

International Labor Legislation.—In the *Correspondant* there is appearing a series of studies by Léon Poliér on the question of the international protection of labor down to the Berne conference. The writer thinks the idea of international protection of workers in a fair way to be realized. Last year France and Italy signed the first labor treaty, and the recent Berne conference of delegates from the leading nations with a view to make more uniform all national labor legislation is another step in the right direction. The writer endeavors to show what has already been done, what is going to be done, and what may be expected in the future from such a movement. Logically, the first appeal in favor of an international agreement for the protection of labor ought, he says, to have come from England, for it was here that the first factory legislation was organized. The first to move in the matter, however, was a French workman, Daniel Legrand, who in 1841 pleaded for an international conference. His request was unheeded, and in 1857 he appealed to the cabinets of Berlin, Vienna, St. Petersburg, Paris, and Turin. Meanwhile, others had taken up the question. In 1855, two Swiss cantons, Glaris and Zurich, saw the necessity of a uniform system of factory legislation in the chief industrial states of Europe. For a time, however, they would be satisfied with intercantonal legislation in Switzerland alone. Modest as this proposal seems, it took over twenty years to put it into execution, and it was not till 1878 that a federal regulation of factories was established. Nevertheless, the idea continued to grow, Switzerland still playing a leading part. In 1890, the date of an international conference to be held at Berne was fixed, when suddenly the German Emperor issued his famous manifestoes, making his own the Swiss proposal, and inviting Switzerland to take part in a conference, after having received from her an invitation in the same sense previously. The Berlin conference had a tremendous programme, and as a practical result various reforms were

described as "desirable." Later, congresses were held at Zurich and Brussels in 1897, and at Paris in 1900, and an International Association for the Legal Protection of Labor, as well as an International Bureau at Bâle, were finally founded. The association, adds the writer, is due to private initiative.

As to Spinal Meningitis.—Cerebro-spinal meningitis is not a new disease. It has been known in France for two centuries. In 1838, it appeared in the garrison at Bayonne, France, where it raged for three years, having been due to the cold, damp weather and close crowding in the barracks. From this garrison it spread to a number of military posts in the south of France, until it became almost a plague. There was no question as to its character. It was a contagious disease, carried by the troops whenever they changed garrison, and spread by them among the people of the towns near their barracks. The disease to-day has lost none of its virulence. It is what it was two centuries ago. Its evolutions cover two periods, which are thus described by a medical writer in the *Annales*, of Paris, who does not sign his name: First, the period of intense fever, muscular contractions, and violent pains in the head; second, the period of depression, stupor, paralysis, insensibility, and coma. Death generally comes at the end of an attack varying in length from four to eight days. In some cases the victim dies after a struggle of a few hours. Light attacks can be cured rapidly. There has never been any complete agreement as to the cause of this sickness, although it is known that there is some connection between it and "the grip," as well as with the microbe of pneumonia. According to Professor Weischsebaum, it has a special microbe, but the microbe organism is so difficult of culture that its existence seems illusory. The treatment recommended by Dr. Dienlofoy is similar to that recommended for "the grip." He advises hot baths and antispasmodics. It would seem probable that the germs of the disease enter through the nostrils. During a mild epidemic of meningitis in the garrison of Angoulême, Dr. Mandoul found the microbe in the nasal tubes of twelve out of fifteen men who had escaped the disease.

The Unemployed Problem in England.—Mr. Isaac H. Mitchell maintains, in the *Nineteenth Century*, that the trade-unions do more for the out-of-works than the government bill proposes to accomplish. He suggests that "it would surely be cheaper and better for public authorities to spend money for extra labor cost in winter than to spend large sums on extra poor-law costs, or even on farm-colony work. Notwithstanding regulation, notwithstanding an intelligent anticipation of bad times and the pushing forward of public works, it is conceivable that still there would be those wanting work who could not obtain it. To supply this need, the government bill might be useful, but without the better regulation of present employment, which would aim at making the hours of labor, and not the number employed, the elastic part of our productive system, the government unemployed workmen bill will be as disappointing in its results as its machinery is likely to prove dangerous in its operation."



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN AND FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

TO an American scholar and diplomat, Dr. David Jayne Hill, who is now our minister at The Hague, the world is indebted for the first general history of European diplomacy in any language. Dr. Hill's elaborate work,—"A History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe" (Longmans),—will be completed in six volumes, only the first of which, dealing with "The Struggle for Universal Empire," has appeared at this writing. The plan of the work includes a full discussion of the motives inspiring diplomacy in their bearing on the origin and development of an international system. The author has pushed his investigations far back of the Peace of Westphalia, which is commonly taken as the starting-point of European diplomacy. The conflicting ambitions of the Holy Roman Empire and the Papacy must first be studied in detail, and his first volume, complete in itself for the period which it covers, is largely devoted to an exposition of those ambitions. The following volume, on "The Establishment of Territorial Sovereignty," will further trace the development of modern states. Future volumes, it is announced, will consider the diplomacy of the age of absolutism, of the revolutionary era, of the constitutional movement, and of commercial imperialism, thus bringing the history of international development down to the present time.

"Ireland's Story," by Charles Johnston and Carita Spencer (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is such a book as has long been needed in American schools, to do for Irish history something like what is done for England by historians like John Richard Green. In the case of Ireland, any history must perforce be a history of the Irish people, and in no modern land have the records of the ancient folk-life been more jealously cherished. The authors of the present volume have had in mind, however, the future as well as the past of the Irish race. Among the most interesting chapters of the book are those which define the contributions that the race has made and is making to modern world-progress,— "The Irish on the Continent," "The Irish in America," "The Irish in the British Empire," and "The Irish Literary Revival." All in all, this volume gives an excellent epitome of Irish history.

BOOKS ON JAPAN AND THE JAPANESE.

Bushido, the Japanese conception of chivalry, is unwritten, but, like the English conception, out of it has grown the nation of to-day. A delightfully written exposition of Japanese philosophic and social thought, under the title "Bushido, the Soul of Japan," has been written by Dr. Inazo Nitobe, professor in the Imperial University of Kioto. The tenth and enlarged edition of this work, with an introduction by William Elliot Griffis, has just been issued by the Putnams. *Bushido* is the sum of the maxims of educational training brought to bear on the warrior class of Japan, the Samurai,—a class which throughout the long feudal age of Japan set the standard of the whole people in

manners, character, and mental and moral codes of obligation.

This code of *bushido* has so formed and molded the Japanese national character that Christian missions find excellent soil for the inculcation of the doctrines of Christ. The progress made by Christian proselyting and general influence in Japan is traced by Ernest Wilson Clement (author of "A Handbook of Modern Japan") in a new volume issued by the American Bap-



MR. ERNEST WILSON CLEMENT.

tist Publication Society and entitled "Christianity in Modern Japan." This is not a detailed study, but a general outline, with references to books where more complete information can be obtained. The volume is well illustrated, and is provided with an excellent mission map. Mr. Clement, it will be remembered, is the principal of the Duncan Baptist Academy, in Tokio.

The Japan of the future as indicated by young Japan of to-day is the subject of a volume by Dr. James A. B. Scherer, entitled "Young Japan" (Lippincott). Dr. Scherer writes not a history of Japan so much as a history of the Japanese people, their institutions and their life, economically and industrially. The volume is profusely illustrated from photographs and pictures by native artists.

A little manual which may prove useful to travelers in Japan has been issued by William R. Jenkins,— "Japanese for Daily Use." This is a rendering of useful English phrases into Japanese, with some vocabulary, and has been prepared by E. P. Prentys, assisted by Kamentara Sasamoto.



MRS. EDITH WHARTON.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

A manual for travelers, which treats only of the traveling and scarcely any of the sightseeing, is "The Traveler's Handbook for Transatlantic Tourists" (Funk & Wagnalls). The compiler, —Josephine Tozier, author of "Many English Inns,"—has planned to help those intending to visit Europe for the first time. She has made, not a guide-book, but has collected in one compact and convenient volume many hints and suggestions as to the preliminaries for crossing the Atlantic comfortably, and as to a comprehension of the conditions of transportation in Europe.

A very convenient little book of description is Prof. J. A. Mets' "The Holland of To-Day," published by Honeyman & Co. (Plainfield, N. J.). One gets an excellent idea of the modern Dutch people and their customs from this little manual, which is arranged in convenient, accessible form.

Another book on Paris by F. Berkeley Smith comes from the press of Funk & Wagnalls, entitled "Parisians Out-of-Doors." This completes Mr. Smith's trilogy of books on Parisian life. The two preceding volumes have been entitled "The Real Latin Quarter" and "How Paris Amuses Itself." Mr. Smith knows perfectly well how to write good, interesting description, and what more interesting people can you find than the modern Parisian? This volume is handsomely bound, and illustrated in color, with a frontispiece by F. Hopkinson Smith.

Mrs. Edith Wharton's "Italian Backgrounds," with illustrations by E. C. Peixotto, is published by the

Scribners. An intimate acquaintance with Italian art and nature, an insight into southern life, and an exquisite literary style,—all of which belong to this writer,—are necessary for such a study. The artist has well supplemented the text.

"The Bontoc Igorot" is the title of an illustrated monograph by Albert Ernest Jenks in the Ethnological Survey publications of the Philippine government. The natives described in this study, it should be explained, are regarded as typical of the primitive mountain farmers of northern Luzon. The writer lived for five months in Bontoc pueblo, gathering data for the present work. His impressions of the Bontoc Igorot were favorable. He found him endowed with a fine physique, with no destructive vices; courageous, industrious, mentally alert, and willing to learn. Mr. Jenks declares that his institutions are not radically opposed to our own.

SOME BOOKS ON ART AND LITERATURE.

"The Life and Letters of J. H. Shorthouse" (Macmillan), edited by his wife, have just appeared in two volumes. The literary remains of the author of "John Inglesant" cannot fail to be interesting to Americans as well as to Englishmen. Mr. Shorthouse's peculiar claim to appreciation in this country lies, perhaps, in the fact that, while actively engaged in business, and with no great preliminary advantages, handicapped by delicate health, he still found time and energy to acquire a high culture and the wide and deep study necessary for successful writing.

The Paris house of Armand Colin is issuing a finely illustrated and printed "History of Art," which is being imported in parts, as they are issued, by G. E. Stechert. This illustrated history is from the earliest Christian times to our own day. The entire work will be issued in eight parts, of which four have already appeared.

It would seem as though the series of books on different phases of the beautiful by Miss Lilian Whiting were unlimited. Her latest is entitled "The Outlook Beautiful" (Little, Brown). In this volume, Miss Whiting again emphasizes her Emersonian attitude toward life, and, indeed, her philosophy and style are very stimulating and suggestive.

In his study of "The Development of the English Novel" (Macmillan), Prof. Wilbur L. Cross (Yale) aims to trace "in outline the course of English fiction from Arthurian romance to Stevenson, and to indicate,—especially in the earlier chapters,—Continental sources and tributaries." Professor Cross has done a thorough and useful work.

A book with a larger scope, but necessarily more rapid in its treatment, is "A First View of English Literature" (Scribners), by William Vaughn Moody and Robert Morss Lovett. This is an illustrated condensation of the more advanced "History of English Literature," by the same authors. There is much valuable geographical, descriptive, and annotative matter.

A careful and closely woven study of "The Psychology of Beauty" (Houghton, Mifflin) has been written by Ethel D. Puffer. The whole field of beauty is brought under discussion. The author has intended to present a "synthesis of the intellectual tendencies of the time, in which the results of modern psychology shall help to make intelligible a philosophical theory of beauty."

An essay on the art of ancient Greece, entitled "A Grammar of Greek Art" (Macmillan), has been prepared by Dr. Percy Gardner, professor of classical

archæology at Oxford. Dr. Gardner has attempted to describe and correlate the later and more important results of investigation and discovery in the field of classical antiquarian research.

The latest book of Wagneriana is called "Richard Wagner to Mathilde Wesendonck." This consists of the correspondence between the composer and Frau Wesendonck from 1858 to 1865. The volume, which has been translated, edited, and prefaced by William Ashton Ellis, is published in London and imported by the Scribners. Most of the letters are of considerable interest to music and art lovers.



MATHILDE WESENDONCK.

Dr. A. C. Bradley's lectures on the tragedies of Shakespeare have been revised and published in book form in a second edition by the Macmillans. Dr. Bradley, who is professor of poetry at Oxford, covers the entire significance of thought and form in the great tragedies of "Hamlet," "Othello," "King Lear," and "Macbeth." The title of the volume is "Shakespearean Tragedy."

We are in receipt of the following books of verse: "Fenris, the Wolf," a tragedy, by Percy Mackaye (Macmillan); "The Iberian," an Anglo-Greek play, by Osborn R. Lamb and H. Claiborne Dixon (New York: Ames & Rollinson); "In Response," by William E. Raymond, published by the author; "The Rubáiyát of the Twentieth Century and the Song of the Stars," a poem, by "Calchas" (Bridgeport, Conn.: Dewar); and "Legends and Tales in Prose and Verse," compiled by Isabel E. Cohen (The Jewish Publication Society).

The English house of Duckworth is issuing a series of small, handsomely illustrated and printed volumes, with the general title, "The Popular Library of Art."

These works are being imported by the Duttons, and the latest issue to reach this country is the one on "Velasquez," which has been translated from the French of Auguste Bréal by Mme. Simon Bussy. The volume on "Rembrandt" is also a translation from Bréal.

Marshall P. Wilder has brought out another book. This time it is called "The Sunny Side of the Street," and consists of a series of anecdotes and observations on the humorous side of life, some intimate bits of personalia about well-known men, and some witty chat about things in general. The volume is illustrated.

A selection of keen, brilliant epigrams of Oscar Wilde has been published in attractive typographical form by John Luce, of Boston, under the title "Epigrams and Aphorisms." There is an introduction by George Henry Sargent.

A series of bright epigrams and sayings, by Helena Woljeska, has been issued by the Life Publishing Company, under the title "A Woman's Confessional." The epigrams are extracts from a woman's journal, and reveal her intimate thoughts,—some bitter and sad, some cheerful and loving, most of them bright and incisive.

The latest issue of the series of Modern Messages being published by Jennings & Graham is a second edition of Charles Stuart Given's bright little book, "The Fleece of Gold."

A delicious study of child and nature writing is "The Well in the Wood" (Bobbs-Merrill), by Leston Taylor. It is full of quaint philosophy, and there are some excellent illustrations in color by F. Y. Cory.

"A Reading Journey Through Chautauqua" is an imaginary tour, concretely illustrated by photographs giving a history of the "Chautauqua System of Popular Education." Bishop John H. Vincent contributes an introduction and a brief statement of the Chautauqua idea. The evolution of Chautauqua during the last thirty years from a two weeks' summer camp to an all-the-year-round institution is a remarkable phenomenon, peculiarly American. "Chautauqua" is seen to be an institutional town, a vacation school for the whole family, an idea experiment station, a clearing house for social and educational forces, a pioneer summer school, a unique summer community, the mother of study clubs, a feeder of colleges, a real *alma mater* to hundreds of thousands of out-of-school people. This reading journey combines the qualities of history, story, guide, and souvenir. The author, Frank Chapin Bray, is the editor of the *Chautauquan* magazine.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

One of the most useful and comprehensive dictionaries of the French and English languages is the one issued by Hinds, Noble & Eldredge in their series of uniform international dictionaries, edited by Robert Morris Pierce. This French-English, English-French volume has been issued under the editorial supervision of M. Paul Passy (of the University of Paris) for French pronunciation, and of Prof. George Hemple (University of Chicago) for English pronunciation. The typography is very clear and pleasant to read, and the renderings, though brief, appear to be adequate and accurate.

We have received the first six numbers of a popular encyclopædia being issued in parts by Salvat & Co., Barcelona, Spain. This is an illustrated work, devoted principally to a record of inventions and general knowledge, and is one of the most ambitious things recently issued in the Spanish language.

William R. Jenkins has issued another French grammar in the Bercy Series. It is entitled "Simple Grammaire Française," by Paul Bercy and M. Georges Castegnier.

EDITED AND ANNOTATED STANDARD TEXTS IN ENGLISH AND OTHER LANGUAGES.

Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. have issued, in their Temple School Shakespeare Series, "The Merchant of Venice," with notes by R. McWilliam and illustrations by Dora Curtis, and, in the First Folio Shakespeare set, Messrs. T. Y. Crowell & Co. have just brought out "Hamlet." In the Pocket American and English Classics now being issued in handy form by the Macmillans we have Hawthorne's "House of Seven Gables," with introduction and notes by Clyde Furst (Columbia). A number of handy texts of French, German, and Spanish classics come to us from Henry Holt and D. C. Heath. These are all edited with noted and supplementary matter. The French texts are: "Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon," a comedy in four acts, by Eugène Labiche and Edward Martin (Holt); "Selections from Zola," edited by Dr. A. Guyot Cameron, of Princeton (Holt); and Chateaubriand's "Atala," edited by Prof. Oscar Kuhns, of Wesleyan University (Heath). From Holt we have the German "Deutsche Bildungszustände in der zweiten Hälfte des achtzehnten Jahrhunderts," by Dr. Karl Biedermann, edited by Mr. John A. Walz, of Harvard, and Sealsfield's "Die Prärie am Jacinto," edited by Prof. A. B. Nichols, of Simmons College. Heath issues the Spanish text, which is "Victoria y Otros Cuentos," by Julia de Asensi, edited by Edwin S. Ingraham, of Ohio State University.

"Southern Writers," a book of selections in prose and verse, edited by Prof. W. P. Trent (Macmillan), was designed primarily for use in school and college classes in the South. Yet it was as far as possible from the editor's intention to compile a book that should be regarded as a sectional product, in the unpleasant sense of the term. It is natural and reasonable that Southern students should desire to study the writers of their own region in somewhat more detail than is possible when only general text-books on American literature are employed. This book provides supplementary reading of this character, and affords Southern boys and girls an opportunity to become familiar, to a degree, with some of the masterpieces of Southern writers.

RELIGIOUS TREATISES.

Among the volumes on religious subjects of more or less note issued during the past few weeks are: "The Bible Allegories: An Interpretation," by George Millen Jarvis (published by the author); "The Eternal Life," by Hugo Munsterberg, an essay on the relation of modern science to a belief in immortality, reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly* (Houghton, Mifflin); "Young People and World Evangelization," by John Franklin Goucher (Jennings & Graham); "Renaissance of Methodism," by J. W. Mahood (Jennings & Graham); a new text, with notes, of the Gospel of Mark in the original Greek, edited by William Prentiss Drew, of the Greek chair in Willamette University

(Sanborn, of Boston); "Family Prayers," by Lyman P. Powell, with an introduction by Bishop Whitaker (Jacobs); "Paths to Power" (Revell), the first published addresses of Rev. Frank W. Gunsatulus; and two pamphlets issued by the American Baptist Publication Society,— "An American Commentary on the Old Testament (the Proverbs and the Song of Songs), by Profs. G. R. Berry and G. E. Merrill, and a little sermon, entitled "The Child and God," by M. T. Lamb.

DISCUSSIONS IN PHILOSOPHY.

Prof. James H. Hyslop (formerly of the chair of logic and ethics at Columbia University), in his volume "Science and a Future Life" (Herbert B. Turner), discusses the problem of life after bodily death from data accumulated by the Society of Psychical Research. Dr. Hyslop makes no argument for or against the existence of a future life. He considers the evidence scientifically, basing his argument upon experiments conducted by Sir Oliver Lodge, the late Prof. Henry Sidgwick, Professor James, of Harvard, the late Mr. Frederick Myers, and a number of others, including some valuable experimental work of his own. The celebrated



DR. JAMES H. HYSLOP.

Mrs. Piper case is given an entire chapter.

"The Ethics of Force" is the title of a book by H. E. Warner, issued by Ginn & Co. for the International Union. It is made up of a series of papers originally read before the Ethical Club, of Washington.

Wilhelm Bölsche's "Evolution of Man" has been translated from the German and edited by Ernest Untermann, and published by Charles H. Kerr. It is a useful summary of the evolutionary doctrine and writings of a generation of scientists following Darwin.

MEDICAL SCIENCE.

The terrific ravages of plague in India, where thirty or forty thousand victims a week have been carried off during the epidemic season, ought to arouse the English public to the necessity of preventive work, but before any adequate measures for prevention and suppression of plague can be devised there must be a more scientific study of the history and therapeutic aspects of the disease. This obvious need is partially met by Prof. W. J. Simpson's "Treatise on Plague" (Macmillan), a work of four hundred and fifty pages, elaborately illustrated with maps, charts, and diagrams, in which are presented the results of the latest studies of the disease made by competent specialists throughout the world. Dr. Simpson speaks appreciatively of the Clayton gas process of disinfection in India. A valuable appendix to the volume contains an English translation of the International Sanitary Convention of Paris, of 1903.



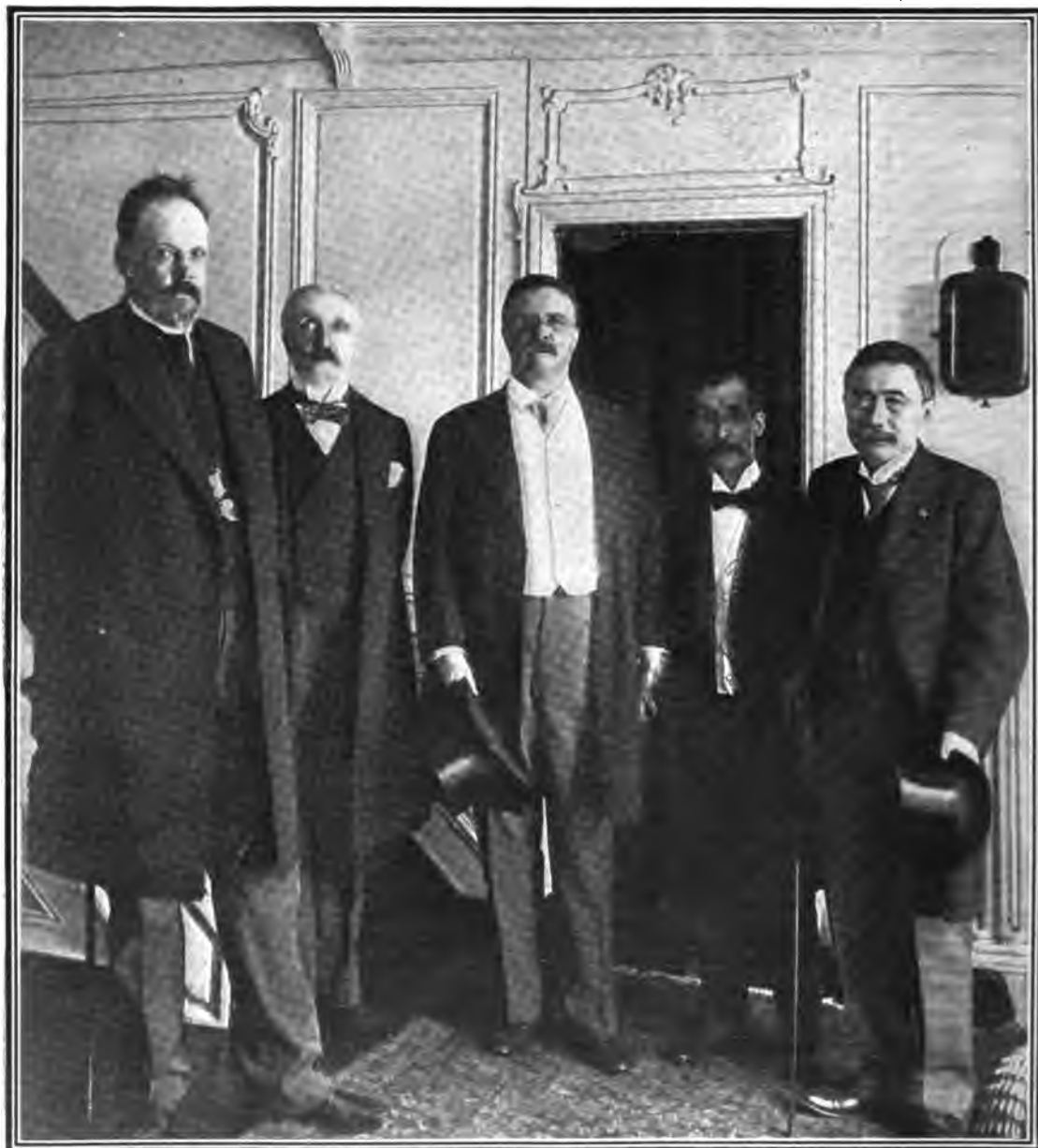
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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Count Witte.

Baron Rosen.

The President.

Baron Komura.

Minister Takahira.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND THE PEACE ENVOYS OF RUSSIA AND JAPAN.

(From a photograph taken on board the *Mayflower*.)

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No. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The President's Superb Statesman-ship. The conference at Portsmouth between the plenipotentiaries of Russia and Japan has been a great and fruitful event in the interest of the world's peace. We citizens of the United States of America have just cause to congratulate ourselves upon the fact that America stands, above all things, for peace and justice throughout the world. The American President, who is the type of twentieth-century American citizenship, has again shown how an earnest, peaceful nation can brush aside the traditions of a worn-out diplomacy when a great issue is at stake. In the most irregular of ways, and in defiance of all the rules of the diplomatic game as played for centuries, President Roosevelt, with the approval and God-speed of the civilized world, it can be confidently asserted, has had the courage to take a hand in the proceedings at Portsmouth. What no European sovereign would have dared to do,—what none of them could have done without giving serious offense,—Mr. Roosevelt did in summoning from the council-table where the envoys were in deadlock one of the plenipotentiaries of Russia to offer his friendly counsels of peace and urge upon him the claims of a neutral civilized world.

The Mouthpiece of the Neutral World. While Baron Rosen was at Sagamore Hill,—even before his arrival,—Baron Kaneko, who is generally recognized as the confidential agent of the Mikado in this country, had had several long conferences with the President. Why did Mr. Roosevelt confer with Baron Kaneko? Why did he summon Baron Rosen? Before the arrival of the envoys themselves, negotiations between Russia and Japan had been held through the medium of Washington. After the deliberations began at Portsmouth, St. Petersburg and Tokio had talked directly with Witte and Komura. It is evident that the President did not speak for Russia or Japan, and he is too mind-

ful of the gravity of the situation to resort to this method of communicating to the envoys any information or sentiments which could be conveyed to them at Portsmouth. Mr. Roosevelt, we are forced to believe, has acted as the mouth-piece of the neutral world. He has again been the spokesman of its powerful peace interests. It is known that King Edward of England, the ally of Japan; President Loubet of France, the ally of Russia, and Emperor William of Germany, all of these representing the great powers of the world most vitally interested in the conclusion of peace, have been working hard and in harmony with the American President toward that end. It was the American chief magistrate who—at the suggestion and with the approval, it is generally believed, of Europe—invited Japan and Russia to confer at Portsmouth. What more appropriate than that this same American President, with his powerful personality and the tremendous energy and infinite resources of his vigorous mind, should again speak for the outside world when the principals in the great diplomatic duel had exhausted their resources?

Did He Suggest Arbitration? Did the President suggest to Baron Rosen arbitration of the disputed points? Did Baron Kaneko give

any assurances that certain concessions would be made by Japan if certain other concessions were made by Russia? As this issue of the Review went to press the day before the resumption of the deliberations at Portsmouth the world was convinced that the President had made some helpful suggestion, with powerful influences behind it, to the Russian ambassador, and that, however long drawn out, the peace negotiations could not possibly result in ultimate failure. True, it had been generally expected that the Czar, relying on the effect at home of his grant of a national assembly and of the promises and hopeful views of his generals in the far East, might remain obdurate in his refusal to



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Plancon.

Nabokov.

Witte.

Rosen.

Korostovitz.
Adachi.

Atchial.

Komura. Sato. Takahira.

THE PEACE CONFERENCE IN SESSION.

pay any indemnity or agree to the cession of Saghalien. It had also seemed as though the Mikado would not abate his peace demands, which were generally regarded as not excessive by the rest of the world, and in the insistence of which he has the united support of his own people. The friends of Russia, however, had been urging that a continuation of the war would probably result in further Russian losses; that it was only just and according to custom to pay Japan for her war expenses; that indemnity is not always a punishment for national territory held by the enemy, but a purchase of immunity from future losses; and that not only should Japan have Saghalien on the basis of *uti possedetis*, but because the island is historically Japanese and could be relinquished by Russia without "losing face." Friends of Japan had been admonishing her that the world, whose good opinion Japan values so highly, looks to her for moderation; that an indemnity may be called by several other names, and might take the form of payment for the evacuation of Saghalien, for the relinquishing of claims on the interned ships, for the maintenance of Russian prisoners during the war, or it might assume the shape of the earnings of the Manchurian railway; that Russia's naval power in the far East is already so humbled that to exact promises for its future limitation would be an unnecessary humiliation; and, finally, since

peace is of vast moment to the island empire, and since friendly relations with her present antagonist, who must remain her neighbor in Asia, are impossible if her beaten foe is unnecessarily humiliated and prostrated, Japan ought, in in her own interest, to make all reasonable concessions to bring an end to hostilities.

A Fruitful Historic Conference.

The fact that the envoys actually came together and discussed peace has been of great importance, and much has been accomplished by their deliberations. They have agreed without demur upon the integrity of China, the great principle for which the late John Hay, with the American people behind him, contended. Moreover, the visit of the plenipotentiaries has increased and solidified the regard of this country for both great contending nations. Particularly pleasing and strong has been the impression made upon the American people by the fine, sympathetic, and noble personality of the Czar's chief envoy, Count Witte. A character sketch, which is really an appreciation, of this towering personality, by Dr. E. J. Dillon, the English review writer and correspondent, who is now at Portsmouth, appears on page 292 of this issue of the REVIEW. The proceedings of the conference itself in the week ending August 19 were tremendously interesting and impressive.



Photograph by Brown Brothers, N. Y.

Rosen. Witte. Governor McLean. Komura. Takahira.

THE PEACE ENVOYS AND THEIR SUITES, AND GOVERNOR M'LANE, OF NEW HAMPSHIRE, AND HIS STAFF, IN THE COURT-HOUSE, PORTSMOUTH.

*The Journey
to
Portsmouth.*

As soon as possible after the arrival of Mr. Witte, the senior Russian envoy, in this country (August 2), both Russian commissioners were presented to the President, and then was begun a series of receptions and ceremonies by the United States Government and the American people to the distinguished foreigners who had come to deliberate over the terms of peace in the small historic town of Portsmouth, N. H. The general reception was largely a naval affair, and was made an imposing spectacle. There were many nice points of international etiquette and precedence which might have caused much embarrassment had they not been disposed of by the hearty informality of President Roosevelt. The courtesies extended to all four distinguished visitors and their suites were as nearly as possible identical, the principle of precedence being brushed aside by the common-sense American idea of "first come, first served." The Japanese envoys had lunched with the President soon after their arrival, and, one week later, the Russians were entertained at Oyster Bay. On Saturday (August 5), the formal meeting of the envoys took place on the President's yacht, the *Mayflower*, to which the Japanese delegation was brought in the cruiser *Tacoma*, and the Russian delegation in her sister ship, the *Chattanooga*, each flag being saluted with nineteen guns. After the formal introductions and other ceremonies demanded by the strict etiquette of the occasion, an informal luncheon was served on the *Mayflower* by Chinese waiters (the Japanese attendants having been superseded for the occasion), during which the President offered the only toast. Requesting that there be no response, Mr. Roosevelt said :

Gentlemen, I propose a toast to which there will be no answer and which I ask you to drink in silence, standing. I drink to the welfare and prosperity of the sovereigns and the peoples of the two great nations whose representatives have met one another on this ship. It is my most earnest hope and prayer, in the interest, not only of these two great powers, but of all civilized mankind, that a just and lasting peace may speedily be concluded between them.

After the reception, the President left the *Mayflower*, and, with the Russians in this vessel and the Japanese in the *Dolphin*, the *entourage* proceeded to Portsmouth under the escort of the cruiser *Galveston*, reaching the appointed place of meeting on August 8. Mr. Witte, being a poor sailor, landed at Newport and went by rail to Boston, and from there to Portsmouth.

*The
Conference
and the Press.*

The sessions of the commission were held in the government naval building on the island in the mouth of the Piscataqua River. The commissioners and their

suites, as well as most of the other distinguished visitors, including newspaper representatives from most of the great journals of the world, lived at Newcastle, N. H., and were taken to the daily sessions either by automobile over the bridge to the island or by steam launch. Admiral Meade, commandant of the navy yard, acted as naval host for the United States, with the assistance of Third Assistant Secretary of State Herbert Peirce, who represented the United States Government. A number of the most eminent legal minds accompanied the commissioners on both sides, but at the sessions only the chief envoys, Mr. Witte and Baron Rosen, for Russia, with their secretaries, Mr. Korostovitz, Mr. Plancon, and Mr. Nabokov, and Baron Komura and Mr. Takahira, for Japan, with their secretaries, Mr. Sato, Mr. Adachi, and Mr. Atchiai. Besides the newspaper representatives from the United States, there were present at the conferences the following distinguished journalists from abroad : For the London *Times*, Dr. George Ernest Morrison, its Peking correspondent ; Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace, and Mr. George W. Smalley, who represents the "Thunderer" in New York ; Dr. E. J. Dillon, St. Petersburg correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph*, a number of whose remarkable articles on Russian conditions have appeared in this REVIEW, and who contributes to this number a sketch of Count Witte ; Mr. Alexandre Brianchaninov, representing the *Slovo*, of St. Petersburg ; Mr. Boris Suvorin, representing the *Novoye Vremya*, also of the Russian capital ; Mr. Salvatore Cortesi, representing the Associated Press of Rome ; Mr. Y. Ishikawa, of the *Hochi Shimbun*, at Tokio, and representatives of other Japanese dailies, including Mr. Jihei Hashiguchi, representing the Russo-Japanese war bureau of information, and Yone Noguchi, the poet, besides, also, staff correspondents of the *Matin* and *Figaro*, of Paris, and the *Lokal Anzeiger*, of Berlin.

*How Were
Japan's Terms
Learned ?*

Absolute secrecy as to the deliberations was maintained, each of the envoys having given his word of honor not to divulge the proceedings. The only official information which reached the public came through periodical brief statements made alternately by Mr. Sato and Mr. Korostovitz to the newspaper men setting forth, not the subjects of discussion, but the numbers of the articles which had been considered. The Russians were more communicative than the Japanese, and, according to report, Mr. Witte announced more than once that he would be glad to take the newspapers into his confidence if Baron Komura would agree. The Japanese envoys, however,

steadily maintained that the agreement upon secrecy was binding, and that it had been made at the initiative of the Russians. Mr. Sato and Mr. Brianchaninov were very chatty to the newspaper men. While no official sanction was given to their remarks, and while each was careful to maintain that he spoke from a purely personal

was concerned, been a discussion of the Roman numerals. From a fairly accurate knowledge of the demands recognized before the war by the Japanese people as likely to be made at the conference at Portsmouth, and from information gathered at the sessions by the correspondents, the following are, in substance, the twelve articles or principles presented by Baron Komura to the Russian envoys as Japan's irreducible minimum terms of peace:

I.—Recognition by Russia of the preponderating influence of Japan in Korea.

II.—Simultaneous evacuation of Manchuria by the Russian and Japanese military forces.

III.—Transfer absolutely to Japan of the Russian leaseholds in the Liao-tung peninsula, including Port Arthur and Dalny.

IV.—The return to China of the entire civil administration of Manchuria, in accordance with Russia's treaty with China (April, 1902).

V.—Cession by Russia to Japan of the island of Saghalien.

VI.—Transfer to Japan of all public property, docks, magazines, and military warehouses in Port Arthur and Dalny without compensation, Japan agreeing to respect all rights in private property.

VII.—Transfer to Japan of the Manchurian Railroad between Port Arthur and Dalny and Harbin.



MR. HERBERT H. D. PEIRCE.

(Assistant Secretary of State, who has been representing President Roosevelt at Portsmouth.)

standpoint, the frequent questions and suggestions advanced by the Russian journalist, with the Japanese secretary's answers, were interpreted by the world as *ballons d'essai* sent out by the Russians, while Mr. Sato's replies were looked upon as conveying the substance of the official Japanese view. In this way it was possible to come at a very definite, although unofficial, idea of the terms actually offered by Japan's envoys. The list of the twelve propositions which follows in the next paragraph has not been contradicted by the Japanese.

*Japan's
Terms of
Peace.*

By the time this number of the REVIEW reaches its readers the world will, in all probability, know what were the exact conditions upon which Japan was willing to make peace. Up to August 20, the bonds of secrecy agreed upon between the envoys of the two countries as to the exact nature of Japan's demands had not been loosed. The deliberations had, so far as the outside world



MR. A. IMARA SATO.

(First Secretary of the Japanese Peace Commission.)

VIII.—Retention by Russia of the main Manchurian line to Vladivostok.

IX.—Reimbursement [originally called indemnity] by Russia to Japan for the expenses of the latter for the war to date.

X.—Transfer by Russia to Japan of all Russian warships now interned in Pacific ports.

XI.—Limitation of Russian naval strength in Pacific waters.

XII.—Cession by Russia to Japan of fishing rights on the Siberian coast.

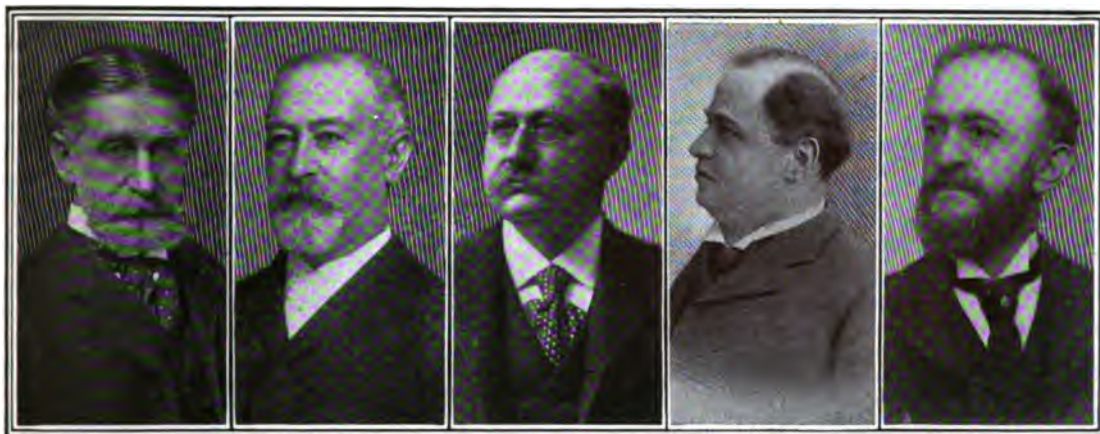
The Agreement and the Break. On Wednesday morning, August 9, at 10 o'clock, the first session of the conference was held in the naval building, at which details of procedure were arranged. It was decided to use both the French and English languages,—the treaty, however, if one were made, to be written in French. The celerity with which the proceedings were conducted was a tribute to the sincerity and progressiveness of both commissions. At the first meeting the credentials were exchanged and found satisfactory. Under pledge of secrecy, the twelve articles of Japanese peace terms were then presented. Baron Komura, the senior Japanese plenipotentiary, desired to have these proposals taken up one by one for discussion. Mr. Witte, however, objected to this, and Baron Komura yielded, handing the Russian envoy the entire list. On Saturday, August 12, the Russians replied, agreeing, it is generally understood, to a majority of the proposals, but declining to consider those which required cession of territory or the payment of money. Baron Komura repeated his request that the Japanese terms be taken up one by one. The Russians courteously agreed, and thus time was gained by which public opinion in this country and, it may be, diplomatic (and perhaps financial) pressure from Great Britain, France, and Germany could be exerted to influence both sides to agree.

Russia Refuses Land or Money. After six days of debate, eight articles of the twelve had been agreed to, and on the other four the envoys had agreed to disagree. Articles I., II., III., and IV., dealing with the future status of Korea, Manchuria, and the Liao-tung peninsula, were passed within forty-eight hours. Each article was drawn up in the form of a protocol and signed by each of the four envoys. Article V., it is generally believed, dealt with the cession of Saghalien, and this was the first point of divergence. Instead of declaring the negotiations fruitless, the envoys very wisely, and with commendable business-like methods, decided to agree upon as much as they could agree, so that these points might become bases for further negotiation. Later, articles VI., VII., VIII., and XII., as pre-

sented by Japan, were acceded to by Russia, making eight in all on which the Czar's representatives had yielded. Upon the four points of the cession of Saghalien, the payment of an indemnity, the transfer of the interned warships, and the limitation of Russia's future naval strength in the Pacific Mr. Witte positively refused to yield. Baron Komura was equally firm, and, on Friday, August 18, the conference adjourned until the following Tuesday. In the meanwhile there was a great deal of cabling to Tokio and St. Petersburg to learn the imperial wills of Czar and Mikado.

President Roosevelt Takes a Hand. From the newspaper comment in both Japan and Russia and the un- official opinions of the staffs of both peace commissions, as well as from the uncompromising attitude of the chief envoys and their home governments, the situation, up to Saturday, August 19, was not very bright for the conclusion of an immediate peace. The envoys themselves had arrived at the point where they considered their work practically done. They had agreed to disagree, and they waited for instructions from the higher powers. The Russian contention had been that yielding on any of the four points above mentioned would be compromising to Russia's dignity and national honor, and that the Czar's government had not been vanquished,—only defeated. Japan's contention had all along been that her demands were moderate and such as a nation beaten so completely as Russia ought to meet. Moreover, it was believed and insisted upon in Japan that the demands of the Japanese Government were only such as were absolutely necessary to insure the future safety and stability of the empire. Then, on Saturday afternoon, came the news that Baron Rosen had left Portsmouth for Oyster Bay in response to a request from President Roosevelt, and the world knew that the voice of the neutral nations as well as that of the United States was again to be heard in the interest of the peace of nations.

Witte and the American Jew. Time brings strange surprises and shiftings of power. In the history of this country there have been few more remarkable or dramatic occurrences than the meeting at Portsmouth of Russia's peace envoy, Count Sergius Witte, with five influential, wealthy representatives of American Judaism, presenting in a dignified way the cause of their oppressed brethren in Russia. Some weeks ago, as soon as it was known that Mr. Witte would head the Russian peace commission to this country, Mr. Adolph Kraus, a well-known and suc-



L. N. Seligman.

Jacob Schiff.

Adolph Lewisohn.

Adolph Kraus.

Oscar Straus.

REPRESENTATIVE AMERICAN HEBREWS WHO CONFERRED WITH MR. WITTE ON THE CONDITION OF JEWS IN RUSSIA.

Successful Chicago lawyer, president of the Hebrew fraternal organization B'nai B'rith, conceived the idea of securing an interview with Mr. Witte, who is known for his liberal sentiments, to present the cause of the oppressed Russian Hebrew. It is a tribute to the progressive, liberal views of Mr. Witte, and to the broad-mindedness of Baron Schlippenbach, Russian consul-general in Chicago, that, without knowing what arguments would be presented, an appointment for a meeting was secured through the consul-general before Mr. Witte had reached this country. After a conference with a number of eminent American Hebrews, a self-constituted committee of five, consisting of Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, Mr. Oscar Straus, Mr. Isaac N. Seligman, Mr. Adolph Lewisohn, and Mr. Kraus, met Mr. Witte by appointment and discussed fully and frankly the position of the Jews in Russia.

A Significant Meeting. At first, these gentlemen, most of whom have large financial interests, were averse to approaching Mr. Witte, fearing that the world would regard such a meeting as a conference looking toward financial aid to Russia. We have the highest authority for the assertion, however, that no promises of financial assistance were made at this meeting. It is morally certain, however, that the Hebrew bankers of the world, through whom Russia must secure additional loans, have at last come to the united conclusion that there shall be no more money advanced until substantial guarantees are forthcoming that the hard lot of the Russian Jew will be alleviated. Mr. Witte was approached on purely humanitarian and sentimental grounds, the gentlemen of the committee having been authorized by the organiza-

tion to ask, not for partial reform or amelioration, but that the Jews in Russia be granted exactly the same rights that they enjoy in this country. In their long conference with Mr. Witte (on Monday, August 14), Messrs. Kraus and Straus, who acted as spokesmen, succeeded in eliciting from the Russian envoy expressions of opinion and declarations of intention on the part of the imperial government which justify them in declaring that substantial concessions will be made to the Russian Jew in the near future.

The Russian National Assembly.

Although it had been the general expectation that on the first birthday of the young Czarevitch (August 12) the Czar would issue a manifesto summoning a national assembly, or Duma, it was not until a week later that the long-looked-for announcement was made simultaneously from Moscow and Peterhoff. Saturday, August 19 (August 6, Russian style), will go down into history as the day upon which a Russian Czar first granted his people an actual share in the government. The imperial manifesto follows:

The Empire of Russia is formed and strengthened by the indestructible solidarity of the Czar with the people and of the people with the Czar. The concord and union of the Czar and his people is a great moral force which has created Russia in the course of centuries by protecting her from all misfortunes and all attacks, and has constituted to the present time a pledge of unity, independence, integrity, material well-being, and intellectual development in the present and the future.

In our manifesto of February 24, 1903, we called to a close understanding all faithful sons of the fatherland in order to perfect the organization of the state by establishing solidly the order of the domestic life of the state and of them. We devoted ourselves to the task

of coördinating the elective and public institutions with the governmental authorities and removing the disagreements existing between them which reacted so disastrously on the normal course of the national life.

The Czars of our ancestors constantly had that object in view, and the time is come to follow out their good intentions and summon elected representatives from the whole of Russia to take a constant and active part in the elaboration of the laws, attaching for this purpose to the higher state institutions a special consultative body intrusted with the preliminary elaboration and discussion of measures and the examination of the state budget.

It is for this reason that, while preserving the fundamental law regarding autocratic power, we have deemed it well to form a Gosoudarstvennaia Duma [State Council] and approve regulations for elections to this Duma, extending the validity of these laws to the whole territory of the empire, with some exceptions only as may be considered necessary in the case of some regions in which special conditions obtain.

As regards participation in the labors of the Gosoudarstvennaia Duma of delegates from the Grand Duchy of Finland for questions concerning the empire in general and the grand duchy in particular, we will take special measures. At the same time, we have ordered the minister of the interior to submit immediately for our approbation regulations for elections to the Duma, so that delegates from fifty governments and the military province of the Don may be able to assemble not later than the middle of January, 1906.

We reserve to ourselves entirely the care of perfecting the organization of the Gosoudarstvennaia Duma, and when the course of events has shown the necessity of changes corresponding completely to the needs of the times and the welfare of the empire we shall not fail to give at the proper moment the necessary indication.

We are convinced that those who are elected by the confidence of the whole people, and who are now called upon to take part in the legislative work of the government, will show themselves in the eyes of all Russia worthy of the imperial trust in virtue of which they have been invited to coöperate in this great work, and that in perfect harmony with the other institutions and authorities of state established by us they will contribute profitably and zealously to our labors for the well-being of our common mother, Russia, and for the strengthening of the unity, security, and greatness of the empire, as well as for the tranquillity and prosperity of the people.

In invoking the blessing of the Lord on the labors of the institutions established, with unshakable confidence in the grace of God and in the infallibility of the great historical destinies reserved by Divine Providence for our beloved fatherland, we firmly hope that with the help of God Almighty and the combined efforts of all her sons Russia will emerge triumphant from the trying ordeals through which she is now passing and will renew her strength in the greatness and glory of her history, extending over a thousand years.

NICHOLAS.

*The
Constitution
of the Duma.*

While the Duma will be merely a consulting body, the Czar not conceding any of his autocratic power, there are provisions in the document setting forth the organization and powers of the Duma which

will make a constitution possible. This body, declares the first paragraph, is established for the preliminary discussion and study of legislative propositions "which, according to the fundamental laws, will be submitted to the supreme autocratic authority by the Council of the Empire." Members of the Duma, which will represent all Russia, are to be elected for five years, although the Emperor may dissolve the body at any time and order new elections. The expenses are to be defrayed from the imperial treasury. The president and vice-president are to be elected annually from among the members, who will enjoy absolute freedom in expressing their opinion on matters "within the competence of the Duma." As to the authority or competence of this body, the rescript says :

The competence of the Duma shall extend (a) to all questions relating to new laws and the modification or amplification and temporary suspension or appeal of existing laws ; also to making or altering appointments to the staffs of the ministries and to the expenditure thereby involved ; (b) to departmental, ministerial, and national budgets, and to other expenditures not provided for therein ; (c) to the financial report of the comptroller of the empire ; (d) to the expropriation of any portion of the revenue or property of the state ; (e) to the construction of railways by the state ; (f) to matters submitted to the Duma by imperial decree.

Among the powers of the new body, which will meet some time in the month of January, 1906, are : (1) jurisdiction in the matter of taxes in provinces where there are no zemstvos ; (2) initiative in the repealing or modification of old laws and the adoption of new laws (no power, however, to touch the fundamental law of administration) ; and (3) the right to interpellate ministers and chiefs of departments and call their attention to infractions of existing laws. Measures passed by the Duma go to the Council of the Empire, and the combined conclusions are submitted to the Emperor, whose decision is final. Elections for representatives are to be held in only twenty-six towns, which are named. In all others, and in the provinces and territories, election is to be brought about by an electoral college, members of which will be chosen by the landowners, city electors, and delegates of the peasants. The last will have the right to choose two delegates from each canton. The voting qualification is based on a property holding, and the only persons barred are women, men under twenty-five, soldiers and sailors in active service, officials exercising their functions, and persons not acquainted with the Russian language. "Special measures" are to be applied in the cases of Finland and Poland. Contained in the grudgingly con-

ceded right of representation, however, and behind all the vague, exalted phraseology of the rescript, there is the germ of a constitutional Russia.



HENRIK SIENKIEWICZ, THE POLISH NOVELIST, AND HIS TRANSLATOR, JEREMIAH CURTIN, IN THE GARDEN OF MR. SIENKIEWICZ'S WARSAW HOME.

*The
Zemstvo
Congress.*

Although ordered to disperse by the police, the great zemstvo congress in Moscow, which began its sessions on July 19, continued its work, and its two hundred and eighty-four delegates from all sections of the empire, after voting the Bulygin scheme unsatisfactory, drafted a proposed plan for the long-promised Russian national assembly. Count Heyden, the presiding officer, informed the police that the meeting was acting with the Czar's authority. The officers, however, insisted upon taking down the names of those present, a demand which was even gladly complied with. Most of the spectators even insisted that their names should also be recorded, several of them shouting, "Count us; write down all Russia!" For reporting the proceedings of this congress, a number of Russian journals, including the *Slovo*, were suspended. At the next congress, those parts of the empire where there are no zemstvos will be represented. Meanwhile, the old system goes on, and the policy of repression knows no break. While the Czar is proclaim-

ing a national assembly his lieutenants are committing, not only crimes, but blunders. Governor Maximovitch, of Warsaw, has just, it is reported, ordered the forcible detention in his home of Henrik Sienkiewicz, the Polish novelist, and known to the Poles as their most precious national asset, for publishing documents in opposition to the Russification of Polish schools. This will only serve to intensify the animosity and hatred of the Poles toward the autocracy,—a hatred already very bitter.

*The Farmer's
Continued
Prosperity.* The close of summer finds the American farmer rejoicing in bountiful harvests and a high price-level. Not in many years has there been issued a more encouraging crop report than that of August, 1905. The yield of wheat promises to be second only to that of 1901, and it seems probable that the corn crop will exceed the record made in 1899,—a total of more than 2,666,000,000 bushels; but the present estimate is subject, of course, to deductions due to subsequent damage to the growing corn from bad weather conditions. Barley, too, bids fair to make a record this year, while oats and rye are likely to fall only slightly below the banner harvest of 1902. This year's oats crop is estimated at about 950,000,000 bushels, as against 900,000,000 bushels in 1904. As a natural result of the prospects of large cereal crops, the prices of breadstuffs have suffered a moderate decline, but dairy products, sheep, and hogs are bringing better prices than a year ago. Even the prices of the cereals average about 50 per cent. higher than ten years ago, when the crops were relatively small.

*The Coming
State of
Oklahoma.*

The prosperous condition of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory is clearly set forth in the illustrated article by Mr. Clarence H. Matson on page 310 of this number of the Review. The people of these two Territories held a joint Statehood convention at Oklahoma City in July. In view of the prevalence of the original desire for separate Statehood, this "single Statehood" convention, attended by a thousand delegates, was a remarkable exhibition of harmony and single-mindedness. "Statehood now" was the popular slogan, and no other issues were allowed to stand in the way of that great desideratum. Resolutions were adopted asking for Statehood simply on the ground that the twin Territories now have sufficient area, population, and resources to constitute a State, and that the character of the population entitles them to admission as such. Indian Territory has become largely a white man's country, and, even aside from the approaching dissolution



UNCLE SAM: "Gee whiz! I guess I'll have to let that fellow in!"—From the *Spokesman Review* (Spokane).

of tribal governments, its business interests demand a form of government suited to changed conditions. The need of railroad-rate regulation, especially, is strongly felt. It is true that a call for a separate Statehood convention for Indian Territory late in August was issued, but in view of the enthusiasm and practical unanimity shown at Oklahoma City in July, the opposing movement was not expected to obtain much support. It seems to be the general consensus of opinion that the two Territories will be admitted as a single State.

*The
Uintah
Land Rush.*

The scenes at the opening of Oklahoma, in 1889, were recalled last month on the Uintah reservation, in northeastern Utah, when a tract consisting of more than a million acres of land was thrown open to location in a rotation determined by lot. Of this entire tract not more than one-fourth is deemed desirable for farming purposes. This more desirable agricultural land will be divided among some sixteen hundred heads of families who have drawn the prizes of the reservation. It is estimated that these sixteen hundred farms, at the proportion obtaining in the opened irrigated sections of Utah and Colorado, will in a few years support a population of twenty-five thousand through farming alone. As the farms are subdivided this population will rapidly increase. The eagerness to secure these unirrigated lands, all of which lie at a distance of forty miles or more from any railroad, shows that the proverbial land hunger of the American people has not yet been fully sated. Judging by what has already been accomplished in the vicinity of Vernal, Utah, there is every reason to believe that the Uintah reservation farms will within a few years be as fertile and productive as any farming lands in the West.

It is stated that much of the available land is suitable for grazing even without irrigation. There are also limited areas said to be rich in gilsenite and other minerals.

*Secretary Taft
to the
Filipinos.*

The party of Senators and Representatives, headed by Secretary Taft, which left this country early in July, after enjoying the hospitality of Japan was enthusiastically received at Manila on August 5, and has spent several weeks in traveling over various portions of the Philippines and gathering important information regarding the present commercial, industrial, and political condition of the islands. Secretary Taft's speech, on August 11, at the dinner given by natives to his party outlines the policy of the administration in regard to the insular government. The most important announcement that the Secretary felt called upon to make on this occasion had to do with the plans for the formation of a popular assembly. He declared that if no insurrection existed such an assembly would be chosen by April, 1907. Secretary Taft in no way blinked the obvious fact that the Filipinos are not at the present time ready for self-government. Speaking in behalf of President Roosevelt, Secretary Taft said to the Filipinos that the President felt charged with the duty of proceeding on the present policy and maintaining the sovereignty of the United States in the islands "as an instrument of the gradual education and elevation of the whole of the Filipino people to a self-governing community." This utterance of Secretary Taft was received with the fullest approbation, not only by the Filipinos themselves, but by representative newspapers in the United States, some of which had in years past opposed the administration's Philippine policy. Several of the members of Congress who accompanied Secretary Taft became converts to free trade between the Philippines and the United States, and it is announced that a bill to that end will be introduced at the next session of Congress.

*The American
Faith in
Education.*

It is obvious that the administration's policy of dealing with the Filipinos is fundamentally a policy of education. Foreign observers familiar with the colonial experiences of other nations have criticised the American policy in the Philippines on the ground that it involves a disproportionately large expenditure for education, to the relative neglect of material development, such as the building of good roads and rapid improvement in methods of farming and in the industrial arts. The experience of Great Britain in tropical countries—say these critics—is all against such a



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SECRETARY TAFT, MISS ALICE ROOSEVELT, AND PARTY ON BOARD THE PACIFIC MAIL STEAMSHIP "MANCHURIA."

(First row in center, Miss Alice Roosevelt. At her left, Mrs. Newlands; Senator Warren, of Wyoming; Capt. William J. Kelly, United States army; Hon. Herbert Parsons, New York; Hon. Lafayette Young, Iowa. At her right, Col. C. R. Edwards; Representative Nicholas Longworth, Ohio; Mr. H. F. Woods; Hon. Swager Sherley, Kentucky. Second row in center, Secretary Taft. At his left, Mrs. Scott; Mrs. J. Allen Foster; Capt. J. K. Thompson; Hon. William B. McKinley, Illinois. Gen. Tasker H. Bliss, United States army. At his right, Mrs. Dubois and Miss Mabel Boardman; Miss Amy McMillen; Mrs. Payne. Other members of the party in the third and fourth rows are: Mrs. Godchaux, New Orleans; Senator Foster; Hon. G. E. Foss, Chicago; Senator Long, Kansas; Mrs. Driscoll; Senator Patterson, Colorado; Senator S. Payne, New York; Thomas Carey, Detroit; Senator Newlands, Nevada; Hon. Charles Curtis, Kansas; Senator Scott, West Virginia; Rogers K. Westmore; W. S. Reyburn; Hon. A. A. Wiley, Alabama; Hon. H. A. Cooper, Wisconsin; Hon. W. A. Jones, Virginia; Hon. G. A. Loud; Mrs. Jones; Mrs. E. T. Hill; Mrs. Wiley; Hon. J. D. Hill; Hon. F. H. Gillett; Representative Scott; Representative Howard.)

scheme of universal education as the Americans have superimposed on the Filipinos. The answer to such criticisms has been that England's experience in the tropics, valuable as it may be to England herself, offers no basis on which the United States can formulate a policy. Great Britain has not sought to confer popular government on her subject peoples in tropical regions, and hence she has formulated no educational policy with such an end in view. The fact that she has in many instances succeeded in bringing material prosperity to her tropical peoples without attempting to establish universal education is no ground for insisting that tropical peoples are of necessity incapable of education or of ultimately achieving the boon of self-government. It is the belief of those who have been most closely in touch with the Filipino problem that a system of education may, and in the course of time must, do much to prepare the Filipinos for assuming the duties and exercising the rights which pertain to all self-governing peoples.

Nothing in the whole history of our six years' sojourn in the archipelago is more encouraging than the warm welcome accorded to the American schoolteachers, followed by the recent rapid growth of the

insular school system. The importance of the work that is being done in the islands by American school officers and organizers is very imperfectly understood in this country. The fact that more than half a million children and youths are now enrolled in the Philippine public schools can only be appreciated in its true significance when we remember that instruction in English is required in all grades, that a great part of the teaching is done altogether in English, and that attendance at the schools is entirely voluntary. The fact that a school system of such magnitude could be developed under the peculiarly difficult conditions existing in the Philippines and made a popular institution throughout the archipelago within seven years after the sinking of the Spanish ships in Manila Bay is a striking tribute to the executive ability, enthusiasm, and devotion to duty of the American men and women who have gone out to the islands with the idea of doing pioneer work in education. Hundreds of teachers who take positions each year in the Philippines have an influence outside of the schoolroom far greater in some respects than they had at home. They are continually brought in contact with the local governing bodies, are called upon for advice on civic and social matters, and have a thousand and one opportunities

to mold the political institutions of this interesting people at the formative period. The development of legal institutions in the archipelago is described by Judge Lobingier on page 336 of this REVIEW.



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BOYS IN THE NORMAL HIGH SCHOOL AT MANILA.

During the greater part of August, President Roosevelt enjoyed the quiet of his home at Oyster Bay. On the 10th of the month, however, he addressed a great gathering held at Wilkesbarre, Pa., under the auspices of the Catholic Total Abstinence Union and the United Mine Workers. President John Mitchell, of the Mine Workers, in introducing the President, made an able defense of trade-unionism and spoke appreciatively of the part played by Mr. Roosevelt three years ago in the settlement of the anthracite strike and of the



F. E. Green.
Domingo Franco (government attorney).

A. B. Kelly.
Judge Lobingier.

Francisco Enarge.

Joseph Silverman (reporter).
Noberto Romualdez.

COURT OFFICIALS OF THE TWELFTH JUDICIAL DISTRICT, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

resulting improvement in the condition of the miners and their families. The President declared his belief in trade-unions, "wisely and justly handled, in which the rightful purpose to benefit those connected with them is not accompanied by a desire to do injustice or wrong to others." On the following day, the President spoke at Chautauqua on the two subjects of the Monroe Doctrine and the federal control of corporations. He made it clear that the Monroe Doctrine is not to be made an excuse for aggrandizement on our part at the expense of the republics to the south of us. At the same time, we shall not permit it to be used as a shield to protect any of these republics from the consequences of its own misdeeds against foreign nations. Furthermore, since we prevent other nations from interfering on this side of the water, it is our duty to help the weaker republics in the direction of permanent peace and order. In regard to corporations engaged in

interstate commerce, the President outlined a possible method of federal control by requiring such corporations to produce proof that they are not parties to any contract or combination in violation of law.

*The
Insurance
Question.*

The demand for some form of federal regulation of the insurance business has grown stronger of late, and representatives of some of the great companies are committed to such a policy. An outline of the arguments used will be found in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," on page 343 of this REVIEW. The New York legislative committee to investigate the insurance question, headed by Senator William W. Armstrong, with Mr. Charles E. Hughes and Mr. James McKeen as counsel, has begun its inquiry into the management of the great New York companies. The purpose of this investigation seems to have been misconceived by some of

the newspapers. Its primary object is not to expose wrongdoing or corruption, but to furnish the necessary groundwork of information regarding the insurance business on which future legislation may properly be based. It had been our intention to publish in this number of the REVIEW a full and fair statement of the facts thus far brought to light since the Equitable exposures began. It seems desirable, however, for certain reasons, to defer the publication of this article another month. In our October issue we hope to include important material that is not at this date ready for the press.

Reciprocity and the "Dual Tariff." A number of important exporting interests united some months ago in a call for a conference at Chicago on the subject of trade reciprocity. This conference, which met on August 16, was attended by delegates from commercial bodies in all parts of the country, and developed considerable interest in the subject of tariff concessions to foreign countries. The immediate occasion of the conference seems to have been the recent declaration of Germany's tariff policy, which was discussed at some length in our August number. The conference was addressed by United States Senator Cullom, who is chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, and by Governors Deneen, of Illinois, Mickey, of Nebraska, and Cummins, of Iowa. The sense of the conference, as it was finally crystallized in resolutions, was that the only practical method of relieving the present strained situation in our trade relations is through the establishment of a dual, or maximum and minimum, tariff. This position taken by the conference is not to be understood as an abandonment of the principle of reciprocity, but rather as a newer means of gaining the same end,—namely, reciprocal trade concessions. So many reciprocity treaties have been killed in the United States Senate that the advocates of that policy have well-nigh abandoned hope of ever achieving any notable success. The "dual tariff" idea is imported from Continental Europe. It is proposed that our present tariff laws be so amended as to provide for two sets of duties, a maximum and a minimum, the former to apply to all countries which give to our exports less favorable treatment than the best they accord to those from any other country, the latter to be applied to those countries where our exports receive as good treatment as the best that is given to any country. In other words, it is the old idea of "the most favored nation." It is proposed that the executive department of the Government shall determine how this dual tariff



HON. WILLIAM W. ARMSTRONG.

(Chairman of the New York legislative committee now investigating the insurance business.)

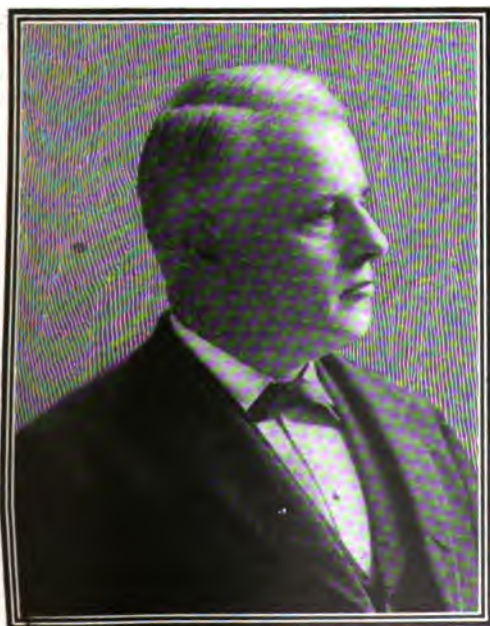
shall be applied in specific instances. There will thus be no need to negotiate special treaties, and the securing of reciprocal trade relations with any particular country will not be contingent on a two-thirds majority in the United States Senate. This, it should be remarked, is a strictly protectionist device, and if it ever becomes effective, it will be by the votes of protectionists in Congress.

The Fall Campaigns Foreshadowed. While the past summer has been marked by the usual apathy of the "off year" in politics, the two or three exceptional instances of political activity during the hot season are, perhaps, worthy of notice. From the first of May until late in August, the State of Virginia was the scene of an active political campaign, which culminated in the Democratic primaries for choice of United States Senator to succeed the Hon. Thomas S. Martin. Senator Martin's opponent in this canvass was Gov. A. J. Montague, by whom the adoption of legalized primaries in Virginia was brought about. Governor Montague has been credited with many important reforms in State affairs, notably in educational lines, and is also regarded as one of the ablest public speakers in the South. He and Senator Martin took part repeatedly in joint debates, and in the course of

the campaign nearly every community in Virginia had an opportunity to listen to a discussion of the issues of the day. Not for many years in Virginia has there been so thorough an exposition of national affairs in a political canvass. Meanwhile, the Republicans of Virginia have nominated for governor the Hon. Lumsford L. Lewis, formerly chief justice of the State Court of Appeals, and one of the leaders of the Virginia bar. In Maryland, much interest has been developed in the proposed constitutional amendment disfranchising negroes. The Democratic party is divided on this proposition. In New York City, there was a distinct departure from traditional practice in District Attorney Jerome's early announcement of his candidacy for reelection. Mr. Jerome proposes to be nominated by petition, and not by any political organization. His petition will undoubtedly receive the two thousand signatures necessary to nominate him, and if he is elected Mr. Jerome will be under no obligation, express or implied, to any party leader or group of leaders in the city of New York.

*Yellow Fever
at
New Orleans.*

The most serious epidemic of yellow fever that has visited New Orleans in a period of almost thirty years began with a few concealed cases late in the month of May and prevailed for six weeks before it was discovered by the health authorities. Naturally,



SENATOR THOMAS S. MARTIN, OF VIRGINIA.
(Candidate for renomination at the primaries.)



GOV. A. J. MONTAGUE, OF VIRGINIA.
(Candidate for the United States Senatorship.)

in its early stages the disease spread almost entirely among the more ignorant and less cleanly classes, so that the percentage of mortality soon became large. The sanitary authorities of New Orleans, in coping with the epidemic, proceeded from the first upon the well-known "mosquito theory" of infection. Prompt and effective measures were at once taken to destroy the swarm of mosquitoes and to do away with their breeding-places. The officials of neighboring States and municipalities, recalling the horrors of former visitations of the plague, took some unreasonable measures of quarantine against New Orleans. This led to unnecessary complications and not a little ill-feeling. The whole situation was greatly improved when, at the request of the city and State authorities, the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service took entire charge of the work of sanitation. The city was at once divided into districts, over each of which a marine hospital surgeon was placed, while under him a force of workers proceeded with the details of fumigation and other sanitary work, very much on the same lines that were followed so successfully in the cleaning up of the city of Havana, several years ago. The officers in charge of this service are familiar with the methods employed in fighting epidemics, and the country at large may rely on their making thorough work of the responsibilities intrusted to them. The course of the epidemic has closely paralleled that of the year 1878. The number of cases in 1905 greatly exceeds that in



GOVERNORS VARDAMAN, OF MISSISSIPPI, AND BLANCHARD, OF LOUISIANA.

(Who were in conflict last month over quarantine regulations.)

1878, but the proportion of deaths is much smaller. The spread of the fever outside of New Orleans has been confined to the Louisiana parishes immediately around New Orleans, and to seven parishes in the northern and central portions of the State. In the States of Mississippi,



LOUISIANA (to Uncle Sam): "I am glad you come, sah!"

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus.)

Alabama, and Florida, where the fever made its appearance, it seems to have been completely stamped out. Up to the middle of August, there had been, in New Orleans, a total of 176 deaths out of 1,146 cases reported. In the State of Louisiana, outside of New Orleans, there had been 24 deaths. In 1878, there were from 30 to 60 deaths a day. Undoubtedly the fever



SURGEON-GENERAL WALTER WYMAN.

(Head of the United States Marine Hospital Service; in charge of the yellow fever situation at New Orleans.)

gained great headway in New Orleans because of its concealment for so many weeks, and this has rendered the task of stamping it out doubly difficult. One of the saddest incidents connected with this visitation of the fever was the death of Archbishop Chapelle, who fell in the midst of efforts to relieve the stricken.

While the attention of the government sanitary officials has been centered on New Orleans, the Panama Canal Commission has been grappling with similar problems in the canal zone. The alarm which was sounded a few months ago has quickly decreased with the diminishing number of deaths from yellow fever, but the canal authorities are fully determined that before the actual construction of the canal is begun in good earnest the most thorough measures known to modern sanitary science shall be put in force throughout the canal strip. President Shonts,

*Cleaning Up
Panama.*



THE LATE ARCHBISHOP CHAPELLE, OF NEW ORLEANS.

of the commission, who recently made a visit of inspection to Panama, is fully convinced that in the programme of the commission's operations sanitation must have the first place. Measures are now under way which he believes will make the zone habitable and make possible the successful carrying on of the most important engineering undertaking of our day. Something has been done, also, to provide for the needs of workmen on the canal, especially in the matter of supplying the necessities of life at reasonable cost and providing suitable housing accommodations for canal employees outside of Panama and Colon, which seem to be at present the only fever-infected points on the Isthmus.

Affairs in the West Indies. A meeting of Porto Ricans at San Juan, in July, memorialized Congress for an elective insular senate in place of the legislative council now appointed by the President of the United States, and also for the appointment of insular officers by the governor of Porto Rico, with the consent of the insular senate, instead of by the President of the United States, as at present. Such a change in the government of the island would really mean the transfer of all responsibility from the United States to the people of Porto Rico. Many sincere friends of the Porto Ricans, including Bishop

Van Buren, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, question the wisdom of so radical a change at this time. During the summer, Dr. Jacob H. Hollander, the special commissioner of the United States to Santo Domingo, after visiting that country and studying conditions there, went to Europe to investigate the nature of the claims against Santo Domingo, and reported the results of his investigation to President Roosevelt. Dr. Hollander was impressed by the prosperity of the Santo Domingans. His findings as to the justice of European claims have not yet been made public. Dr. Hollander is now on a special tour of investigation through the West Indies, studying the finance systems of the various colonial governments, with a view to adopting certain features in the financial administration of Porto Rico.

Claims Against Venezuela.

Two important judicial decisions involving Venezuela and its foreign relations were made last month. In the first place, final judgment in the case of the Castro government against the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company was given on August 7 by the Court of Cassation. An inquiry into the origin and progress of this case was presented in these pages of the Review for July. The original decision of May last is affirmed, and the concession annulled. Of course, a protest



HON. FRANK PLUMLEY, OF VERMONT, WHO HAS ADJUDICATED LARGE FRENCH CLAIMS AGAINST VENEZUELA.

against the decision has been made by the corporation, but it is announced that our government will await the report of Judge Calhoun, who is making an inquiry in Venezuela, before acting. Final judgment in the suit of the Venezuelan Government against the French Cable Company has also been announced by the Court of Cassation, confirming the original decision of March last. The cable company is accused of breaking its contract in failing to observe the condition calling for the construction of an ocean cable to the United States, and also a national coastwise line. At the same time, claims aggregating more than \$650,000 held by the French Government against Venezuela, out of a total of \$8,000,000, have been allowed by Referee Frank Plumley, of Northfield, Vt., to whom they had been referred for final adjudication. These claims had already been rejected by the Venezuelan courts. Mr. Plumley, whose decision in this matter is final, has had considerable experience in refereeing European claims against Venezuela, beginning with his services as umpire between Venezuela and Great Britain and Holland, several years ago.

Our Responsibility. Just what part will be played by the United States Government officially in the settlement of the various claims against Venezuela cannot be laid down at present. It is safe to assume the justice of any part we may play, however. President Roosevelt's recognition of the heavy responsibility entailed by the Monroe Doctrine was never, perhaps, more clearly and unmistakably evinced than in the course of his address at Chautauqua on August 11, when he said :

Should any of our neighbors, no matter how turbulent, how disregardful of our rights, finally get into such a position that the utmost limits of our forbearance are reached, all the people south of us may rest assured that no action will ever be taken save what is absolutely demanded by our self-respect; that this action will not take the form of territorial aggrandizement on our part, and that it will only be taken at all with the most extreme reluctance, and not without having exhausted every effort to avert it.

Canada's Programme of Defense. The British Government having finally agreed, in detail, to the Canadian offer to assume military control and maintenance of the most important British naval establishments on the American continent, Halifax and Esquimaux—the one on the Atlantic, the other on the Pacific—will become, from the 1st of the present month, defensive posts of the Dominion Government instead of British garrisons. Three years ago, during the discussion in the mother country as to the propriety of de-

manding from the colonies their share in the burdens of imperial defense, Canada refused to contribute unless she were given control and direction of such military and naval posts as were within her borders. At the colonial conference of the same year (1902), the Dominion expressed her willingness to assume the cost and responsibility of garrisoning Halifax and Esquimaux, and her taking over these posts (only, of course, so far as land defense is concerned) marks the beginning of the new military policy of the Dominion, which has been fathered by Sir Frederick Borden, Canadian minister of militia. This assumption of responsibility, Sir Frederick believes, is only the beginning. He believes Canada should build a chain of military depots from the Atlantic to the Pacific, with forts established between the great strongholds at Halifax and Esquimaux. In a recent speech before several Canadian military organizations Sir Frederick declared that many big guns and rifles had been ordered by the Dominion government. Sir Frederick did not indicate his reasons for such extensive military preparations, and with such a peaceful neighbor on the south as Uncle Sam it seems scarcely probable that the Dominion will permit the carrying out of his warlike plan. Meanwhile, Canada is increasingly prosperous throughout her entire extent, and her great West is opening up to the world economic and commercial possibilities of the magnitude of which even the Canadians themselves have no adequate appreciation. Each of the great new territories recently organized, Alberta and Saskatchewan, contains more than two hundred and seventy-five thousand square miles. That is to say, each one of them is nearly six times as large as the State of New York, and each is larger than the German Empire.

The British Parliament Prorogued. In England, last month, the political questions of the greatest interest and moment were the probable fate of the Balfour ministry and the *entente cordiale* with France, the latter having as its complementary problem probable, if not actual, strained relations with Germany. Parliament was officially prorogued on August 11 until October 30 (when there will probably be another adjournment) without the promise by the premier that an election would be held in November. In the House of Commons the government majority is ten less than it was on meeting six weeks ago, the by-elections having steadily gone against the Balfour ministry. At prorogation the government's majority was 71, the strength being: Conservatives and Unionists, 370; total opposition, 299. The redistribution scheme,

by which England and Scotland were to gain seats in the Commons and Ireland lose, had been withdrawn, because of violent opposition, in favor of a new plan to be drafted at the next session, as Mr. Balfour promises. It is taken for granted that a Liberal ministry will be the result of the next elections, that Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman will assume the premiership, and that Lord Rosebery will probably be his foreign secretary. The session of Parliament just ended has experienced an unprecedented number of votes of censure. Its accomplishments in domestic matters of special interest have been: the Aliens Act, referred to in these pages last month; the Unemployed Workmen Act, and the Scottish Church bill. The last measure provides for a special commission with full and final authority to determine all disputed claims as to property between the United Free Church and the "Wee Kirk." In foreign politics, the two most noteworthy accomplishments of the Balfour ministry have been the Japanese alliance and the understanding with France.

*Problems for
the Next
Government.*

Even though it live through another session, the Conservative-Unionist ministry will bequeath to its successor a number of pressing problems, including the ever-present Irish question, the problem of the increasing pauperism throughout the United Kingdom, the settlement of the Chamberlain fiscal policy, and, probably, the renewal of the alliance with Japan. Mr. Balfour's cabinet will endeavor to have this last (with a clause calling for Japanese military aid) a *fait accompli* before its fall, in order to justify the reorganization of the Indian army which Lord Kitchener is bringing about. He wants a strong force to coöperate with Japan in the event of a Muscovite invasion of India. Lord Roberts continues his condemnation of the British army as it is to-day, and there is more than one sign that John Bull is waking up to the necessity of a thorough overhauling of his military establishment. The royal commission to investigate the South African army stores scandal, headed by Mr. Justice Farwell, has begun well, and there seems to be even in the war department a desire to get at the truth. The significance to Great Britain as well as to France of the understanding between these two nations can scarcely be overestimated. The probable realignment of the European powers is discussed thoughtfully by Mr. Ogg on another page of this issue. Looked at from any standpoint, the English-French *rapprochement* is a guarantee of European peace, and an event worthy of the world's profound gratitude.

*England,
France, and
Morocco.*

Whether it was the fear of a sudden British descent on the German fleet which led the German Government to create the Moroccan question and thereby treat France as a hostage for British good behavior, on the one hand, or, on the other hand, whether the intention of the British fleet to maneuver in the Baltic Sea was a counter-stroke against the German intention to close the Baltic, the world will never know; these are the versions of the German and British newspaper press, respectively. Undoubtedly the war in the far East and the revelation of Russia's corruption and inefficiency have changed the European equilibrium, relieving Germany of the menace of Russia, showing France the one-sidedness of her alliance, and demonstrating to the republic and England the importance of working together in harmony. It has become the custom to impute to Germany many and deep-laid schemes for territorial and commercial aggrandizement calculated to disturb the peace of Europe. Some of these schemes are cleverly "divulged" in several "Leading Articles" this month. The relations between Germany and the French republic have been bettered during the past few weeks, and the Moroccan question seems about to be settled without further friction. The date of the international conference has not yet been decided, but the meeting will probably be held some time in November, either in Madrid or in Tangier. Various unconfirmed reports of Moroccan concessions to Germany for trade purposes, and the building of public works in the treaty ports, had disquieted France, but their prompt denial by the German Government has left the republic no chance to make a formal protest.

*The
Kaiser's
Activities.*

Internally, Germany is prospering, despite her tariff differences with a number of other countries and her colonial troubles. Her war in Southwest Africa has proved most destructive and severe. Altogether, up to the present the Berlin government has expended more than sixty-five million dollars on this "little war," and the end is not yet in sight, for the natives, to whom fighting is the normal mode of life, can continue their guerrilla tactics indefinitely. Almost a thousand Germans have been killed. The Kaiser's interest in the Scandinavian situation is touched upon elsewhere. His dramatic meeting with Czar Nicholas of Russia on the imperial yacht *Polar Star*, and afterward on his own yacht, the *Hohenzollern*, in Swedish waters, late in July, excited a great deal of interest throughout the world. Just what the two monarchs said to each other will, of course, never be known, but it is assumed

that the Kaiser gave the Czar some emphatic advice on the question of peace with Japan and on internal reforms. It is to be assumed, also, that they discussed the closing of the Baltic and the separation of Norway and Sweden.

*Norway
Votes for
Separation.* After a very stormy session, during which the Ramstedt ministry was forced to resign, the Swedish Riksdag emphatically expressed disapproval of the policy of letting Norway depart in peace, although such a policy had been recommended by the Swedish Government and approved by the King. The Riksdag declared, through its special committee appointed for that purpose, that Sweden was willing to negotiate with Norway for the dissolution of the union if the Norwegian people should, by popular vote, express themselves in favor of such dissolution. The report of the committee declared that the union could not be dissolved by the Storthing's action, which could "only be considered as Norway's declaration that she does not desire any longer to maintain it." According to legal ethics, the report went on, Sweden would have been fully justified in using force to reestablish the union. "Reflection, however, shows that this would be against the true interests of Sweden. . . . The maintenance of the union by force would make it a source of weakness instead of strength." In the event of the popular vote sustaining the Storthing's action in dissolving the union, the Swedish parliament maintained that negotiations should then be be-



PRESIDENT BERNER, OF THE NORWEGIAN STORTHING.



MR. CHRISTIAN LUNDBERG, THE NEW SWEDISH PREMIER.

gun between the two countries, in which Sweden should insist upon a number of points, among them—(1) the establishment of a neutral zone on each side of the frontier, within which existing fortifications should be razed, and within which no new fortifications should be erected; (2) the right of reindeer pasture for Swedish Laplanders in northern Norway; (3) free trade transit through both countries; and (4) the fixing of the status of Sweden in respect to foreign powers, so that she should be free from responsibility for Norway. The cabinet crisis was ended by the choice of Mr. Christian Lundberg as premier of a coalition ministry. The reply of the Norwegian Storthing was prompt. That body voted unanimously to submit to a plebiscite the question of dissolution. On August 13, a referendum vote was taken throughout the kingdom on the question of secession from Sweden, and, amid so much popular enthusiasm that the day was celebrated as a general holiday, 368,200 votes were cast in favor of dissolution and only 184 against. The Norwegian women, while unable to vote themselves, spent their time and means in electioneering for dissolution. Thus, the revolution is demonstrated to be by the will of the people. The Storthing met on August 21 to consider Sweden's terms. The popular feeling was evidently against their acceptance. In the event of a disagreement it is probable that a resort will be had to arbitration. The Norwegians are averse to dismantling the frontier fortifications.

A "Greater
Scandinavian
navia?"

It is not certain as yet what will be the exact nature of the future Norwegian government. Norway's offer to King Oscar, who has just again given way to the regency of Prince Gustav, to accept a Swedish prince for its monarch, was at first refused. Afterward, it is reported, King Oscar reconsidered his refusal. The crown had, however, in the meantime been offered to Prince Charles of Denmark, as we noted in this department last month. This offer, to a prince whose wife is the third daughter of King Edward of England, was not over-pleasing to Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany, and it is reported that during his recent visit to Sweden the Kaiser endeavored to secure the accession of a prince of his own family. Early in August, however, after the Kaiser's visit to Copenhagen, it was announced that Germany would support Prince Charles. It is evident that the Kaiser realizes his greater immediate need of Danish friendliness than of the doubtful value of placing a German prince on the Norwegian throne. Ever since the war with Denmark, in 1864, the campaign of Germanization in Schleswig-Holstein has kept up the enmity between Dane and German. In a "Leading Article," last month, this REVIEW described some of the conditions in the conquered provinces. The Kaiser, however, desires to mollify the Danes, and is recently reported to have proclaimed that no more Danes would be expelled from Schleswig. He also wants the Danish co-operation in his plan, recently set forth by some inspired Berlin journals, to make the Baltic Sea a *mare clausum*,—a closed sea to all the world except Russia, Germany, and Scandinavia. This is alluded to in another paragraph. Well-wishers of Scandinavians all over the world earnestly hope that some day in the near future, perhaps when the Norwegian republic which Björnson, the writer, and Berner, the president of the Storting, are now contending for is an accomplished fact, there will be an alliance of the three Scandinavian powers with Finland which shall make a first-rate European power and unite in one cause the energies and genius of these kindred northern peoples.

France and
England Draw-
ing Together.

While France's agreement to the international conference on the Moroccan situation, as desired by Germany, is generally admitted to be a diplomatic triumph for the Kaiser, the net result of Germany's interference in this matter, which France had always regarded as her own particular affair, has been the Anglo-French *rapprochement*. This is regarded both as a clear indication of the weakening of the political ties binding Russia and

the republic and as a challenge by England to the Kaiser. During the first half of August, two highly important international meetings occurred,—one the visit of the British Channel fleet, under Admiral May, to the French harbor of Brest, and its enthusiastic reception by the French authorities; this followed by the return visit of the French fleet, under Admiral Caillard, to Portsmouth, England, and the almost triumphant journey of the French naval officers and their crews to London. This meeting of the fleets in Portsmouth, England, may have as important an effect on the peace of the world as that other meeting in Portsmouth, N. H. The crews of both fleets fraternized, and the greatest of international good-humor was manifested. Distinguished as they were by official recognition and the warm reception given, particularly in London, to the French sailors, these meetings are regarded as cementing the unpublished but nevertheless real *entente* between England and France, which is already taking on the form of an alliance. This is a subject of great moment to the entire world. There are no schemes of imperialistic aggrandizement in the programme of France and England, and, working in harmony, they can assure the peace of the old world. If, in addition, as has been suggested more than once during the past few weeks, the United States, which is on terms of warm friendship with both countries, should enter into some general working agreement with them, the peace of the world would certainly be assured for generations. International agreements for peace are preëminently the accomplishment and glory of the twentieth century.

Dutch
and Belgian
Affairs.

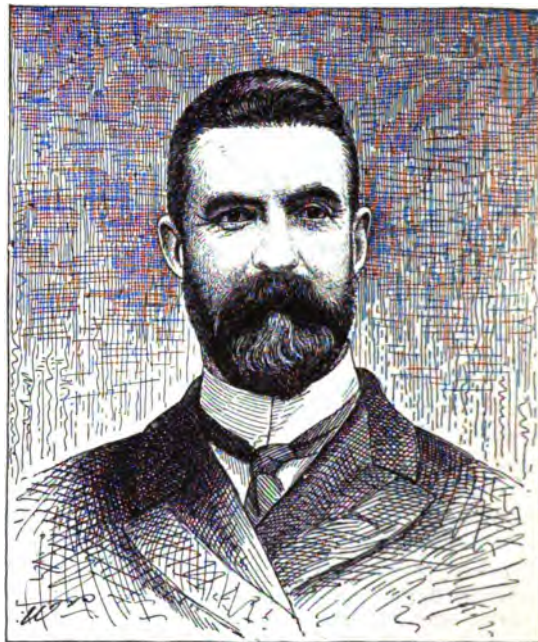
Holland and Belgium, those two busy workshops of central Europe, have not been without their problems during the past half-year, but their peoples have, in the main, been prosperous and contented. The Dutch general elections, which took place in June and resulted in the fall of Dr. Abraham Kuyper, were noteworthy especially in regard to the issues involved in the educational question. On another page of this issue we present an analysis of the standpoints taken by the Dutch political parties on this question, from an editorial article in *De Gids*, the leading Dutch review. There were some surprises in the cabinet changes. A ministry headed by Prof. G. A. van Hamel, of the University of Amsterdam, was formed early in August, but it failed to secure the approval and support of Queen Wilhelmina, and after a week was radically recast. As announced in the middle of last month, it was made up as follows: Premier *pro tem.* and minister of finance,

Mr. Demeester ; minister of foreign affairs, Mr. Van Tets, now minister at Berlin ; minister of justice, Mr. Van Raalte ; minister of the interior, Deputy Rink ; vice-president of the council and minister of marine, Capt. Cohen Stuart ; minister of war, General Staal ; minister of public works, trade, and industry, Mr. Kranz ; director of the Technical University and minister of agriculture and labor, Mr. Veegens ; minister of the colonies, Deputy Fock. Belgium still retains the distinction of being the most densely populated country in Europe. The national census just completed indicates a population of 7,074,910. Antwerp retains the lead as the largest city, with a population of 292,000.

*Turkish
Affairs in
Europe and
Asia.*

An almost successful attempt to assassinate Abdul Hamid, the Sultan of Turkey, by a bomb, on July 21, has again called attention to the smoldering elements of revolt in European Turkey. The Sultan was returning from the imperial mosque, after the celebrated ceremony of the Selamnik, when the bomb exploded in the courtyard, killing twenty-four persons and wounding fifty-seven others. The Sultan himself was not injured, and maintained his composure. There is no clue to the identity of the would-be assassin, but the reform elements in the empire are known not to be averse to violent means for removing an unprogressive and hated ruler. The heir-apparent to the autocracy there, it will be remembered, Reched Effendi, is the brother of the present Sultan, an old man of over sixty, who is reported to be himself near to death. The Sultan himself, Abdul Hamid II., is now sixty-three years of age, and desires the succession of his eldest son, Mohammed Burhan Ed-din Effendi, a bright young man, who has received a general European education and is reported to be a warm admirer of the German Emperor. The rebellion in Arabia is reported crushed, but a general Mohammedan uprising against Abdul Hamid, who has come to be regarded as a usurper of the caliphate, is threatened throughout the central East. This fact has not escaped the notice of the imperial British authorities, and its possibilities in the event of a British war with Russia have strengthened Lord Kitchener's hand in demanding a radical reorganization of the Indian army, one of the results of which has been the resignation from the viceroyalty of India of Lord Curzon, who opposes the idea, Lord Minto succeeding him at Calcutta. Lord Kitchener has succeeded in impressing his views so deeply upon his home government that in the renewal of the Japanese alliance, due this year, a clause will certainly be inserted calling on

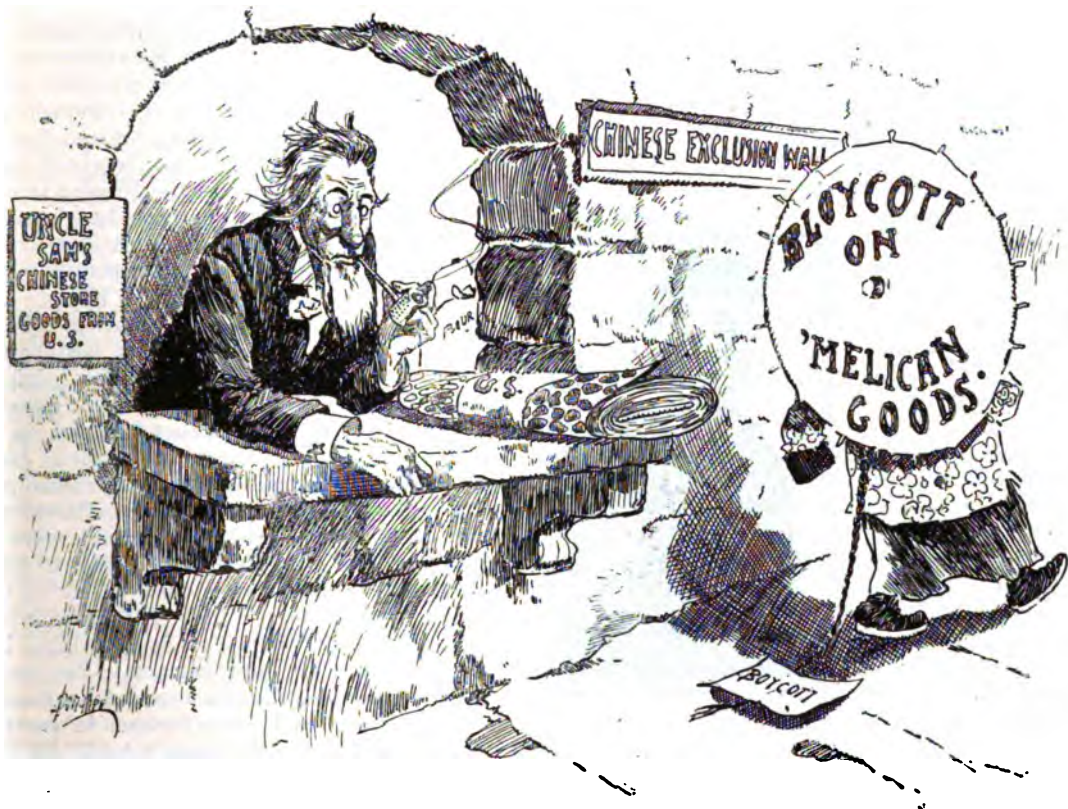
Japan for military assistance in warding off a possible Muscovite invasion of British India. Meanwhile, the European possessions and dependencies of Turkey are in their chronic state of ferment. The powers have again insisted upon the acceptance of their financial scheme for Macedonia. Some interesting sidelights on the social and economic conditions in this distracted region are given in a "Leading Article of the Month" in this issue.



HON. ALFRED DEAKIN, THE NEW COALITION PREMIER OF AUSTRALIA.

*The Tariff
in
Australia.*

Tariff problems of different kinds are agitating the different Australian colonies, as well as the Commonwealth itself. In South Africa and Queensland, as well as in Victoria, the question of free trade and preferential tariff is bound up with the general problem of a "white Australia," both of which policies Mr. Alfred Deakin, the new premier, is pledged to support. It is now expected that the Labor-Socialist party, which controls perhaps one-third of the seats in the lower house of the federal parliament, will side with the Deakin ministry. The Victorian manufacturers, who are strongly in favor of a protective tariff, are supporting Mr. Deakin, but threaten to desert him unless he carry out to the full their campaign against goods imported from America. These manufacturers want prohibitive rates on harvesters and other machinery of American

DULL DAYS ON ORIENTAL AVENUE.—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

make. There is also a feeling, although less keen, against British and German competition, and the report of the federal tariff commission now at work is expected to advocate a large increase in the duty on almost all imports. Australia is also agitated over the differences with France in regard to the New Hebrides, and with Germany over the Marshall Islands. In both cases, the differences are in matters of trade exclusively.

China and the Boycott.

China's decision to annul the contract of the Canton-Hankow Railroad, coming, as it did, during the height of the campaign by Chinese guilds and commercial associations against American goods for alleged unfair enforcement of the exclusion regulations, has indicated an awakening consciousness of national power in the Celestial Empire. According to reports from our consuls, the Chinese are aroused on the boycott subject, which is beginning to assume a social as well as an industrial phase. A circular calling for the boycott of all American goods, issued by a Chinese society at Shanghai and largely

circulated throughout the empire, had the effect of organizing the boycott throughout the ports of Shanghai, Canton, Tientsin, Hankow, and Newchwang. At Shanghai, all Chinese shops have refused to sell American goods, and schools and colleges in that part of the empire have decided to use no American books. Workmen and servants, moreover, have been urged to discriminate against Americans in the wages demanded. It must be admitted that, on the representation of our minister, Mr. Rockhill, and our consuls generally throughout the empire, the Chinese Government has endeavored to discourage the boycott and to live up to the strict letter of our trade treaty. The report, late in August, that Mr. Edwin H. Conger, now ambassador to Mexico, formerly ambassador to China, would go as a special commissioner to Peking, to attempt to stay the spread of the Chinese boycott on American goods, indicated the importance attached to the situation by President Roosevelt. The popular feeling, however, would appear to have got beyond control of the central government. President Roosevelt has expressed himself in no uncertain terms in condemnation of the

harsh enforcement of the exclusion law, and the Chinese minister to this country, Sir Chentung Liang-Cheng, is busily preparing suggested modifications of the exclusion law for submission to the coming session of Congress. It is reported that Wu Ting-Fang, former minister from Peking to Washington, has been appointed a special commissioner to present this treaty to our government.

It is certainly evident that the Chinese are awakening. They are sending their students abroad to be educated in larger numbers than ever before, particularly to Japan, and it is reported on more than one reliable authority that a real constitution for the empire is actually being elaborated by a board of political experts in Peking. China has shown, also, that she is not unaware of the magnitude of her stake

in the peace conference at Portsmouth. She has already made known to both the Russian and Japanese authorities her desire to be represented at this conference, and has even threatened to refuse to abide by the results unless she have her say. Russia has declared that she would not be unwilling to permit such representation, but the government of the Mikado has plainly intimated that Japan looks upon herself as quite able and willing to take care of China's interests in the peace negotiations. Korea, also, by the way, has petitioned both the belligerent powers through Washington for a chance to be heard in the settlement of peace terms. Her request has also been refused.



SIR CHENTUNG LIANG-CHENG.
(Chinese minister to the United States.)

While no formal armistice had been agreed upon between the opposing armies in Manchuria, it was evident that both commanders were holding their hands until at least the drift of the peace conference could be known. By the end of the first week in August, the Japanese forces had completed their occupation of Saghalien. General Liapinov, the Russian governor, surrendered three thousand men, besides large quantities of military stores and important documents. Sev-

eral days after Liapinov's surrender, the Japanese fleet, under Admiral Kataoka, landed an armed force near the town of Alexandrovsk, on the mainland of Siberia, several hundred miles north of Vladivostok. General Linevich and Marshal Oyama had both been prepared for another great battle. Each had received reinforcements, but the spirit of the Russian troops, despite assurances to the contrary, had been depressed, and there had been much discouragement because of the news of Rozhestvenski's defeat and the economic disorders at home. The revolutionary propaganda and agitation had succeeded in preventing, or at least postponing, the expected mobilization, and the new minister of war, Lieutenant-General Ridiger, who has succeeded General Sakharov, is not believed to be one of the radical war party. An official Japanese statement, by the way, recently issued, announces that up to the time of the battle of the Sea of Japan 60,291 Russian prisoners were in the hands of the Japanese. Of these, 10 were general officers and 70 staff officers. It should be stated that General Linevich himself, while conscious of the difficulties before him, has brought about much improvement in the condition of Russia's Manchurian army, and expresses himself as eager to try his fortune in another great contest with the Japanese commander. A strong Japanese squadron had been blockading Vladivostok for several months, and immediately upon the breaking off of peace negotiations it was the plan of Marshal Oyama to complete the investment of Russia's only remaining Pacific seaport from the land side.

*Progress
in
South Africa.*

The meeting of the British Association at Cape Town, on August 15, being of purely scientific interest, is one of the indications that the South African domain of Great Britain is being bound to her by other ties than those of mere conquest. In trade and other relations of peace, also, South Africa is being linked closely to the mother country. It is only a few months since the completion of the great bridge,—the highest in the world,—over the gorge at the Victoria Falls, on the Zambesi River, formed one of the last stages in that tremendous undertaking, the Cape to Cairo railroad. Although the Boer leaders met at Pretoria in July to discuss the constitution offered to them by Great Britain, the question was actually left open, because of the impossibility of securing opinion from all sections. Lord Selborne, the new governor-general, will reside at Pretoria instead of Johannesburg, and this decision is an indication of a desire to forget the days of military occupation.

*The
Situation in
Manchuria.*

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From July 30 to August 30, 1906.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

July 20.—In the New York Assembly, the resolution for the removal of Justice Hooker, of the Supreme Court, fails of a two-thirds majority....Governor Higgins, of New York, recommends a legislative investigation of all life insurance companies, and a joint committee of three Senators and five Assemblymen is appointed for the purpose.

July 21.—Secretary Wilson, of the United States Department of Agriculture, appoints a special board of four members to prepare a crop report.

July 23.—It is announced that the Panama Canal work will remain under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of War.

July 24.—President Roosevelt declines to accept the resignation of Gov. George R. Carter, of Hawaii.

July 25.—The delegates of Porto Rican municipalities adopt a memorial to Congress asking greater local self-government.

July 29.—Governor Vardaman, of Mississippi, charges Louisiana State officials with promoting the spread of yellow fever by concealing knowledge of its existence....Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, asks State governors to cooperate with the Pennsylvania legislative committee to secure uniform divorce laws.

July 30.—The Alabama railroad commission orders an important reduction in freight rates on all railroads entering the State.

July 31.—District Attorney Jerome, of New York, announces his candidacy for reelection.

August 1.—President Roosevelt makes public the protest of the National Board of Trade against the retirement of Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture.

August 3.—The Governor of Louisiana orders the State troops to capture two United States revenue cutters on quarantine duty if they do not leave the State's waters.

August 4.—On request of the Louisiana authorities, President Roosevelt directs the Public Health Marine Hospital Service to take charge of the yellow fever district; the Louisiana naval reserves capture or drive from the State waters the entire Mississippi quarantine patrol.

August 7.—The surgeons of the United States Marine Hospital Service take charge of the yellow fever situation in New Orleans; the State of Louisiana appropriates \$100,000 for the immediate expenses of the work of sanitation.

August 9.—Virginia Republicans nominate Judge L. L. Lewis for governor and indorse President Roosevelt's administration.

August 15.—The Interstate Commerce Commission begins an investigation of combinations between railroads and private-car lines.

August 16.—President Roosevelt confers on the subject of federal supervision of life insurance with Senator Dryden, of New Jersey, and James M. Beck, of New York (see page 343).

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

July 20.—The zemstvo congress at Moscow discusses the project of a national assembly for Russia....The Canadian parliament is prorogued....The Balfour ministry is defeated by a majority of three in the British House of Commons on the Irish land commission motion.

July 21.—A bomb was thrown at the Sultan of Turkey, who escaped injury....Colonel Kremarenko, chief of police at Helsingfors, Finland, is assassinated....The zemstvo congress at Moscow appeals to the Russian nation to resist arbitrary and unjust acts by the government.

July 23.—The Russian zemstvo congress adjourns, after arranging to organize popular assemblies throughout the country.

July 24.—Premier Balfour, in the British House of Commons, declines to resign because of the small adverse vote on July 20....A committee of the Russian ministry amends the government's proposals for a national assembly.

July 25.—In consequence of the proposed rejection of the bill for immediate negotiations with Norway, the Swedish ministry resigns....The South Australian ministry resigns, and Mr. Price, the Labor leader, forms a new ministry.

July 26.—The Swedish Riksdag approves the report of the special committee on the Norwegian rupture....The British House of Commons rejects the introduction of a bill to limit the life of Parliament to five years....The women's franchise bill is passed in the Victorian parliament, Australia....The committee on foreign affairs of the French Chamber adopts resolutions dealing with the far East and suggests agreement with Great Britain regarding Siam.

July 27.—The proposals of the special committee on the settlement with Norway are unanimously adopted in the Swedish Riksdag; the Norwegian government proposes a referendum on the dissolution of the union with Sweden....Russian police visit the houses of the president and secretary of the bureau of the zemstvo at Moscow; they seize all documents relating to the congress.

July 29.—The Czar of Russia summons a special commission to meet on August 2 to give final consideration to the project for a national assembly.

July 31.—Martial law is proclaimed in the British section of Crete.

August 1.—The Czar of Russia holds a council of the grand dukes, the ministry, and other officials on the plan of a national assembly.

August 5.—The Russian Government decides to issue another internal loan of \$100,000,000....The assassin of General Count Schuvalov, the prefect of police of Moscow, is sentenced to death by a court-martial.

August 7.—King Oscar again appoints Crown Prince Gustav regent of Sweden....A new cabinet is formed in The Netherlands, with Prof. G. A. Van Harmel as premier and M. Van Swinderen as minister of foreign



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DEPOSITING THE REMAINS OF JOHN PAUL JONES IN THE VAULT AT ANNAPOLIS.

affairs....An assemblage of 20,000 Finns at Helsingfors demands sweeping changes in the government.

August 8.—The plan for a national assembly is approved by the Russian council at Peterhoff.

August 11.—The Cuban Supreme Court denies the appeal of Juan O'Farrill, who was removed from the office of mayor of Havana by Governor Nunez.

August 12.—The Venezuelan Congress votes estimates amounting to \$11,000,000, the largest ever granted.

August 13.—The vote in Norway on the question of separation from Sweden is practically unanimous for dissolution.

August 14.—The Polish novelist Sienkiewicz is sentenced to detention for an indeterminate period in his residence for signing and publishing papers in protest against the Russification of schools in Poland.

August 15.—The members of the Cuban Moderate party effect a compromise with Governor Nunez, leader of the Nationalist party.

August 18.—The Russian Czar issues a manifesto proclaiming a national consultative assembly, election to which shall be by indirect vote.

August 20.—Lord Curzon resigns as viceroy of India; the Earl of Minto is appointed his successor.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

July 20.—Premier Rouvier, of France, and Prince von Radolin arrange details of an international conference on Morocco.

July 21.—China, in a note to the powers, declares that no provision in the Russo-Japanese peace treaty affecting the Chinese Empire will be held valid without her approval.

July 23.—The Czar of Russia and the Emperor of Germany have a conference off Borgo, Finland.

July 25.—The Hague tribunal meets to arbitrate upon the Anglo-French difference on the Muscat affair....Secretary Taft and his party have an enthusiastic reception in Japan.

July 27.—Baron Komura and Minister Takahira have a long conference with President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay.

July 29.—The boycott of American trade among Chinese in Shanghai is reported as effective.

July 30.—Danes oppose the German Emperor's reported plan to close the Baltic Sea.

July 31.—Emperor William of Germany visits the King of Denmark....Japan secures from Korea the opening of three ports to the world's trade....Russia declares her willingness to withdraw the retaliatory duties on American goods.

August 1.—The Chinese draft of a proposed treaty with the United States on the immigration question is made public.

August 2.—Premier Rouvier gives the German ambassador to France his views on the scope of the Moroccan conference.

August 3.—Representatives of the Korean people memorialize President Roosevelt, invoking American aid....The Sultan of Morocco is reported unwilling to hold an international conference, fearing a dismemberment of his country by the European powers....Emperor William of Germany concludes his visit to Copenhagen....It is announced that England and France are negotiating for the joint construction of a railway through the Yang-tse valley of China.

August 4.—Count Witte and Baron Rosen, the Russian peace plenipotentiaries, make an informal call on President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay....The Venezuelan federal Court of Cassation confirms the previous judgment against the French Cable Company.



MR. HENRY W. DENISON.

(Counsel of the Japanese peace envoys.)

August 5.—The peace plenipotentiaries of Russia and Japan meet and are introduced by President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay; they then sail on United States naval vessels for Portsmouth, N. H....The Shanghai Chamber of Commerce endeavors to check the boycott of American goods; Chinese in Yokohama refuse to handle American freight.

August 8.—The peace envoys of Russia and Japan arrive at Portsmouth, N. H., and are welcomed by the governor of the State.

August 9.—King Edward of England reviews the French and British fleets off Portsmouth....The Rus-

sian and Japanese envoys meet at Portsmouth, N. H., and informally exchange credentials.

August 10.—The Japanese peace terms are presented to the Russian envoys in the conference at Portsmouth, N. H., and transmitted to the Czar.

August 12.—The Japanese peace envoys receive the Russian answer to their conditions, and the conference proceeds to a consideration of the twelve articles serialim....The arbitration court considering the Anglo-French convention relating to Newfoundland awards \$375,000 to French fishermen obliged to leave the French Shore in consequence of the terms of the treaty.

August 14.—An agreement is reached on three of the Japanese conditions in the peace conference at Portsmouth, N. H.; a delegation of American Hebrews holds a conference with Mr. Witte regarding the condition of Russian Jews.

August 15.—The peace envoys agree on two more of the Japanese proposals.

August 16.—The Sultan of Morocco refuses the French minister's demands for an indemnity and the release of an Algerian chief and claims jurisdiction over all Algerian settlers....The Chinese foreign board orders the viceroy of Shanghai to suppress the boycott on American trade.

August 17.—A deadlock is reached in the Russo-Japanese peace conference at Portsmouth, N. H.

August 18.—The Russo-Japanese peace conference adjourns until August 22; Baron Kentaro Kaneko, of Japan, visits President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay.

August 19.—Baron Rosen, one of the Russian peace envoys, confers with President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay, at the President's invitation.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

July 21.—Japanese warships arrive at the mouth of the Amur and open fire.

July 22.—The Russian battleship *Poltava*, sunk in Port Arthur harbor, is refloated.

July 23.—The Japanese close in on Vladivostok.

July 26.—Tokio is *en fête* in honor of Secretary Taft's arrival.

July 28.—The Japanese consider their occupation of Saghalien virtually complete.

July 31.—The Japanese report the surrender of the Russian garrison of Saghalien, under Governor Liapinov, with 70 officers, 3,200 men, and supplies.

August 1.—The Japanese establish civil government in Saghalien, and Russia officially closes her post-offices there.

August 2.—The flooding of the Tumen River prevents the Russians in fortifications to the south from falling back on Vladivostok.

August 4.—The advance guards of both armies are

reported within rifle range south of the Tumen River; Japanese warships are off Vladivostok.

August 6.—The Japanese main army in Manchuria is now said to number 430,000 men, with 1,600 guns.

August 7.—The Russians are reported as hastily fortifying and mining the mouth of the Amur River.

August 8.—A Japanese force is reported at Port Imperator, one hundred and fifty miles south of Castries Bay.

August 11.—Admiral Kataoka reports a sharp action on the southern coast of Saghalien in which 125 Russians are made prisoners.

August 15.—The Japanese in Manchuria report a reconnaissance in force along the Kirin road, the Russian outposts being driven north....Admiral Kataoka reports a landing and action on the Siberian coast in the Strait of Tartary.

August 19.—The weather causes a cessation of hostilities in Manchuria.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

July 20.—The teamsters' strike in Chicago is officially declared off.

July 21.—A boiler explosion on the United States gunboat *Bennington*, in the harbor of San Diego, Cal., kills sixty of the crew and seriously injures many others.

July 22.—The United States naval squadron arrives at Annapolis with the remains of Paul Jones....Havana declares quarantine against New Orleans because of yellow fever.

July 23.—Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, appeals for aid for the flood sufferers in that State....Under



GENERAL LIAPINOV.
(Governor of the island of
Saghalien.)



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THE GUNBOAT "BENNINGTON," IN SAN DIEGO HARBOR,
AFTER THE EXPLOSION.

decision of the State Supreme Court, the Kansas oil producers abandon the fight against the Standard Oil Company.

July 24.—The remains of Paul Jones are placed in a temporary vault at Annapolis with the highest honors.

July 25.—Secretary Taft and his party are enthusiastically received in Japan.

July 26.—Paul Morton is elected president of the Equitable Life Assurance Society....Peary's Arctic expedition sails from North Sydney, Cape Breton.

July 27.—In an accident on the Lancashire & Yorkshire Railway line near Liverpool twenty persons are killed and many injured....The Zionist congress meets at Basle, Switzerland; Max Nordau is elected president....More than forty Equitable Society policy-holders begin suit to place the society's assets in the hands of a receiver, alleging insolvency....Yellow fever appears at various places in the Gulf States.

July 30.—The Zionist congress at Basle rejects by a large majority the British offer of land for a colony in East Africa.

August 2.—The fiftieth anniversary of the opening of the ship canal is celebrated at Sault Sainte Marie, Mich....Rioting results from a teamsters' strike in San Juan, Porto Rico....Serious financial troubles result from heavy sugar-trade failures in Paris.

August 5.—The National Civic Federation appoints a commission to study municipal ownership throughout the world.

August 6.—Three Chinamen are shot dead and several others severely injured in a Chinese theater in New York City.

August 7.—Fire destroys several ferryboats, ferry slips, and depot buildings of the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad at Hoboken, N. J., the total damage amounting to nearly \$2,000,000....The yellow fever in New Orleans spreads to the residential section....Secretary Taft and his party are accorded a great reception at Manila.

August 8.—St. Thomas' Protestant Episcopal Church in New York City is destroyed by fire....The collapse of a department store in Albany, N. Y., causes the death of fourteen persons, all employees of the store.

August 10.—President Roosevelt addresses a great meeting of miners at Wilkesbarre, Pa....The rescue of the Ziegler Arctic expedition under the command of Anthony Fiala, of Brooklyn, by the relief expedition commanded by W. S. Champ, on the *Terra Nova*, is announced.

August 11.—President Roosevelt addresses 10,000 persons on the Chautauqua assembly grounds.

August 12.—The United States battleship *Kansas* is launched at Camden, N. J.

August 13.—An Indian village near Ashcroft, Manitoba, is swept away by a rise in the waters of Thompson River caused by a mountain landslide....The collision of a passenger train with a freight train on the N. Y., C. & St. L. R. R., near Vermillion, Ohio, causes the death of twelve persons.

August 14.—Judge Plumley, of Vermont, as referee in the French claims against Venezuela, allows \$636,212 of the \$3,215,245 demanded.

August 16.—The National Reciprocity Conference meets in Chicago....The British Association for the

Advancement of Science begins its sessions at Cape Town, South Africa.

OBITUARY.

July 21.—Rev. Dean Richmond Babbitt, D.D., of Brooklyn, N. Y., 54.

July 22.—Rev. Frank Russell, D.D., an authority on penology and prison reform, 65.

July 23.—Jean Jacques Henner, a well-known French artist, 76....Dr. Juan Pablo Rojas Paul, former president of Venezuela, 60.

July 24.—President William L. Prather, of Texas State University, 57.

July 26.—Maj.-Gen. Sir G. R. Hennessy, 68.

July 27.—Prof. A. S. Wilkens, 61....Sir Montagu Gerard, 62.

July 28.—Bishop Isaac W. Joyce, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 69....John Carbutt, a well-known photographer, 73.

July 30.—Canon D. J. Vaughan, 79....Edward Lyman Short, author of legal treatises and pamphlets, 51.

August 1.—Prof. Benjamin Blake Minor, a well-known Virginian educator and historian, 87....Sir Ambrose Shea, formerly governor of the Bahama Islands, 87....Ex-Congressman John Dougherty, of Missouri, 48....Will Cumbback, author, politician, and lecturer, 76.

August 3.—Bishop Robert K. Hargrove, of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, 76....James R. Carnahan, major-general of uniform rank, Knights of Pythias, 64.

August 4.—Judge S. S. Wade, formerly chief justice of Montana Territory, 60.

August 5.—Gen. Roy Stone, veteran of the Civil War and the Spanish-American War, 69.

August 6.—Capt. Evan P. Howell, for many years prominently identified with Southern journalism, 65....Alexander Asher, M.P., at one time solicitor-general for Scotland, 70.

August 7.—Alexander Melville Bell, the inventor of "visible speech" for deaf mutes, 86.

August 8.—Rev. Herman Rust, D.D., professor emeritus of the Heidelberg Theological Seminary at Tiffin, Ohio, 89....Willard Merrill, for many years vice-president of the Northwestern Mutual Life Insurance Company, of Milwaukee, Wis., 79....Pearson E. Gruger, sculptor and designer, 71.

August 9.—Archbishop Placide Louis Chapelle, of the diocese of Louisiana, 63....Gen. Emmons Clark, veteran of the Civil War, 78.

August 10.—Ex-Congressman Francis Marvin, of New York, 77.

August 11.—Rear-Admiral Andrew E. K. Benham, U. S. N. (retired), 73....Rev. William H. Steele, D.D., of the Reformed Church.

August 12.—Rev. Robert F. Sample, an eminent Presbyterian clergyman, 77....Rev. James Conway, S.J., of New York City, 56.

August 17.—Capt. Lyman Hall, president of the Georgia School of Technology, 46....L. A. Somers, veteran telegrapher, of Cleveland, Ohio, 66.

August 20.—Adolph Guillaume Bouguereau, the eminent French artist, 80....Hon. David Wark, member of the Canadian Senate, believed to be the oldest legislator in the world, 101.

SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



REVISED.

MR. WITTE: "With these few little changes, my dear Komura, we accept your terms."

From the *American* (New York).



INTERVIEWING BARON KOMURA.

From the *Press* (New York).



IS THIS THE "YELLOW PERIL" FEARED BY MR. WITTE?
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



KOMURA (as a palmist): "Why, you have had trouble, and you are about to part with a large sum of money."
From the *World* (New York).



RUSSIA AS A RIVAL OF AMERICA'S PUBLIC-SPIRITED MILLIONAIRES.—From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



ANGEL OF PEACE: "Gentlemen, if you wish to enter here you will have to get down from your high horses."
From the *Evening News* (Detroit).

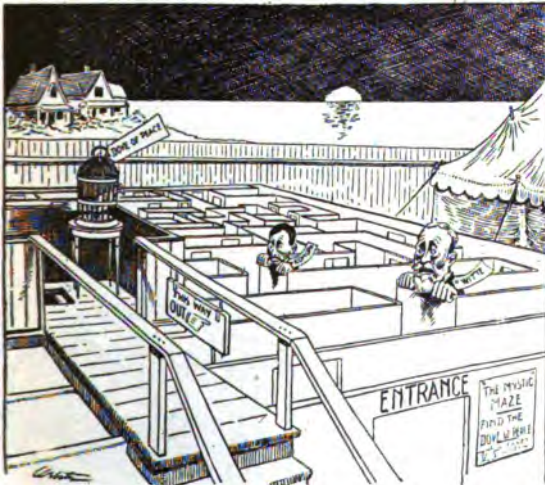


THE RUSSIAN ENVOY IS SO INTERESTED IN THE JEWS.

MR. WITTE (to the Jewish bankers): "Now we shall have such a pleasant little chat about those poor, dear Jews in Russia."

(From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).)

The visit of the five influential American Hebrews to Mr. Witte in the interest of their oppressed brethren in Russia is treated of on another page of this issue.



WITTE AND KOMURA IN THE MYSTIC MAZE AT PORTSMOUTH.

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).

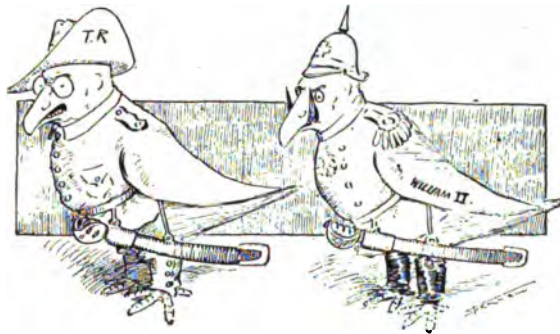
If the arrival at any kind of agreement was half as difficult for the peace envoys themselves as it was for the newspapers and the outside world, the conference must have been a mystic maze indeed.



CHINA DEMANDS A HEARING.

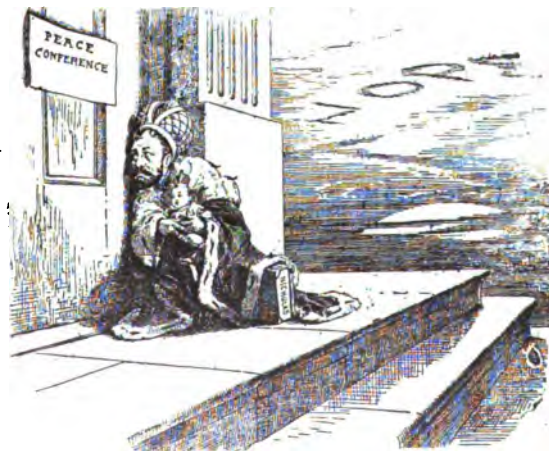
Having lost her territory, and suffered untold miseries and pains, and seeing the despoilers of her peace about to settle their differences by dividing up her possessions, China demands a hearing of her grievances.

From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



THE TWO DOVES OF PEACE.

From the *World-Herald* (Omaha).



THE CZAR WAITING FOR THE VERDICT.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



THE MATCH-MAKER IN SPITE OF HERSELF.

Mlle. La France (aside to John Bull): "If she's going to glare at us like that, it almost looks as if we might have to be regularly engaged."—From *Punch* (London).



HANDS ACROSS THE CHANNEL.

"Strangers once but lovers now."

From the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle* (New York).

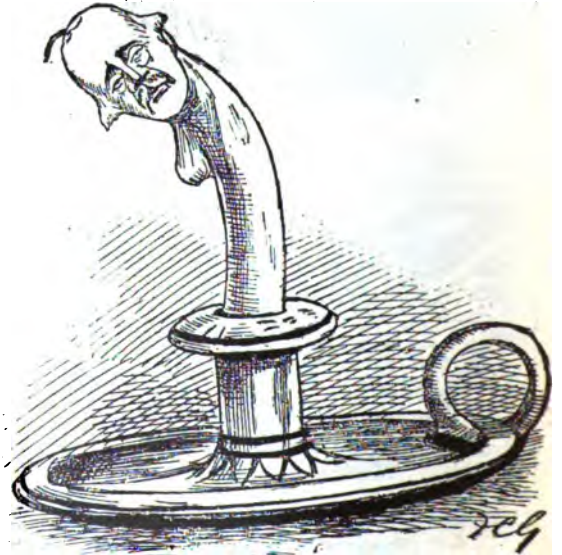
The principal event in the foreign relations of Great Britain during the past month was the *entente cordiale* with France, bringing with it an increased enmity of the Anglophobes in Germany.



WAKING HIS BIG BROTHER.—THE YELLOW PERIL TO AUSTRALIA.

From the *Bulletin* (Sydney).

SOME OF GREAT BRITAIN'S DOMESTIC, COLONIAL, AND FOREIGN PROBLEMS.



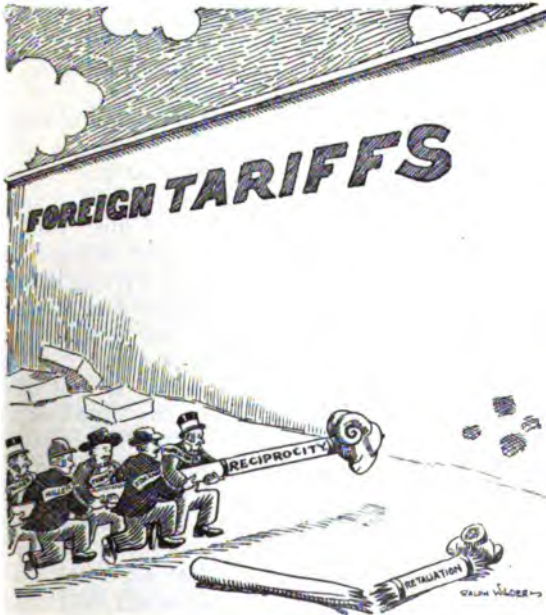
THE BALFOUR MINISTRY HOLDS ON.

"I may collapse, but I won't dissolve."

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

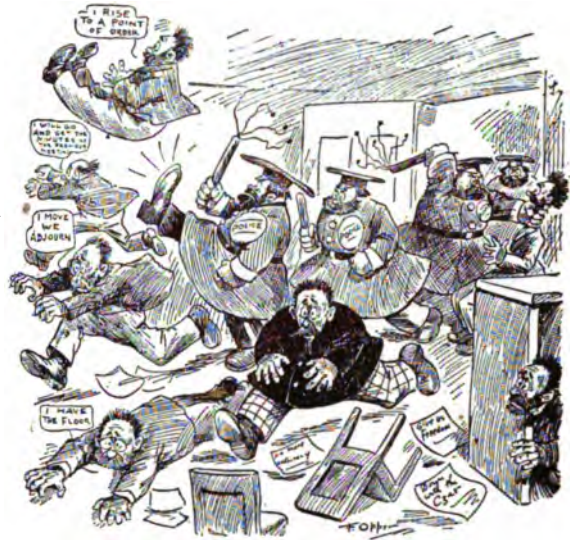


THE WEARY WAYFARER: "I wouldn't swap my old hat for both the Sultan's fez and the Czar's crown."—From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



RECIPROCITY SEEMS TO MAKE A BETTER BATTERING RAM THAN RETALIATION.

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



HOW THE RUSSIAN ZEMSTVO CONGRESS MAY YET END.
From the *American* (New York).

Now that the Czar has announced the coming National Assembly, the cartoonists are beginning to speculate as to just how much freedom and opportunity that body will really possess. Mr. Oppen, in his own inimitable way, indicates one method of "expurgating" a troublesome legislative body. The other cartoon at the top of this page plays upon the comparative value of the uneasy head that wears a crown and the care-free life of the ordinary citizen. A couple of the more significant cartoons on American subjects—there are only a few this month—appear below.



PORTO RICO: "Uncle Sam, let me get out where it is deep."—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

SERGIUS WITTE.*

BY E. J. DILLON.

A GROUP of bright, happy children were asked some time ago by one of their elders to say what they would wish to be when grown up. Whereupon the one made answer that he would like to become an engineer, another coveted the position of judge, a third chose the calling of a sea captain, and a fourth selected that of a doctor. Meanwhile, one little boy remained silent and thoughtful, as though turning over in his brain the pros and cons of each profession. He was the last to speak, and this is what he said: "I think I should like to be a god." "What do you mean?" exclaimed one of the horrified elders. "Well, you see, there is only one god now, and he has an awful lot to do and no one to help him. There are plenty of judges and engineers, who divide the work among them, but there is no other god."

If that story were told of the childhood of Sergius Witte it would be peculiarly characteristic of that extraordinary man. For his ambition is literally boundless, his activity unflagging, while his daring conceptions and grandiose achievements entitle him to be regarded as one of the creators rather than one of the human products of his country. He has not only traced the lines of a new Russia in the light of latter-day requirements, but he has actually built some of its most imposing edifices.

WITTE'S BIRTH AND EARLY TRAINING.

Sergius Yulyevich Witte first saw the light of day in the Caucasus, where nature is sublime and man audacious. From the windows of his father's house he could gaze upon vast historic hills piled upon each other's shoulders since the battle between Zeus and the Titans, and from the lips of Armenians, Georgians, Ossetinians, Lezghins, or Mingrelians he heard stirring stories of heroic struggles lost or won on that battlefield of the human race. Of his youth, the biographer—deficient in clairvoyance—is silent. Like most Russian collegians, Witte possibly had a keen eye for the evil in the world, an overmastering desire to remedy it without delay, and a firm conviction that he was capable of re-

forming and remodeling all human institutions without more ado. Or it may be that young Sergius was an exception to the rule,—for his mind had a realistic bent from the very first. It was mathematical, positive, attracted by the concrete. For theories, as such, he had little taste, but was very eager to apply his knowledge, to test his strength.

From the public grammar school of Tiflis young Witte repaired to the Imperial New University of Odessa. It was a necessary stage in his career. No young Russian can hope to play any prominent part in the affairs of his country unless his qualifications have been hall-marked by one of the highest educational establishments in the empire, such as the universities, the High School of Law, the Lyceum, the Corps des Pages, or one of the military or naval institutions. He may not acquire great stores of knowledge there,—indeed, anything he knows he generally acquires by his own efforts,—but, little or much, it must bear the official impress. Otherwise he is a nobody—fit only for literature or commerce. At the university, Witte was matriculated in the mathematical faculty, where, after the indispensable four years, he obtained his degree of candidate, which is usually reckoned as equal to a doctor's degree at a German university. With that diploma he was qualified, not only to enter the state service in any department of any ministry, but also to qualify further at the university,—as he indeed fully intended to do,—and try for a professorial chair. Not until he had taken his degree did Witte travel beyond his own country, and then he visited Vienna, Paris, and Berlin. But he did not stay long—much less study—there. He made but flying visits and short sojourns, reading as he ran.

What he would have done had he not been compelled by fate to look upon the world as his oyster to be opened without delay, it is impossible to say. I know that he was anxious to devote himself to study, for the degree of master and doctor. But that meant time, leisure, and the means of living without working for a salary. And that was a luxury which Witte could not afford. Almost as soon as he left the Odessa University, he had to do something for a living, and was therefore compelled to give up his scheme of study and his hopes of a university chair.

* Witte, not De Witte. The particle "de" does not exist in Russian; neither is there any equivalent. Many Russians adopt it abroad just to show that they belong to the nobility. Witte never does.

HIS START AS A RAILROAD MAN.

Because he had to earn his livelihood, many quick writers who feel invisibly drawn toward self-made men have described Witte as the son of a horny-handed peasant, wrestling manfully with fate, like Nicholas Breakspear, Nicholas of Cusa, or some contemporary of Abelard, then elbowing his way through a crowded and unfriendly world, and advancing step by step from the lowliest post to the rank of Vice-Czar of All the Russias. Some amateur biographers affirm that he began his career as a railway guard, others make him a signalman, and one or two give him the post of conductor. The story thus told is romantic, encouraging, and groundless.

Sergius Witte was born into the world as the son of a Russian bureaucrat, who in time became director of one of the departments of the ministry of imperial domains. In other words, he was by birth a member of the nobility, to which "happy accident" he himself attaches but little importance. Through his mother, *née* Fadeyeff, he is related to the Dolgoroukis and the so-called Rurikoviches, or, as they would say in England, "his ancestors came over with William the Conqueror." Prince Khilkoff, now the minister of ways and communications, was at one time an engine-driver in the United States, but Sergius Witte began his career as assistant station-master in a dull, out-of-the-way place in the south of Russia. That was the lowest rung of the ladder from which he climbed up to dizzy heights of a power not far removed from autocracy.

In those days the Russian Steamship Company, whose headquarters were at Odessa, had built a network of railways to feed its fleet of steamers with cargoes, and it was on one of these lines that Witte took service. Only the first step was hard; after that, promotion was quick and continuous. Industrious and observant by nature and training, Witte was endowed with the gift of combining facts, marshaling them in new ways, discovering relations among them theretofore unsuspected. And in the light of these relations he would then draw up practical rules for the guidance of specialists or laws embodying the results of his observation. One of his first works was a book upon railway tariffs. Nobody in Russia had ever before taken the slightest interest in the matter—nobody even then fancied it had any actuality. Yet that very question to which Witte gave a good working solution years ago still awaits settlement in the United States. No doubt the terms of the problem in America are very different

from what they were in Russia—different in magnitude, and divergent in character, too. None the less, the fact that several years ago Witte should have discerned the part played by railway tariffs in the material well-being of the country is a fair indication of his mental powers. About the same period, he displayed a keen interest in political economy and foresaw many of the possibilities which the cautious application of certain established principles bade fair to open up for Russia. Lasting evidence of that interest which Witte has never since wholly lost is to be found in his Russian translation of a German work on the subject by the famous writer List.

"AN ARDENT WORKER, A SPLENDID ORGANIZER."

The Russian Steamship Company soon perceived that in the person of Witte they had enlisted an ardent worker, a splendid organizer, and a man wont to labor to-day in view of the requirements of to-morrow, of next month, next year. And, oddly enough, they knew how to prize these gifts. They pushed him onward and upward from rung to rung of the ladder until, still quite young, he found himself director of the South Western Railway, which then extended over about fifteen hundred miles. This rapid promotion he owed largely but not wholly to the appreciative eye of the president of that line, Vyshnegradski. And when later on Vyshnegradski received the portfolio of minister of finance, Witte was nominated to the vacant post of president of the South Western Railway system. The finances of Russia were then in the hands of a university professor, Bunge, whose views on taxation I personally considered, and do still consider, sound. He held that it is better that there should be a deficit in the annual budget for one year,—nay, for many years,—than that the peasants should be taxed to the uttermost, because as soon as the bulk of the taxpaying nation is prosperous the treasury can proceed without danger to tap the national wealth. But not before.

With these ideas the Czar began to be dissatisfied, because whenever he needed money for his plans, especially for the Siberian Railway, he was told that there was none. Soft words butter no parsnips. He then called Vyshnegradski to the post of minister, and at once a great change in the system was effected. The foundation was then laid of that "available balance" which has played such a part in Russian history ever since. It owes its origin to taxation. The money earned by the peasants was transferred to the treasury by a stroke of the imperial pen. The procedure was not more dif-

ficult than that, but the consequences were more complex than the uninitiated reader can realize. More corn had to be sold and exported than before in order to keep the imperial income greater than the expenditure, and railways had to be constructed solely in order to facilitate the conveyance of the peasants' harvests to the seaports. Now, I hold that that corn was necessary to the peasants and not part of their surplus. Therefore, I am unable, despite my sincere admiration of Witte's intellectual powers, to enter that policy of Vyshnegradski, which was also his, to his credit account. To my mind, the vast piles of gold in the treasury vaults of St. Petersburg constitute a monument to the impoverishment of the Russian people.

However that may be, Vyshnegradski, once minister of finance, speedily summoned Witte to the capital, created a new department of railways for his behoof, charged him with the unification of railway tariffs, and profited by his ingenuity and skill in framing and executing the principal new measures. When one day the post of minister of ways and communications was unexpectedly vacated under curious circumstances, Vyshnegradski, who enjoyed the confidence of Alexander III., had the portfolio given to Witte. The cholera was then ravaging the country, for the people, weakened by the famine of the preceding year, had no physical power of resistance left. They were also rising up against the authorities in many places, for they suspected the government of deliberately infecting them with disease. Witte made a tour throughout the cholera-stricken districts, adopted energetic measures to hinder it from spreading, circumscribed the area of its ravages, and tranquilized the people.

HE BUILDS THE TRANS-SIBERIAN.

Before he had accomplished much in his new post,—indeed, before he had discharged the duties for a twelvemonth,—Vyshnegradski, after a slight stroke of paralysis, tendered his resignation, and Witte was called to succeed him. This was in 1892. Now, Alexander III. then and down to the day of his death set great store by Sergius Witte, whose frankness,—which often borders on brusqueness, and whose sincerity is sometimes mistaken for rudeness,—he warmly admired, and whose advice he always accepted. The truth is that the Czar had one fixed idea, which he looked to Witte to incarnate in a grandiose undertaking that should render Russia famous for all time. That idea was afterward realized in the form of the Trans-Siberian Railway. It was not new, nor did Witte first conceive it. In the fifties of last century it had

been broached, discussed, abandoned. An engineer named Dool, for instance, had proposed that a gigantic horse tramway be constructed across Siberia to the Pacific, and that it be roofed over with wood to protect it from the arctic cold of winter. In the seventies the idea had hardened into a serious project, and in the eighties it seized hold of the imperial mind. But the Russian Czar, who is credited with omnipotence, could not get his railway built. Everybody told him it was difficult, nobody could say where the money was to come from, and the utmost he could effect was to have some sixty or seventy miles of it built in the course of a year.

Witte came and changed all this. Like Calonne, he said, "If it is possible, it is done; if impossible, it shall be done." But, unlike Calonne, he kept his word. At first, indeed, he groped about blindly, feeling his way, stumbling here, clashing with obstacles there, but profiting by every let and hindrance almost as much as by every step in advance. Witte is no theorizer. He is a man of business whose real and full strength is called forth by contact with hard realities, just as the strength of Neptune's son Anteus was invariably renewed whenever he touched mother earth. Witte's first plans for providing the money for the railway were marked by naïveté. They were those of his friend, Professor Antonovich, who pinned his faith to the government printing-press. "Issue as much paper money as you need and pay with that." After a time, however, he saw that this plan had its drawbacks; he next discerned that these outweighed the advantages, and he finally came to the conclusion that the project would not work at all. Simultaneously with this discovery he hit upon the efficacious ways and means by which he afterward united Europe and Asia, connecting the Atlantic with the Pacific.

It is impossible in a sketch which must be short and eclectic to unfold the complex scheme to which Witte attached his name for all time. Its ramifications ran through every department of political, social, and commercial life in Russia. Its effects, like those of a revolution, will not all disengage themselves for generations to come. That scheme comprised the reform of the Imperial Bank, the introduction of a gold standard, and the fixation of the value of the ruble; the extensive employment of foreign capital, the establishment of an alcohol monopoly, the development of savings-banks, the spread of technical education, the emancipation of peasants, dissenters, and heretics, as well as Jews, from the galling network of special restrictive legislation. In a word, it embodied all the practical corollaries of the incipient reform inaugurated by

Alexander II. when he struck the rusty chains off the limbs of millions of serfs. It is hardly too much to say that a good deal, perhaps most, of what is good or hope giving in the Russia of to-day owes its origin, its preservation, or its development to the insight and energy of Sergius Witte, as manifested in this "revolution from above."

"A CREATOR RATHER THAN A PRODUCT OF HIS NATIVE LAND."

Witte is a man of strong temperament, kindly disposition, is generally fair to his enemies, always loyal to his friends, and continuously polar with all humanity. His faults are the exaggerations of his qualities or their indirect results. In his case, the needle of human perfection, intellectual or other, trembles and does not invariably point to the north. He has made many mistakes, because of his habit of learning mainly from experience, whose school fees are exorbitant. As the most serious of all I set down his system of taxation. But much will be forgiven to him by history because he has accomplished much. He is in sympathetic touch with every class, every element of society, in Russia, and has a firm grasp upon the deepest strain of thought and feeling there. Being himself alive in every fiber, he delights in seeing the vital forces of others deployed, for his attitude toward subordinates and fellow-workers is encouragement, not restraint. Even at its best,

the political and social framework of Russian society gives but little scope for healthy human energies,—all the greater, therefore, is the need of bracing sympathy and stimulus.

Witte is gifted with a degree of intuition little short of prophetic. He foresaw the war with Japan years before it broke out, and most of the salient events of the past twelve months he predicted several years ago. A man of that caliber who sees when his fellows are blind, speaks out when others are tongue-tied, and works when they are idle, must of necessity have many and unscrupulous enemies. In his own country, Witte is generally unduly praised or immoderately blamed, and most of the literary portraits of him are little better than caricatures. Much water will flow from the Neva into the Finnish Gulf before a faithful picture of the man as he lived and worked can be drawn and painted. As physically he towers above the common run of men, so intellectually he is often able to take a much wider survey than they can of things beyond the narrow horizon of the moment. As I remarked in the beginning of this article, he is a creator rather than a product of his native land. Sergius Witte is to his countrymen what Anglo-Saxon America is to the rest of the globe. But however great his inborn gifts, and however serious his various errors, the impartial biographer will characterize him in the words of the great German poet: "His striving was with loving, his living was in deed."

EUROPEAN ALLIANCES AND THE WAR.

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG.

THE fundamental principle underlying the politics of Europe since the middle of the seventeenth century has been that of the balance of power,—a principle which manifests itself upon the surface in a more or less automatic arrangement whereby the great states insure themselves mutually against the dangerous predominance of any one of their number. But no mistake could be greater than to suppose that as a consequence of all the shifts and turns of European politics a stable and permanent balance has at last been reached. The growth of a general desire for peace and of willingness to submit to arbitration in cases which formerly would have involved war will doubtless operate somewhat, in the future, to keep international relations in fixed channels; yet the large enterprises

of trade, expansion, and colonization in which the nations engage, as well as possible war, must perpetually give rise to new attractions and repulsions among the leading powers. And, indeed, we may believe, not only that further changes are inevitable, but that important ones are near at hand,—even already in progress. For at least five or six years, careful students of politics have been discerning a growing unsettlement in European affairs which seemed to foreshadow another periodic shifting of international alignments, and since the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese war, especially since the course of the conflict has become manifest, what had been a rather vague presentiment has become a firm conviction. The exigencies of the war have been just what was needed to bring into clear view

certain tendencies and developments which from their nature must otherwise have remained for some time more or less obscure.

And now that military operations in the far East have been practically suspended and the belligerent powers are taking active steps toward the restoration of peace, the time may not be inopportune to survey the main features of the political and economic situation in Europe with reference to the changes thus wrought directly or indirectly by the conflict. Obviously, such a summary cannot be complete, or entirely conclusive even so far as it goes, for we are yet in the midst of things, and judgments as to the outcome can be at best but tentative. Nevertheless, the larger aspects of the situation stand out with considerable prominence, and taking all things into account, it does not seem that they would be materially modified in event of the prolongation of the war, save by an unexpectedly sweeping Russian victory. Further fighting with continued Japanese success would only hasten and intensify most of the changes of which we are about to speak. Should the Portsmouth Conference terminate in the conclusion of peace, it will not much matter what the precise terms may be. The great outstanding fact will be in any case the thorough, though not fatal, defeat of Russia, and this is the fact more than any other which is proving so potent just now in the unsettling of Europe.

EUROPE'S POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT.

Any attempt to measure the results of the war from the standpoint of European politics must presuppose a clear understanding of what the situation was, on the surface, at least, at the outbreak of hostilities. Modern Europe contains nineteen states with some degree of military power. Of these, only six have entered into any sort of foreign alliance which still endures. These are Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Russia, France, and Great Britain,—the first three being members of the triple alliance, the next two composing the dual alliance, and the last having no European affiliation, but being closely allied with the rising power of the East, Japan. These three alliances, together with (1) a general hostility between Germany on the one hand and Russia, France, and Great Britain on the other, (2) a striking *entente cordiale* between France and Great Britain, (3) a traditional harmony between Great Britain and Italy, and (4) a strong rivalry, but not an open hostility, between Great Britain and Russia, made up the essential features of the European balance as it existed before the war began to affect it.

The triple alliance, which dates from 1883, was an outgrowth of German ascendancy in the Congress of Berlin in 1878 and during the years immediately following. Prior to that time, since the creation of the new German Empire, in 1871, Germany had had closer relations with Russia than with any other power; but at the Berlin Congress the two states were perceptibly alienated, because the former acquiesced with ill-concealed satisfaction in the policy of the other powers whereby Russia was forced to give up most of the fruits of her Turkish war; and when, in 1881, Alexander II. was succeeded by his son, Alexander III., who was personally hostile to German influence, the rupture became such as seriously to threaten international amity. In the same period, Austria became an avowed antagonist of Russia, mainly because of a rival ambition to control the interests of the Balkan Christians and to acquire commercial outlets on the Mediterranean. The upshot was that in 1879, at the instigation of Bismarck, Germany and Austria concluded a secret alliance "for peace and mutual defense," the arrangement being aimed clearly at the common enemy on the east.

THE DUAL ALLIANCE AND THE DREIBUND.

The re-grouping of the powers, set in motion largely by the Eastern question, was continued under the influence of rival colonial ambitions. At the Congress of Berlin, Bismarck sought further to assure the paramountcy of Germany by provoking a mutual antagonism between Italy and France. His method of doing this was to prompt them both to seize Tunis. Nothing resulted for a time, but in 1881 France, breaking promises she had repeatedly made to both Italy and Great Britain, occupied Tunis and proclaimed a protectorate. Italy was panic-stricken, believing that Tunis would be but a step to Tripoli, and that with all the north African shore in her possession France would "shut in Italy with a ring of iron" and make an easy descent on Sicily. Since 1870, Italy had been in doubt whether she could trust either France or Austria, for France was suspected of wishing to restore the temporal power of the Pope and Austria controlled the Italian Tyrol and Trieste, and was manifestly ambitious to secure yet more of a foothold on the Adriatic. The French seizure of Tunis settled the question.

In October, 1881, King Humbert paid a visit to Francis Joseph, and Italian statesmen went to Vienna and Berlin virtually as beggars for the admission of Italy to the alliance formed two years before. The outcome was the triple alliance as we know it to-day,—a defensive league

of the three powers professedly in the interest of the maintenance of peace in central Europe. Austria was glad enough to get Italian support in event of a war with Russia, and Bismarck was willing, of course, to reap the fruits of his planning by committing Italy definitely to a policy distinctly anti-French.

In France, the adhesion of Italy to Germany and Austria was looked upon as all but a declaration of war, the people absolutely refusing to believe that the purposes of the triplice were wholly defensive, as they were alleged to be, and therefore peaceful. The Roumelian revolution of 1885 obliged the powers to take sides, and in a little time both Russia and France found themselves actively opposing Germany, and even threatening war with her. By 1890, the Czar had finally decided to make open advances to France with a view to a formal understanding. Then came a notable series of ostentatious visits, felicitations, and expressions of mutual admiration which, although no specific terms of agreement were announced, soon gave Europe to understand that the Franco-Russian *entente* was a very real factor to be reckoned with. The existence of the alliance was not officially recognized in public by either of the two powers until during the course of a visit of President Faure at St. Petersburg. The Franco-Russian bond is a written treaty, with fixed conditions and mutual obligations, some known, others only guessed at, the original text having been considerably amplified by later secret clauses. It is generally understood that each nation binds itself to aid the other if attacked by more than one power, Japan being the only Asiatic nation regarded for this purpose as a "power." This alliance of France and Russia was based unquestionably on jealousy and suspicion of the parties to the triplice, and its effect has been to throw the Continent into two hostile camps, each watching the other's slightest movement, and to perpetuate for more than a decade the state of affairs usually referred to by publicists as the "armed peace."

NEW GROUPINGS OF THE POWERS.

One of the most obvious facts in the present political situation in Europe is the decadence of both the triple and dual alliances and the gravitation of the powers toward new affiliations. The old alliances are fast dying because they have always been essentially artificial creations of the politicians and conditions have so changed that there is no longer justification for their existence. Especially is this true of the triplice, which has never really had a solid foundation. Austria became a member of it only to keep

Prussia from extending her triumph of 1866, and to secure aid against Russia. Very soon thereafter, however, Bismarck quite characteristically concluded an "insurance" treaty with Russia against Austria, and from the moment this double-dealing became known at Vienna Austrian enthusiasm for the German alliance began to cool, and the Vienna government began to seek to establish better relations with Russia on its own account. In this policy there has recently been marked success, despite a certain amount of inevitable rivalry in the Balkan regions, and one very palpable effect of Russia's defeat in the present war must be to enhance her peaceful relations with Austria, and hence to render the latter even less dependent upon German protection. As a matter of fact, the internal condition of the dual monarchy is now so bad that an active policy in external affairs is quite inconceivable. The best the existing government can do is to keep together what it has, trusting to little less than a miracle to tide the nation over the crisis which must come with the death of Francis Joseph. All that is asked is immunity from outside interference. Danger from Russia being removed, at least for a time, there is little left to be gained by membership in the triplice. As a party to it, in so far as she can assert herself in international affairs at all, Austria can be only an absolutely trustworthy ally, even an obedient satellite, of Germany. Even at this she is not in a position to be of much service. The politicians at Berlin are perfectly well aware that in case of need the staff which the Hapsburg monarchy could offer would be poor support indeed. About the only object Germany can have in perpetuating the attachment is that if the death of Francis Joseph bring the dissolution of the dual monarchy she may be in a better position to profit territorially and commercially thereby. Naturally, this does not enhance its value from the standpoint of Vienna.

Even more contrary to nature and present interests is the identification of Italy with the alliance. When the Italian Government, in response to Bismarck's playing upon the fears and the vanity of Signor Crispi, decided to cast in its lot with the Teutonic powers and against France, it took a step adverse to every consideration of sentiment, and, in the long run, of interest as well. The French had been the Italians' liberators and the Austrians their oppressors, and the prosperity of Italy in every sense was utterly dependent upon close relations with her Latin neighbor. To-day, it may be said that Italy has no interest whatsoever in the maintenance of the alliance. For her it has ceased to exist, save in

name. Her people opposed it from the outset, and their opposition was never stronger than it is now. Every motive which induced Italy to enter the partnership has lost its force. To cite a single example,—whereas Bismarck furthered his policy by representing that clerical France was entirely at the command of the Vatican and was only awaiting a favorable moment to break up the new Italian unity and restore Rome to the Pope, to-day Germany herself has become the most trusted support of the Papacy in Europe, while France has struck it a deadly blow by cleaving asunder the political and ecclesiastical institutions whose interdependence constitutes the stronghold of the Catholic Church. There is no real community of interests between Italy and Germany, just as there is none between Italy and Austria. The majority of Italians feel that membership in the alliance means only continual cost and no gain. They know full well that it has brought their country little except a heavy, almost staggering, military expenditure.

The upshot of all this is that Italy to-day is far more friendly to all the great powers outside the triple alliance than to her colleagues within it. With Russia she has comparatively little to do,—certainly there is no one left who would attempt to shape Italian policy, as did Crispi, on the aphorism that "Italy cannot allow the Mediterranean to be turned into a Russian lake!" Russia has never really been feared by the Italians, and now in her hour of defeat she is regarded simply with polite indifference. On the other hand, the Italian reaction toward France has been one of the most conspicuous features of recent politics. That there is every reason for close relations between these two powers has already been pointed out, and now that Italy has at last recovered from the spell of Bismarckian diplomacy she has come to realize that she has been led far afield from her true interests. She now understands that French interference on behalf of the Pope is the sheerest dream, and that French colonial activity in North Africa is not necessarily a menace to her own interests there. Not only is Italy thus fast renewing her attachment to France, but she is strengthening her traditional friendship with Great Britain. The opinion of most Italians to day seems to be that while a formal alliance with either Great Britain or France may not be expedient, especially as the contingency of an attack upon Italy seems exceedingly remote, there is no possible benefit to be derived from playing the great power, at ruinous expense, in alliance with states like Germany and Austria, which are wholly unsympathetic and in no degree likely to trouble themselves with the pro-

motion of Italian interests. Knowing that big armaments follow alliances as the night the day, the Italians would gladly be free from any such entanglements. In practice the government simply ignores the existing arrangement, and does not hesitate to do as the other parties to it have repeatedly done,—i.e., enter into side-bargains quite incompatible with its spirit, if not also with its letter.

INFLUENCE OF THE FAR-EASTERN WAR.

The triple alliance has thus been going to pieces for reasons which are in no way connected with war in the far East. The Russian eclipse resulting from that war, however, must considerably accelerate the process,—first, by freeing Austria-Hungary from dread of Russian aggression; second, by confirming Italy in the belief that she has nothing to fear from Russia; and, third, by relieving Germany of a menace on her eastern border, and perhaps even by leading her to adopt the policy of alliance with the Muscovite power. Much more immediate, naturally, is likely to be the effect of the war upon the dual alliance, for one of the parties to it is the defeated belligerent. When hostilities began, a year and a half ago, the dual alliance was a far more substantial arrangement than the triplice, though it was admittedly not as firmly grounded as it once had been. Russia was unreservedly devoted to it, but France was less enthusiastic. The majority of Frenchmen were frank to admit that the alliance had been good policy and that France had profited by it, although from the outset the "Left" (Socialists, extreme Liberals, and Radicals) had professed to be shocked that the republic should depend for its security and prestige upon an alliance with an autocratic monarch. And, indeed, this dependence has been until recently very real. It was the Russian alliance absolutely that, after the effacement resulting from the Franco-Prussian War, raised the stricken nation once more to her old place of honor and influence in European affairs. It is characteristic of the French spirit that this fact is never forgotten; and yet it is but a sentimental consideration, which cannot be expected permanently to hold out against practical interests adverse to it, and, if the truth be told, in danger of being vanquished on its own grounds by French antipathy to the political and religious despotism suffered by the Russian people at the hands of their rulers. Viewed strictly as a matter of profit and loss, the French are certainly quite justified in feeling that the chief gainer from the alliance has been Russia. Enormous Russian loans have been taken up by

French capital, enabling the Czar's government to secure the funds for its vast internal improvements, and French support has made it easy, many times, for Russia to carry her point in the far East against England and Japan. Indeed, in recent years the critics have come to describe France's position as that of "tail to the Russian kite."

The war in the far East, and its revelation of Russia's corruption, internal weakness, and military inefficiency, has dealt the dual alliance a staggering blow; this much the publicists generally admit, though as to what the outcome will be there is little agreement. The course of the conflict has been a keen disappointment to France, not so much because she cares for Russia's fortunes in the Orient as because the Russian defeat has revealed such undreamed-of weakness on the part of her ally in Europe. She had begun to suspect that the Russian alliance was one-sided in its financial and political advantages; she now perceives that it is equally so in its military capacity. From the French point of view, there is therefore not much left to be said for the arrangement, except one very important thing,—namely, that France has loaned more than nine milliards of francs (\$1,800,000,000) on Russian securities and dare not pursue any policy which would endanger this investment. The day upon which Russia should be forced to repudiate or to compound with her foreign creditors, either because of the costliness of the present war or because the international money market can no longer meet Russia's insatiable financial requirements, would be one of almost unparalleled calamity for France. Russia's financial position is one of extraordinary strength, and yet a collapse is not inconceivable, especially if the war continue. Should it come, the dual alliance could not survive a month, both because of the indignation of the French at their losses and because Russia would have proved herself financially unable to be an efficient ally to France in case of war. As things now stand, the future of the alliance is wholly uncertain. The compact may be consolidated on existing lines; it may be modified by the admission of a third power, as Austria, or even Germany; it may be broken up completely.

THE POLICIES AND INFLUENCE OF GERMANY.

In a very large measure, the reaction of the war upon the triple and dual alliances, and therefore upon the politics of Europe in general, will be determined by the policies and influences of Germany. So far as now appears, the largest single consequence of the effacement of Russia is the preponderance which it gives to Germany

in the affairs of the Continent. The period from about 1854 to 1870 was one of French preponderance; that from 1870 to about 1890, one of German ascendancy; that from 1890 to the present war, one of Russian preponderance; and that following the defeat of Russia, one of renewed German paramountcy. The war has removed Russia's corrective weight in the European balance. When peace is made, this power will be exposed on two fronts, and the European will be the weaker,—unless a wholly unanticipated policy of retrenchment in Asia and corresponding aggression in Europe be fallen back upon. Germany will thus be left to work out her designs in central and western Europe with a free hand. Russia has long been Europe's most effective barrier to German aggression, and therefore one of the mainstays of the world's peace; her break-down has become the opportunity of the Kaiser's life. Germany is left incomparably the foremost military power of Europe.

German policy, under the shaping hand of Emperor William, is twofold,—to hold the hegemony of Europe and to build up a maritime and colonial power superior to that of Great Britain. Russia's preoccupation in the far East, and especially her series of defeats, has afforded a chance which the Berlin government has not been slow to seize to realize the first of these objects. The recent Morocco affair, with its sequel in the fall of the French foreign minister, M. Delcassé, is generally interpreted as a deeply designed *coup* on the part of the Emperor to humiliate France and reduce her to a subordinate position in European diplomacy. Knowing that the triple alliance is about extinct, and that this, together with English distrust of her intentions, will soon leave her isolated in Europe, Germany has manifestly been planning to crush her traditional enemy, if not by war, then by diplomacy, while Russia is too crippled to come to her assistance, and before Great Britain becomes aroused to the danger. The Russian defeat has already relieved Germany on the east, and if France can be forced to restrict her army the Kaiser can diminish expenditure on his own army and increase that on the fleet, with which his largest schemes are to be realized.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH RAPPROCHEMENT.

One of the most conspicuous features of European politics at the present day is the quite unprecedented *rapprochement* of Great Britain and France. The relations between these two nations have been growing constantly closer for three or four years past, until now each government, backed up by public opinion, seems to be fairly striving to outdo the other in tokens of

good-will and respect. The formal basis for this agreeable state of affairs is the Anglo-French convention signed at London, April 8, 1904. This agreement secured for France a British acknowledgment of her sphere of influence in Morocco, and for Great Britain a French pledge not to interfere with the British occupation of Egypt; and several other matters which might well have become grounds for serious conflict between the two powers were adjusted with mutual satisfaction. The significance of this convention lay largely in its date. The Russo-Japanese war had just begun, and people were anxiously inquiring how far the conflict was likely to spread. Inasmuch as Great Britain was an ally of Japan and France stood in a similar relation to Russia, it did not seem unreasonable to expect both of the great Western powers to be dragged into it. But, happily, neither was obliged by the terms of its affiliation to become a belligerent, and both were above all things else desirous of peace. The result was that while their Eastern allies were falling into deadly combat their own diplomats went steadily ahead with the work already begun, and, greatly to the world's surprise, concluded a most wholesome and far-reaching convention, giving every possible assurance of continued peace. Such a thing would have been utterly impossible a hundred, or even fifty, years ago.

The Anglo-French *entente* is eminently pleasing to several of the powers of Europe; to others it is a matter of indifference; to only two is it offensive. Russia dislikes it in so far as it has strengthened the determination of her ally not to be drawn into the war. And to Germany it is gall and wormwood. When the convention of 1904 was published, Emperor William made a brave effort to bide his time and until then conceal his feelings. But during the present year numerous expressions have come from him and his representatives which show the most uncompromising hostility to the arrangement. Chancellor von Bülow tried to represent to France that it is contrary to her interests, and that she ought to join with Germany in a policy of aggrandizement and domination in Europe, but his efforts were repulsed. Then came the Kaiser's Morocco demonstration, it being believed at Berlin that the moment to break up the Anglo-French *entente* had come, and that France could be stampeded into an offensive and defensive alliance with Germany on the latter's terms. M. Delcassé was forced out of office, and, according to the opinion of most intelligent observers, German intrigue scored another victory. Yet, so far as can now be judged, the results fell far short of what had been expected.

The key-note to German foreign policy just now is the desire to keep the Anglo-French understanding from solidifying into a formal alliance. If the Morocco *coup* was intended to force the two friendly nations apart, it miscarried sadly, since the most obvious effect of it has been further to consolidate their interests and emphasize their sympathies. Neither power wants war; neither indulges in dreams of European aggression; neither wishes to see the balance of power disturbed. Inasmuch as all of these things are seriously threatened at the hands of Germany, it does not require much wisdom to foretell the continued close relations of the English and the French for some time to come in the face of the common enemy.

"ECONOMICALLY, GERMANY IS A DISTURBING FORCE."

The problem of Europe's immediate future is not merely a political one; it contains also a very important economic element. The close financial connection between France and Russia has already been alluded to as a preserving force in the dual alliance. France to-day is burdened with a far larger debt than any other nation in the world (about \$6,500,000,000); military and naval expenditure produces constantly recurring deficits; taxation is as heavy as can be borne; and it is only national thrift that fends off financial collapse. It is above all things else essential, therefore, that the loans to Russia be not jeopardized, and from this standpoint the war in the East cannot be terminated any too soon. Should it go on, the heaviest pressure that can be put upon France to enter it will come from the thousands who have financial interests involved. In any case, the appearances now are that future Russian loans will have to be negotiated in Berlin rather than in Paris. On the economic as well as the political side, Germany is to-day the disturbing factor in Europe. German tariffs, industries, finance, and commerce contain the promise of far-reaching changes,—changes which on the whole have already been marked out by political considerations, but which are likely to be intensified and hastened by influences essentially economic. Thus, Germany's policy of trade restriction is having not a little to do with the decadence of the triple alliance. Austria-Hungary, and even more Italy, feels that Germany is utterly inconsiderate of the interests of her allies, and that the alliance is not worth while, being as barren of commercial as of military advantages. Likewise, the relations of Germany and France are affected by the former's commercial preponderance. France's foreign trade is regarded by many as

on the decline and in a fair way to be ruined, partly because of the growing commerce of the United States, but mainly because of German rivalry in the world's markets. Most of all is Great Britain affected by Germany's rapid economic rise and her transformation from an agricultural to an industrial and commercial state. England and Germany can never be real friends, for there must ever be between them the keenest rivalry for trade, land, and colonies. The English believe absolutely that Germany's longing for sea power, foreign possessions, and commercial domination constitutes their gravest menace as a nation, and in this they are not far wrong. The consequence, therefore, is certain to be the continued alienation of the two peoples; and this inevitably means the strengthening of friendship between the English and the French.

It is but fair to recognize that in the re-shaping of Europe political and economic forces are supplemented in no slight degree by racial and religious considerations. Among these may be mentioned the affinity of the Italians and the French, tending to disrupt the triplice; the close relations of Germany and the Papacy, operating to the same end; the heterogeneity of Austria-Hungary, rendering the future of that nation so uncertain; and the anti-Semitic campaign in eastern and central Europe, tending to alienate from governments like the Russian the support of the Jewish financiers, but in all probability destined to work out eventually in a virtual bargain whereby larger toleration will be exchanged for Hebrew gold.

Bearing in mind the limitations before mentioned, the main features of the European situation as influenced by the present war may be summarized somewhat as follows:

THE PRESENT SITUATION AND THE FUTURE.

1. The triple alliance, already tottering, is being materially weakened by the withdrawal of Russian fighting capacity from central Europe. Austria-Hungary and Italy have now even less need of German protection than formerly.

2. The dual alliance continues to exist, but with an extremely uncertain future. The temporary effacement of Russia leaves France in serious doubt as to how to proceed. Russia will, of course, desire to continue the arrangement, unless, perhaps, in event of an alliance with Germany. France may prefer to ally herself with Great Britain, or with both Great Britain and Italy.

3. The Anglo-Japanese alliance seems certain to be renewed and to be extended in scope. This alliance, the only one to which Great Britain is now a party, was concluded by Baron Hayashi and Lord Lansdowne at London, January 30,

1902. It differs from those among exclusively European powers in that its text has been made public (see the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, April, 1902, page 462). In essence, the alliance is an agreement between Great Britain and Japan for the maintenance of the integrity of China and the independence of Korea, and for the securing of equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations. It has been popular from the outset with the English, and there is now very little doubt that it should be renewed when it expires, year after next. It is generally deemed desirable, however, that its scope be broadened so as to apply to central Asia as well as to the far East. Japanese success has turned aside the Russian danger in the latter quarter, which was what really prompted the alliance in the first place; but it is thought not unlikely that the pressure of the Muscovite may break out on the Indian frontier, and Great Britain would be very glad to be assured of Japanese aid in that contingency. At present it seems probable that the alliance will be broadened to provide for keeping Russia in her present boundaries, putting the English fleet at Japan's disposal, and giving the English the service of the Japanese army if India is attacked.

4. The preoccupation of Russia, and especially her defeat on land and vanquishment on sea, has restored to Germany her former preponderance in the affairs of Europe. Before the war, Russia was considered the leading military power; now it is Germany that holds that position. The effect of the change is already visible in a stiffening of policy toward France and Great Britain.

5. The German preponderance is an outcome of the war, and the recent strengthening of the Anglo-French *entente* is an outcome of the German preponderance. Whether the *entente* will develop into a fixed alliance remains to be seen. Certainly it will not if the Kaiser has his way. But in any case, the close relations of Great Britain and France, so auspicious for the peace of Europe, seem likely to be continued indefinitely.

6. A re-grouping of powers as a result of the war may very well bring about one or more of several possible alliances. The most probable of these are Germany-Russia, Great Britain-France, and Great Britain-France-Italy. It is safe to assume that if the first of these were to be consummated the second, and very likely the third, would quickly follow. Other alliances, quite within the range of possibility but requiring some at present unforeseen contingencies to bring them about, are Great Britain-Russia, Great Britain-France-Russia, Great Britain-Japan-Russia, Germany-France-Russia, and even Russia-Japan.

RYAN: A NEW POWER IN FINANCE.

BY AN OBSERVER IN WALL STREET.

WHO is Thomas F. Ryan? Who is this man that has bought control of the Equitable Life Assurance Society with two and one-half millions of dollars? This is the question which men have been asking all over the country. Mr. Ryan is well known in New York. He is known to many men of affairs throughout the country. But to the country at large his was till recently an unfamiliar name. Even now there is vast curiosity concerning him, his career, his character, his ambitions. He is a new star in the financial firmament, and all the telescopes are aimed at him. He is worthy of study. He is interesting in himself, interesting in what he has done and is doing. He is still more interesting in what he aspires to do. He is a man the country will have to reckon with in many ways as the years come along and events crowd upon us.

Here is a man who appears to have some peculiar power which enables him to realize all his aspirations. If his success continue, if his run of luck never break, there is no telling to what heights he may not yet rise. The country will do well to keep an eye upon him. For his ambitions are not small. He is a man who strikes high and does not lose his hatchet. We shall give a glimpse of his strenuous future, and of the keen interest the public must have in him, when we state with accuracy what his aspirations are.

He hopes to become the greatest and most influential financier on the American continent. He hopes to be the chief power behind the Democratic party, and to pose before the country as a Warwick, a maker of Presidents. Any man may aspire to kingship in Wall Street and to the honor of placing his own man in the White House. It requires an extraordinary man to hug such an ambition and at the same time to gather into his hands the power which promises to enable him to realize it.

FROM VIRGINIA TO WALL STREET.

Thomas Faulkner Ryan is an extraordinary man. If he were not he could not have done what he has already done. He was born in Nelson County, Virginia, in October, 1851. His parents were well-to-do, of Scotch-Irish descent, but Virginian to the core. The Civil War ruined them. After the war, young Ryan had to go to work. Hence, we must regard him as a type of

many thousands of Southern-born men,—men released from the restraint of wealth or competence by the Civil War, freed from the bondage of do-nothingism which had hitherto held them, forced to individualism and to effort by the great convulsion which upset all social conditions, that mighty upheaval which has proved the making of the South and of the Southern people. Young Ryan had to go to work. So he went to Baltimore and found employment as clerk in a dry-goods house. At twenty-two he married a most estimable young woman, a daughter of his employer, Miss Barry, now, as an accomplished matron and the mother of five sons, noted for her active work in charity and her generous gifts to public institutions. At seventeen a clerk in a commercial house, at twenty-two a married man, at twenty-three a member of a brokers' firm in Wall Street, at twenty-six a member of the Stock Exchange, and at thirty-five the right-hand man of the late William C. Whitney in traction development in New York City,—such was the rapid progress of Mr. Ryan.

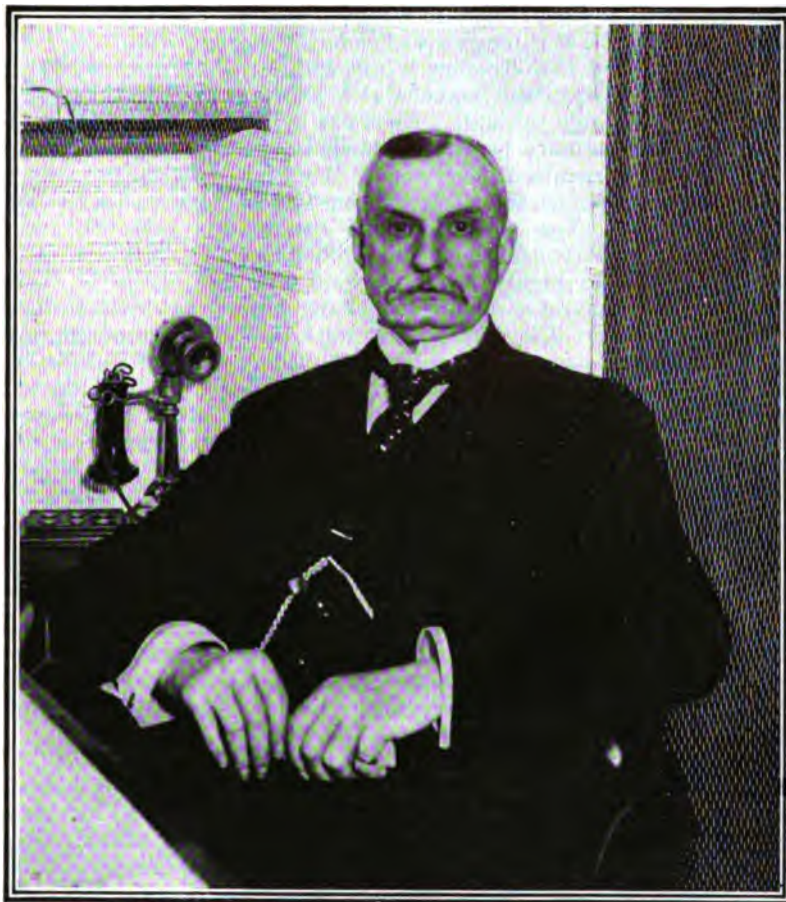
THE NEW POWER BEHIND THE TAMMANY THRONE.

In New York financiering and politics and franchise-manipulating he had found the career best fitting his talents. And his talents came rapidly to the fore. It was not long before he was noted as the shrewdest man in the Whitney *entourage*,—and William C. Whitney was a well-nigh infallible judge of men. Ryan became Whitney's understudy. He prepared to take that most clever man's place. He had all the qualifications. Like his chief, he burrowed. He never showed his hand. He managed always to hold a reserve power unguessed by his contemporaries. The foundations of William C. Whitney's fortune were laid in his ability to manipulate Tammany Hall. Ryan walked in the same path. He, too, became a power in the Hall. Whitney was adept and marvelous in quietly, furtively, secretly intrenching himself next to the sources of political power in Manhattan. Ryan was fully as clever as he. When, surfeited with success and money, Whitney virtually retired to take his ease in a life of luxury and pleasure-seeking, Ryan was ready to fill his place. He filled it. Long before Whitney's death, Ryan was the big man, the responsible man, in the vast corporation they and their associates had built up,—the surface street-railway system of New

York City. The secret of Whitney's power in metropolitan affairs having to do with politics and franchises was the strange influence he wielded over Richard Croker. Changes came in Tammany. The chief exiled himself, half through timidity, half through surfeit. He named as his successor a young man named Charles Murphy,—not a strong man, not a born leader, weak on the whole, an accident of choice because those who chose did not want strength, but compliance. And when the changes were made, and men began to look about to see who was the power behind the new leader, who lurked away off in the background pulling the wires that led to the Hall, they soon found him. It was none other than Whitney's successor, Thomas F. Ryan.

A KING OF FINANCE.

Ryan marched fast. He carried a big stick and kept an habitual silence. He was never a talker, ever a doer. He kept well out of the press. His name was little known, even in New York. Yet every once in a while it was whispered about that he had acquired an active interest or absolute control of this or that large concern. He quietly, insidiously, persistently, spread himself. The surface street railways were broadened and twice reorganized, each time coming out with bigger capitalization than before, and after each twist Mr. Ryan emerging with a cipher added to the figure which roughly denoted his fortune. He became president of the Morton Trust Company,—every operator in corporations wants a banking house or trust company for his lair. He invested in West Virginia and Ohio coal and railway properties. He was one of the moving factors in the organization of the Tobacco Trust, with all its clever stock-manipulation. He became a power in Consolidated Gas, in the National Bank of Commerce, the Union Exchange Bank, the Père



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MR. THOMAS FAULKNER RYAN.

Marquette Railway, the Hocking Valley, and many other corporations. Suddenly, a few years ago, it dawned upon Wall Street that this tall, dark-skinned, silent man who wore always the black slouch hat of the South and the elegant, unobtrusive manners of his people was a real power in the world of finance.

Let no one imagine that all this success was wrought without work, without genius in the work. Nor without turning some sharp corners. Not without some transactions even now imperfectly understood, but to this day much whispered of. Once Whitney and Ryan were pressed hard by enemies in Wall Street,—enemies not made in the financial district, but through family and other outside relations. At a moment of crisis two millions of money was needed, and needed quickly. Even in Wall Street, and with men of actual success, two millions is sometimes a large sum to produce at the word. Mr. Ryan produced it, and saved the day. Where did he get it?

He borrowed it from a bank in which he had a say, and borrowed it through his office boy. The bank failed. But the office boy is still with Mr. Ryan, and Mr. Ryan will make a rich man of him before he gets through. He sticks by his friends,—let this much be said to his credit.

Mr. Ryan reorganized the Seaboard Air Line Railway, and became the master of that important property. Now the Richmond bankers with whom he started the business, Williams & Sons, an old and highly respected house, are sending out reams of circulars describing how Mr. Ryan did it. They charge bad faith, slipperiness, overreaching, forgetfulness of pledge, and all that. We do not know the truth. Probably there was nothing dishonorable, nothing criminal. Only a playing of the game down South just as they play it in New York.

IN CONTROL OF THE EQUITABLE.

Finally he bought the controlling stock in Equitable from young Mr. Hyde. The country was astounded. Even yet it is not fully reassured. Mr. Ryan is so far seemingly trying to do the best that can be done to protect the society and to restore it to its former prestige. The public can well afford to wait, to be fair, to judge by results. The only success Mr. Ryan can make in Equitable is a real success, an honorable success. But while awaiting the outcome in hopefulness and tolerance it is quite unnecessary and fruitless for Mr. Ryan's friends to seek to impose upon the public the fiction that Mr. Ryan has nothing more to do with the management of the Equitable than any other policy or stock holder. He has everything to do with it. He is the responsible man behind the society. The public will hold him to his responsibility as long as he is the man that controls the men who run the corporation.

THE RYAN GROUP OF INTERESTS.

Mr. Ryan has been described by men who know him well as the most daring plunger in New York. He is not so much a speculator in shares as he is a manipulator of corporations. He organizes, or reorganizes, or buys control, and then steps in and manipulates. He bought another, a smaller, insurance company, one day. There is no telling what he will buy next. He seems to have a mania for adding corporations to his string. Already he is at the head of one of the greatest groups in the metropolis, embracing not only railways and industrials, but in the field of finance alone rising to mammoth proportions. The "allied interests" which are known in the financial district to belong to the Ryan group are thus catalogued:

Institution.	Assets.
Equitable Life Assurance Society.....	\$414,000,000
Mutual Life Insurance Company.....	441,000,000
National Bank of Commerce.....	251,000,000
Equitable Trust Company.....	52,000,000
Mercantile Trust Company.....	69,000,000
Morton Trust Company.....	61,000,000
Guarantee Trust Company.....	48,000,000
Washington Life Insurance Company.....	18,000,000
Total.....	\$1,354,000,000

Here is an aggregate of assets exceeding by two hundred millions of dollars the combined deposits of the associated banks of New York City. No one supposes that Mr. Ryan controls all these concerns. Some of them he controls; in others, he exercises strong influence. In the group, his is probably by long odds the strongest personality. It is quite unnecessary to point out that these figures and facts spell one word, and that word is—power.

Where will Mr. Ryan's ambition stop? It is impossible to say. With this as a foundation, almost anything is within his reach. He is ambitious, tireless, persistent. He is now among the leaders. In five years, at the rate at which he is going, he will be at the very top.

A CORNER ON NEW YORK'S TRANSPORTATION.

One of his ambitions, characteristic of the man and his daring, is to form a transportation trust that shall embrace all the street railways, all the elevated lines, all the subways, in Greater New York,—a billion-dollar transportation trust. Mr. Ryan perceived long ago what other capitalists are just beginning to understand,—that one of the finest of all fields for investment and creation in the transportation line is in the metropolis. There golden prizes are to be won; there vast fortunes are to be made. Wonderful indeed is the power of the humble nickel multiplied by millions a day.

A LEADER IN NATIONAL POLITICS.

Now Mr. Ryan aspires to leadership of the national Democracy. It was he who fought for the gold standard at St. Louis last year and was compelled to compromise with Bryan because the lieutenants of Parker would not take the risk of losing the nomination prize. Is this remarkably successful Virginian, this dry-goods clerk of thirty years ago, strong and clever enough to obtain the mastery of the Democracy in 1908, in 1912, and put his man in the Presidential chair? He has Tammany as a foundation to stand upon. He has great financial power. He is gathering more. He is a man of the present and the future. We shall wait and see.

DENMARK THE BUFFER STATE OF THE NORTH.

BY JULIUS MORITZEN.

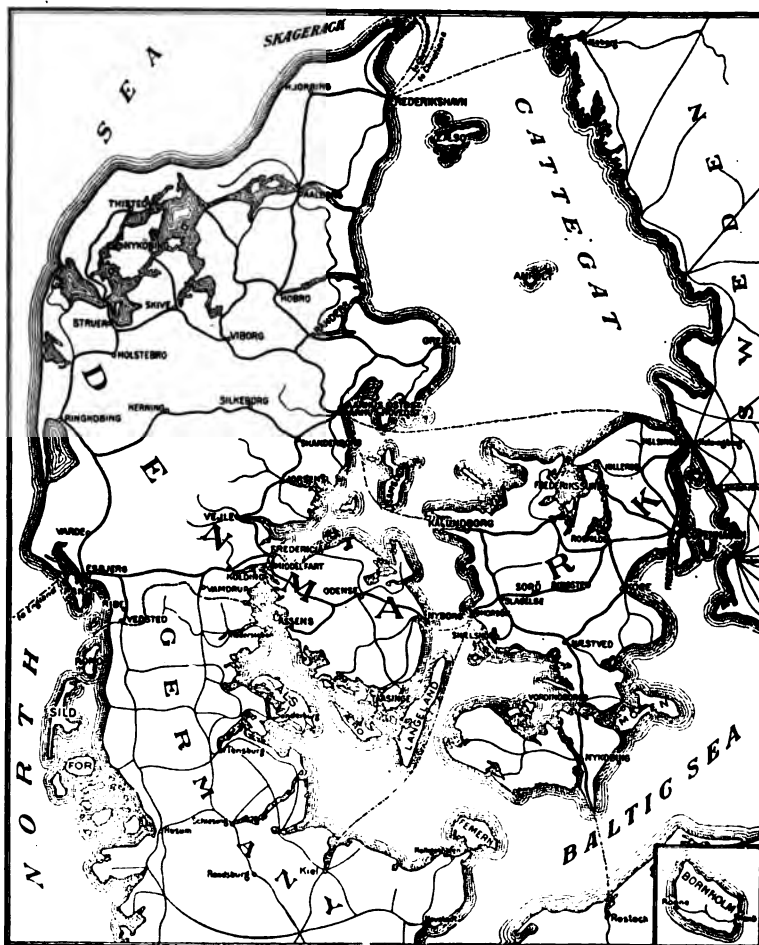
THE tension between Germany and France, and the widespread European complications bound to follow should the Moroccan situation be the cause of war, give color to the belief that when Norway broke away from Sweden she sounded the first note of warning for the powers to keep hands off Scandinavia. There can be little doubt that, once the Swedish nation becomes reconciled to the action of the Norwegians in dissolving the union, the brother peoples will enter upon a season of real friendliness such as has been unknown in that section for close on to a century. Denmark, Norway, and Sweden are sure to appear in the new rôle of a united Scandinavia, the goodwill of which will be worth while cultivating. Both England and Germany have for some time been suitors for the favors of the northern countries, and this in itself is an evidence that the friendship of Scandinavia, whatever eventualities may be precipitated, has a current value.

Previous to the Russian naval defeats at the hands of Japan, England might have looked in the direction of the Baltic, fearing an antagonist sufficiently strong in ships to give her concern. Even at that time Denmark constituted the buffer state between the two powers. Scandinavia, as a whole, may be considered the dividing line between these great nations.

Not only would an alliance with Denmark, Norway, and Sweden prove a decisive quantity to either the Muscovite or the Englishman in war, but Scandinavia on the offensive against either England or Russia would have a fighting chance to keep off the enemy for a con-

siderable period. It is this fact which has led the Danes to expend millions of kroner on the defense system of the country. And while a conflict between Great Britain and the empire of the Czar is a remote possibility, Denmark's preparedness will go far toward instilling that respect which is the handmaid of diplomacy where points at issue await settlement.

That Germany within recent times has paid considerably more than passing attention to the defense plans of Denmark has not escaped the Danes, whose military astuteness is proverbial. At the instigation of the Kaiser himself, Lieut.-



MAP OF DENMARK, SHOWING ENTRANCE TO THE BALTIC.



KING CHRISTIAN IX. OF DENMARK.

Col. R. von Bieberstein inspected the quite openly exposed fortifications of Copenhagen, and what he has written regarding the vulnerability, or otherwise, of the Danish capital has been taken to heart in Denmark's military circles. Beyond a doubt, Denmark to-day is much more favorably situated than when Prussia despoiled the country of Schleswig-Holstein, and while little apprehension exists on the score of Germany again attacking her northern neighbor, should a war break out between England and the German Empire it might prove impossible for either belligerent to keep Danish territory inviolate. Denmark's neutrality would be thrown to the winds where the fate of empires would be at stake. Still, in her defense of such neutrality Denmark would gain time sufficient to make any trespasser pause before advancing. Mean-

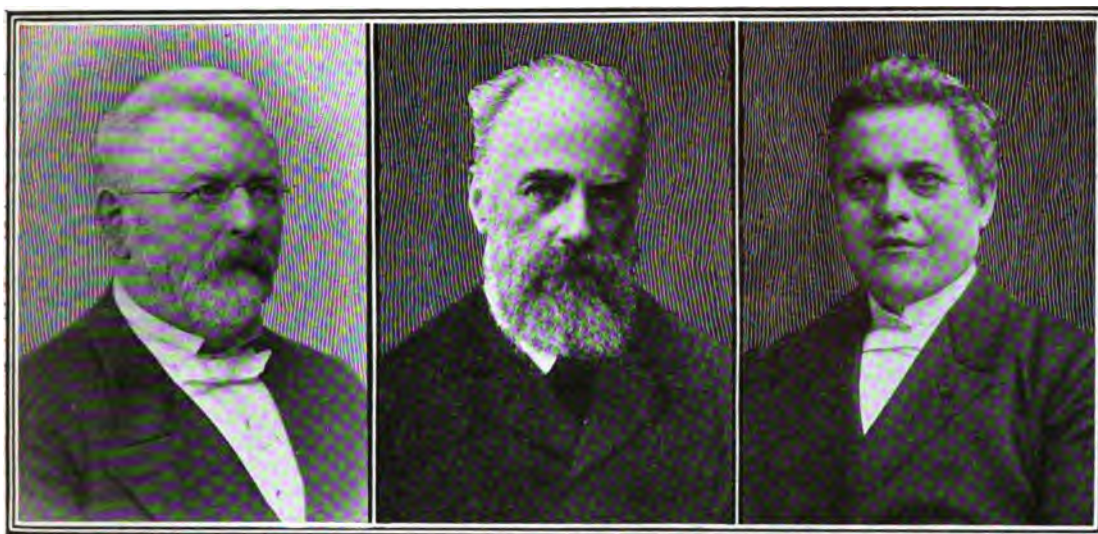
while, the Scandinavian allies of the Danes would be enabled to assert themselves effectively.

Following the recent Danish cabinet crisis, when the portfolios of war and navy were given into the hands of a civilian, J. C. Christensen, the former minister for instruction of the Deuntzer régime, a special defense commission has had under consideration ways and means best suited for the protection of the country. Denmark's peculiar strategic position came to the fore at the breaking out of the Russo-Japanese conflict when it appeared as if England were about to be drawn into the fray. Denmark made preparations hurriedly for the protection of Copenhagen. The forts fronting the sound were made ready for action, a great number of torpedo boats were placed in commission, several divisions of mining engineers were called to the colors, while two new redoubts were quickly constructed on the island of Saltholm. The advantage of these precautionary measures was fully confirmed through the then Japanese minister to St. Petersburg, Kurino, who pointed significantly to Denmark's difficult position should the war result in other powers being concerned. The danger of such a general conflict is never entirely absent.

The Danish Defense Commission is far from being unanimous as to what is the best plan making for a complete protection of the capital. The majority of the members are for the abandoning of the land defenses and the strengthening of Seeland's coast line by adding more forts and introducing a mining system covering all the adjacent waters. The minority of the commission, however, and the leading military experts of the country are for the retention of the



THE THORVALDSEN MUSEUM AT COPENHAGEN.



C. BERG.

(Member of the Danish lower house,
and a democratic leader.)

HERMAN THIER.

(President of the Danish lower house,
and representative Liberal.)

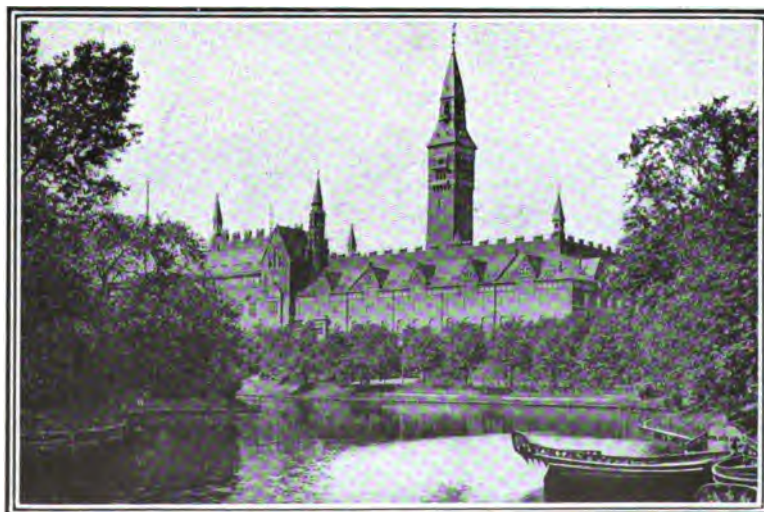
JENS CHRISTIAN CHRISTENSEN.

(Minister of the Danish army and
navy.)

present land fortifications in order that the capital may be securely protected against an enemy invading Seeland from the north or the west. The very circumstance that Seeland's coast line in its entirety does not lend itself to a complete protection through either forts, mines, or torpedo equipment speaks favorably for the claim of the Danish military experts in their assertion that, apart from what is done toward protecting Copenhagen from the sea, the land fortifications must be retained.

Nearly one hundred million kroner have been expended on the land defenses, which sum it would be extremely difficult to raise a second time were it a question of abandoning the forts for the present and removing the guns, and in after years restoring them to serviceable condition. However, since it will be a question of defending Copenhagen to the utmost, it may be taken for granted that the harbor and the sea defenses will claim the attention of the defense commission no matter what is done for the protection of the landward side of the city.

It can be gathered from what has become public property that in case of war a concentration of Denmark's available army must take place on Seeland. Here, with the assistance of the fleet, the defenders would make a determined stand. Then, when a landing of the enemy could be no longer prevented, it would behoove the Danes to stay the progress of the invaders in their march on Copenhagen; and, finally, to defend the capital until such time when the one or the other friendly power would lend its interven-



THE COURT-HOUSE, COPENHAGEN.



THE MARBLE CHURCH, COPENHAGEN.

tion. The Danish capital, for this reason, has been made into a great fortified camp, with immense breastworks guarding the western side. Toward the north the fortifications are even more redoubtable, while the intersecting of many canals insures a floating of the entire district in

case of attack from that quarter. In the estimate of von Bieberstein, however, who may be said to represent the German view of the situation, the bombardment of Copenhagen will be somewhat difficult to prevent. The measures taken may result in checking an enemy advancing from the sea, but it is pointed out that the northern entrance to the sound is still considerably exposed. The greatest strength lies toward the southern end of the sound.

An inner and outer line of forts constitute the principal defenses. Their equipment is of the finest in existence. The possession of Copenhagen Harbor, with its every facility for the refitting of men-of-war, would prove of the utmost value to the enemy and place him at an advantage should some ally come to the assistance of the Danes. The sound once gained, the aggressor would control the better part of the North Sea and the Baltic.

In a war between Germany and France, Copenhagen would hold the key to the situation in case the French fleet could be spared in the Mediterranean and, entering the northern waters, overwhelm the as yet inferior German fleet. It might then be possible to bring to completion a plan like that of 1870, which purposed the landing of an army in Denmark, from where a diversion was to be made against northern Germany. Faulty preparations on the part of France and the quick march of events in Alsace precluded the consummation of the French plan. But while history may not repeat itself as matters happened in the sixties and the seventies, Denmark confesses to no little uneasiness lest the one or the other of the four great powers



A VIEW OF THE HARBOR OF COPENHAGEN AND THE SOUND.



WEST BRIDGE AVENUE, COPENHAGEN.

(A leading thoroughfare in the new section of the city.)

should feel impelled to take temporary possession of the country in case of warfare.

How to bring the troops from Jutland and Fünen to Seeland in the quickest possible time and without interference on the part of the hostile fleet is what concerns the Danish Defense Commission in its plans for the protection of the nation. It is already agreed that only sufficient troops be left in the provinces to guard against the depredations of raiding parties. On Seeland will gather the main strength of the Danish army. Railroad and steamship arrangements have already been completed for the transporting of the troops. On the island where is located the capital of Denmark the issue will be awaited. Here fate will decide whether the Danes are to remain independent.

The peninsula apart, the enemy which will attempt to reach Danish territory by water has four roads to choose from. From the standpoint of Germany, one object would probably be to prevent the assembling of troops on Seeland. To take the route from Wilhelmshaven or the Elbe, however, is unsuitable by reason of the time it takes,—the distance around the Skaw would take twenty-eight hours. Through the

Little Belt only the smaller ships could pass, and their effectiveness would be negative in view of the reception awaiting them from the Danish shore batteries.

It is, perhaps, in the Great Belt that the enemy from the south will center his efforts. The water between Fünen and Seeland has a sufficient depth to permit the largest battleships an unhindered passage. Still, it will require pilots thoroughly acquainted with the thoroughfare to avoid the many hidden rocks and sand banks that lurk here. Considering the importance of the Great Belt to Denmark in the event of war, it is likely that the plans of the defense commission for the fortifying of the shores of Fünen and Seeland will be brought to maturity in the quickest time possible.

There is every reason to believe that before long the northern entrance to the sound, which is the door to Copenhagen, will be safeguarded as thoroughly as is the southern gateway. When the time for action arrives, an enemy will find himself confronted by conditions differing totally from those which obtained in 1801 and 1807, when unwelcome visitors laid siege to Copenhagen and despoiled Denmark of her navy.

OKLAHOMA, A VIGOROUS WESTERN COMMONWEALTH.

BY CLARENCE H. MATSON.

ACCORDING to mythology, Minerva had no childhood, but sprang full-armed, a vigorous young woman, from the head of Jupiter. Oklahoma is the Minerva of the States. With her there was no period of slow settlement. On the day that her borders were opened to the settler she sprang full-fledged, a vigorous young commonwealth, into the Union. And on the day that Congress admits her to Statehood she will take rank with the foremost of the Western States. Her population of a million and three hundred thousand,—which is the combined population of Oklahoma and Indian Territory, according to the annual report of Governor Ferguson for the year ending June 30, 1904; it is probably somewhat more than that now,—will place her in advance of at least twenty-one of her sister States, several of them among the original thirteen. Not counting Texas, only two States west of the Missouri will be her equal in number of people—Kansas and California. In old New England, three States,—New Hampshire, Vermont, and Rhode Island,—could be combined and still not contain as great a population as this new commonwealth in the West will have on the first day of its Statehood.

HOW THE COUNTRY WAS OPENED TO SETTLEMENT.

No other State ever had such a remarkable growth and prosperity as Oklahoma. Sixteen years ago last March the prairie winds blew over wide expanses of plains with no signs of human habitation on them for miles at a stretch. A month later, on April 22, 1889, upward of one hundred thousand persons engaged in the most spectacular race in history—a race for homes. That was the day when the first Oklahoma counties were opened for settlement. For weeks the home-seekers had been gathering along the borders of the promised land, but they were not allowed to enter it till the signal was given. It was a go-as-you-please race. Men,—and women, too,—went on horseback, in wagons, in trains, and on foot, and at nightfall of that first day of its history Oklahoma had a larger population than the State of Nevada. Towns were surveyed, and sprung up in a night, and in a week a new empire had been created in the Southwest.

A year later the Iowa, Pottawatomie, and Sac and Fox reservations were opened for settle-

ment, and Lincoln and Pottawatomie counties, two of the richest in the Territory, were formed. The following year the Cheyenne and Arapahoe reservations added half-a-dozen counties in western Oklahoma. In 1893, the "Cherokee Strip," a body of land fifty-eight miles wide along the southern border of Kansas, was opened with another "rush," and in 1901 came the great drawing for lands in the Kiowa country. Thus, what is now Oklahoma Territory has been taken by the white man, and the homes of the Anglo-Saxon now dot the prairie.

Originally what will doubtless become the State of Oklahoma—now the twin Territories of Oklahoma and Indian Territory—was set aside by the Government for an Indian empire. Nearly a century ago, soon after Louisiana was purchased from Napoleon, there was formulated this policy to set apart a body of land far off in the heart of this newly acquired territory, to which the Indians might be moved, and where they would neither disturb nor be disturbed by the white man. But the time came when the ever-aggressive Anglo-Saxon conquered the wilderness adjoining the Indian empire, and he looked with longing toward its fertile prairies and wooded hills. The wandering bands of Indians were putting the more westerly lands to little use, and the central-western portion was ceded by them back to the United States. A few years later came the opening of 1889 and the organization of Oklahoma Territory.

There were hardships to be encountered and difficulties to be overcome at first, but the people who settled Oklahoma were not the kind to be frightened by hardships. Pioneers never are. They conquered the soil, and it poured out its wealth for them. There is no more fertile region on the American continent than this new empire. With each additional year came new settlers, and each year's crops have added to the riches of the people; and now, only sixteen years from the time the Territory was first opened, there is prosperity and contentment everywhere among a population of seven or eight hundred thousand people.

INDIAN ALLOTMENTS AND THE DAWES COMMISSION.

Meanwhile another condition has prevailed in the Indian Territory. There the Five Nations,—the Cherokees, the Choctaws, the Chickasaws, the

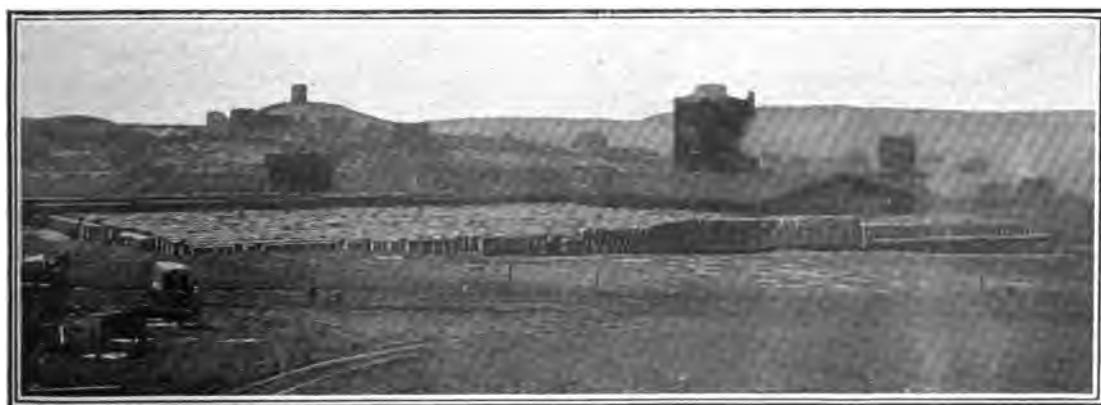


AN OKLAHOMA HARVEST SCENE.—NOTE THE NUMBER OF MACHINES AT WORK IN THIS SINGLE FIELD.

Creeks, and the Seminoles,—have remained in possession of the land, each nation with its own chief, or governor, council, and separate government. But the Anglo-Saxon has not kept out. With a total population to-day of approximately six hundred thousand, less than one hundred thousand are Indians. Such a fertile region could not fail to attract the white man, and he has gone there in great numbers. He could not own real estate, and he has had to lease by the year from the Indian owners what he wanted to use, but this has not deterred the Anglo-Saxon from entering the Territory and developing its resources; and now that there is a prospect of a new order of things, and as the resources of the region become better known, the influx of the whites is more rapid than ever.

More than ten years ago it became evident that the policy of maintaining the Indians in common on their reservations had its evils, and the Commission to the Five Tribes, generally

known as the Dawes Commission, was created in 1893 to prepare the Indians for individual ownership of land. At first the commission was only advisory and its work was almost futile, but in more recent years it has been given the power to allot the land of each tribe among its members and to lay out town sites. On these official town sites white men were allowed to make entries on lots, which were "scheduled" to them, and to which they may now secure title by paying the appraised value of the lots. The appraisement is fixed by town-site commissions appointed for that purpose. As the allotments of the farming lands are made the Indian owners may sell a portion of them under certain regulations and restrictions. The Dawes Commission will practically complete its work next year, and in the not distant future it will be possible for white settlers to purchase title to a large amount of land, most of it rich and some of it highly improved.



EIGHTY THOUSAND DOLLARS' WORTH OF OKLAHOMA COTTON READY FOR SHIPMENT.



MAKING CORN INTO BEEF—CATTLE

Next year, too, the tribal governments will pass out of existence and the Indians will become actual citizens of the United States. It will therefore be necessary to provide for Statehood or for a Territorial government, and it is commonly conceded that the twin Territories will be admitted together as the State of Oklahoma.

The coming of Statehood will give the whites in the Indian Territory many privileges that have been denied them heretofore. They have been actual aliens in the past. Not only have they been powerless to acquire title to homes or other real estate until recently, but they have been without voice in governmental affairs. The Indian has been the actual citizen. He has elected the governors, or chiefs, of the tribes and the tribal councils, and the government schools have been primarily for the Indian children. With Statehood all this will, of course, change, and the white man will govern. There will be hundreds of offices to fill at the first election in the Indian Territory,—some of them choice plums.

The Indians are by no means the wild and untutored savages that the name commonly suggests to Eastern people. In many instances the Indian is a steady tiller of the soil, as civilized as the whites. Good schools are maintained for the Indian children, not only primary, but academie schools as well. Some of the leaders among the Indians are accustomed to all the advantages of a high civilization. They have good houses and are well-to-do.

Much of the Indian Territory and some of southeastern Oklahoma is wooded. Such trees as oak, ash, elm, hackberry, hickory, pecan, cot-

tonwood, walnut, and cedar abound; but farther west the timbered areas are found only along the banks of the streams, as in central Kansas. This timber and the intervening tracts of prairie give a variety not found in some of the Western States. In the Indian Territory there are large tracts of cedar which will make good lumber.

WHEAT AND COTTON SIDE BY SIDE.

The new State of Oklahoma will be the pivot of the nation. There the North and the South have met in nearly equal numbers. In Oklahoma, too, the staple crops of the North and the South mingle. The products of Minnesota and Texas, wheat and cotton, flourish side by side. With corn and oats, they form the great staple crops. Nowhere else in the country is this true.

The noted Kansas wheat belt extends south into Oklahoma, and there is an acreage of nearly two and one-half million acres in the Territory. In 1903, the wheat crop amounted to thirty-two million bushels, and what is remarkable in a new country, nearly half of the crop was manufactured into flour in Oklahoma mills.

The corn acreage is about one and a half million acres; and in 1902, the banner corn year in Oklahoma thus far, the crop amounted to 43,800,000 bushels. This corn is converted into pork and beef on Oklahoma farms. From the great cattle ranches of Texas and western Oklahoma come the cattle off the range, and they are "finished" by feeding them the product of the Oklahoma cornfields.

Cotton has been a staple in the eastern and southern counties for fifteen years, and some of the best cotton crops of the country come from the farms of Oklahoma and Indian Territory.



FEEDING ON AN OKLAHOMA RANCH.

It was a source of great wealth while the price remained good, as the yield runs from 200,000 to 250,000 bales. In every community in the cotton counties are cotton gins, and all the principal towns have oil mills, in which the oil is extracted from the seed, and the latter is ground into the meal which is prized as a food for animals.

Oats are grown to a considerable extent throughout the Territory, and broom-corn is a staple in several of the central counties. On the more westerly prairies large quantities of Kaffir corn and sorghum are produced as forage.

Potatoes and melons are great money-makers. Of the former, two crops are secured each year, something unknown in more northerly latitudes. The first crop is marketed in May and June in the North and East, while the second crop, coming on late in the fall, is kept for seed and winter use. The town of Shawnee alone shipped over thirteen hundred carloads of potatoes last year.

SUCCESSFUL FRUIT-GROWING.

Although only fifteen years have elapsed since the first fruit trees were planted in the Territory, Oklahoma is rapidly becoming a great



A COTTON YARD AT SHAWNEE, OKLAHOMA.



MELON-GROWING IN OKLAHOMA.

fruit region. It is truly the land of the peach. This fruit has never been known to fail there, and it grows large in size and luscious in quality. The Elberta peach reaches its highest perfection in eastern Oklahoma, and there are nearly a million trees of that variety now growing in the single county of Logan, although only about fifty thousand are now bearing. Elberta peaches sometimes grow twelve inches in circumference. Grapes do exceedingly well in central and southern Oklahoma, and a large acreage of vineyards has been set out. Small fruits also produce abundantly. A patch of strawberries near Oklahoma City has yielded its owner three hundred and fifty dollars an acre.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

Indian Territory is rich in mineral wealth. During the year ending June 30, 1904, more than three million tons of coal were mined, most of it coming from the Choctaw Nation. South McAlester and Coalgate are the great coal centers. The mining is done by companies which have secured leases on the land for that purpose. The veins run from four to eight feet in thickness, and thousands of men are employed in the mines.

Asphalt is another mineral which is found in abundance in the Choctaw and Chickasaw Nations. It is claimed that there is enough asphalt in the Territory to pave the streets of every large city in

the United States, but the industry is not well developed, as less than five thousand tons were mined last year. Coal and asphalt lands are segregated from those that are allotted to the Indians, and they will be sold or leased to companies for development, the money going to the Indians or for public improvements. Coal is also found near Henryetta and Tulsa in the Creek Nation, and near Dawson and Collinsville in the Cherokee Nation.

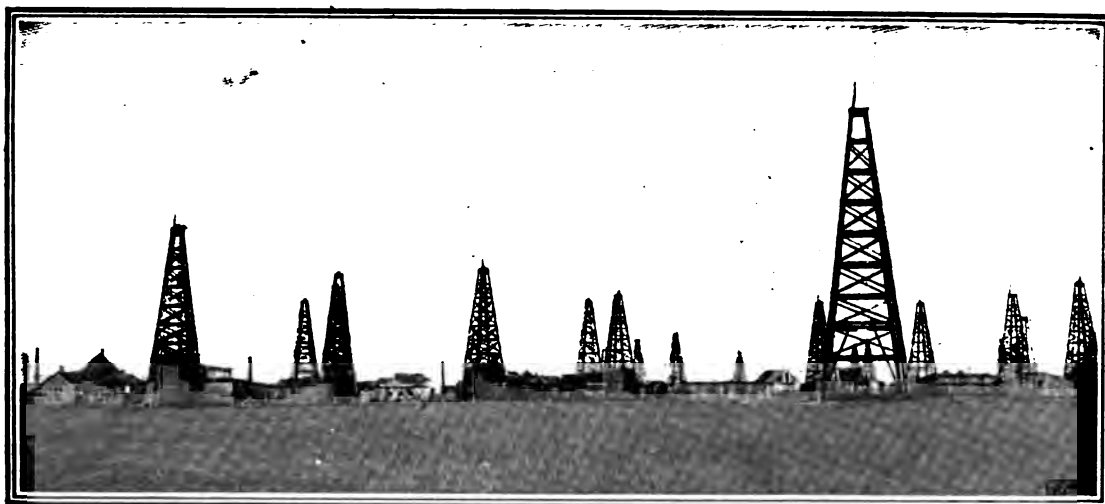
Oil and natural gas abound in the Cherokee and Creek Nations and in northeastern Oklahoma. The now famous Kansas oil district extends down into that region. For several years oil wells have been flowing in the vicinity of Bartlesville, in the Cherokee Nation, but more recently development has been pushed south as far as Muscogee and west as far as Cleveland, in northeastern Oklahoma. In the Osage Nation, which forms the northeastern corner of Oklahoma, there are also a large number of oil wells. As in the Kansas field, the development has exceeded the market, and a large amount of oil has been tanked near Bartlesville. The pipe line of the Prairie Gas & Oil Company, the Kansas auxiliary of the Standard, reaches this territory. Asphaltum oil is also found in the Wichita Mountains, in southwestern Oklahoma. Many Oklahoma towns are supplied with natural gas,—not in such great quantities as are found in Kansas,—but the field has not yet been thoroughly explored.

The manufacture of plaster is destined to be-



AN OKLAHOMA PEACH ORCHARD.

(Twelve years ago this was bare prairie.)



AN OIL-FIELD IN THE INDIAN TERRITORY.

(A region where the supply of crude oil exceeds the demand.)

come one of the great industries of Oklahoma. Beds of gypsum exist of such magnitude that one cannot comprehend the figures describing them. For instance, the Oklahoma Geological Survey estimates that there are over fifty billion tons of gypsum in Greer County alone, and it is found in thirteen different counties.

In western Oklahoma there are great quantities of red granite, much of it in great blocks above ground, waiting only to be broken up and transported. Red granite is exceedingly scarce, and most of that used in the United States heretofore has been imported from Scotland.

WHERE NORTH MEETS SOUTH.

The people who have settled these twin Territories are a hardy, self-reliant class. No more cosmopolitan people can be found on the American continent. From every State in the Union they have come, North and South alike. In Oklahoma, however, the great majority are from Northern States, while in the Indian Territory the Southern elements predominate. The result will be that the new State of Oklahoma will contain a more nearly amalgamated race of Yankees and Southerners than any other State in the Union. The following figures show the nativity of the greater part of the population of the Territories separately and combined, as given by the census of 1900 :

OKLAHOMA.

Kansas.....	60,794
Missouri.....	47,238
Texas.....	33,626
Illinois.....	27,409
Iowa.....	19,255

Indiana.....	17,351
Ohio.....	15,049
Tennessee.....	11,768
Arkansas.....	11,730
Kentucky.....	11,715
Alabama.....	4,077
Mississippi.....	3,960
Georgia.....	2,943

INDIAN TERRITORY.

Texas.....	62,425
Arkansas.....	50,889
Missouri.....	23,066
Tennessee.....	18,149
Alabama.....	11,063
Mississippi.....	10,155
Kansas.....	9,818
Illinois.....	9,245
Kentucky.....	8,622
Georgia.....	8,468
Indiana.....	5,165
Ohio.....	3,802
Iowa.....	2,702

THE COMBINED TERRITORIES.

Texas.....	96,051
Missouri.....	80,304
Kansas.....	70,612
Arkansas.....	62,628
Illinois.....	36,654
Tennessee.....	29,917
Indiana.....	22,516
Iowa.....	21,967
Kentucky.....	20,337
Ohio.....	18,351
Alabama.....	15,140
Mississippi.....	14,094
Georgia.....	11,416

Thus, it will be seen that in 1900 the two Territories which will make up the State of Oklahoma had 250,394 people from the six Northern States of Kansas, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and Ohio ; while from the seven Southern States of Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee,



THE CARNEGIE LIBRARY AT GUTHRIE, OKLAHOMA.

Kentucky, Alabama, Mississippi, and Georgia they had 249,583 people.

Since 1900 the population of both Territories has increased 80 per cent. In Oklahoma the greater part of the increase has come from the North—the middle West—induced to go to Oklahoma by the advertising given that section by the railroads. It is doubtful if there has been quite as large an immigration into the Indian Territory from the South, so it is probable that there is a slight preponderance of the Northern element in the two Territories as they are at present.

Of the inhabitants of Oklahoma in 1900 only 5.5 per cent. were illiterates, and it is probable that this percentage has since decreased. No New England State except Maine has as low a percentage of illiteracy. The percentage for the entire United States is just about double that of Oklahoma. It is said that were it not for the Indian population the illiterate population of Oklahoma would be less than 3 per cent. In the Indian Territory, the percentage is, of course, much higher,—19 per cent. This, however, is less than the illiterate percentage of any Southern State except Texas and Kentucky.

PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATION.

The Territory of Oklahoma has made provision for an excellent public-school system for its two hundred thousand children of school age. The little white school-house is a familiar sight in the Oklahoma scenery.

There are 2,578 of them, employing 3,438 teachers. Common-school property is valued at \$1,617,213, and more than a million and a quarter dollars is spent annually in maintaining these schools.

In addition, the Territory has seven higher institutions of learning. One of the first acts of the Territorial Assembly was to provide for a Territorial university, a normal school, and an agricultural and mechanical college. Later, two more normal schools were established, in addition to a university preparatory school and an agricultural and normal university for colored people.

The University of Oklahoma, at Norman, has two buildings, costing \$160,000, and a Carnegie library is now building. It has an enrollment of about five hundred students. The Central Normal School, at Edmond, last year had an enrollment of 761; the Northwestern Normal, at Alva, an enrollment of 753; and the Southwestern Normal, at Weatherford, an enrollment of 356. The latter has been established only two years. The Agricultural and Mechanical College, at Stillwater, with the experiment station in connection with it, is doing a great work for the farmers of Oklahoma.

In addition to the Territorial institutions, there are a number of important denominational educational institutions in Oklahoma. Among them are a Congregational college at Kingfisher, a Baptist college at Blackwell, and the Oklahoma Presbyterian College at Newkirk. The Methodist Episcopal Church is just completing a \$100,000 institution at Oklahoma City, to be known as Epworth University. There are also numerous business colleges, convents, academies, and Indian mission schools scattered over the Territory. At Chillico an agricultural school



AN INDIAN TERRITORY COAL MINE.

is maintained by the Government for the education of Indian boys and girls in agriculture. The Government spends about \$150,000 on its maintenance each year.

In the Indian Territory, as there is no Territorial government, there are no Territorial schools; but the various Indian tribes have excellent schools, among them several high-grade academies, and the federal government has been providing school facilities for the white population. With the coming of Statehood, however, a public-school system can be organized.

Every town in Oklahoma has its quota of churches. Although coming together from widely different sections, the people of each denomination gathered and built themselves church homes, and the church and the schoolhouse are found side by side. According to the report of Governor Ferguson for 1904, the ten principal denominations have an aggregate membership of over one hundred thousand. Here are some figures relative to church organizations and membership:

Church buildings.	Value.	Membership.	
Methodist Episcopal.....	193	\$350,000	18,590
Roman Catholic.....	52	250,000	20,000
Baptist.....	150	150,000	16,000
Christian.....	123	240,000	18,000
Methodist, South.....	90	90,300	10,891
Congregational.....	75	150,000	2,700
Presbyterian.....	50	125,000	4,000
Friends.....	28	10,000	1,500
Protestant Episcopal.....	18	42,000	891
Colored churches.....	15,222

RAILROAD-BUILDING IN THE TERRITORIES.

Both Oklahoma and the Indian Territory owe much of their development to the railroads which traverse them. It is, of course, to the interest of the railroads to people the fertile lands as rapidly as possible, and to do all in their power to assist the settlers in becoming prosperous, for upon the prosperity of the territory which it traverses depends the prosperity of a railroad line. Nearly every line of railway reaching the Southwest maintains an immigration bureau to set before home-seekers the advantages of the new lands. From Kansas City and St. Louis

the lines of half-a-dozen big systems traverse the twin Territories. The Santa Fé has two lines running south through eastern Oklahoma; the Pecos Valley line of the same road traverses the northwestern portion of the Territory, and another line extends south from Kansas City into the heart of the Indian Territory. The Rock Island's



THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA, AT NORMAN.

Texas line runs across central Oklahoma, and it has numerous branches covering the Territory. The El Paso line of the same road crosses Beaver, the extreme western county of the Territory, while the Choctaw, Oklahoma & Gulf, a Rock Island connection, extends east and west through the central parts of both Territories. The Frisco enters the Indian Territory at its northeastern corner and runs southwest into southern Oklahoma, while another line runs south through the Creek and Chickasaw Nations, and still another runs into central Oklahoma from southern Kansas. The Missouri, Kansas & Texas extends across the Indian Territory from north to south, and another line enters Oklahoma through the Osage Nation. The St. Louis & Iron Mountain crosses the Cherokee Nation from Kansas to Fort Smith, Ark., and the Kansas City, Mexico & Orient is building a new transcontinental line from Kansas City to the Gulf of California through western Oklahoma. Besides these there are numerous branch lines. More railroads have been built in these two Territories during the last two years than in any other part of the country, and the day is not far distant when the new commonwealth of Oklahoma will be as well supplied with railroad facilities as Iowa or Illinois.



A BANK BUILDING AT TISHOMINGO, INDIAN TERRITORY.
(Constructed of Tishomingo granite, an exceptionally beautiful building material.)

GROWTH IN POPULATION AND WEALTH,—THRIVING CITIES.

Largely owing to the efforts of the railroads in advertising the resources and advantages of the Territories, their increase in population and wealth has been extremely rapid, and it is still continuing. Four years ago, Comanche, Kiowa, and Caddo counties, in southern Oklahoma, were Indian reservations on which a white man had no rights. To-day they have a population of eighty thousand prosperous, happy people and an assessed valuation of about eleven million dollars. The real valuation is two or three times that amount.

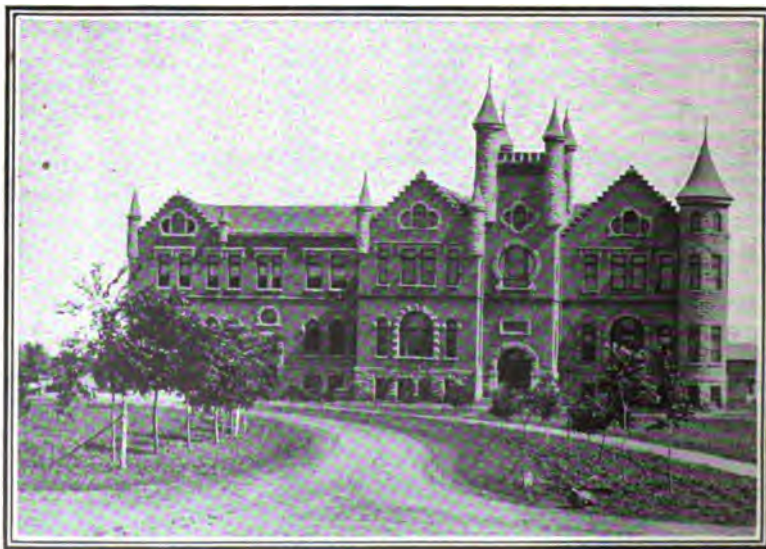
Ten years ago the town of Shawnee, in southeastern Oklahoma, had no place on the map. To-day it is a city of eighteen thousand people, with three railroad systems and all modern improvements. Last year thirty brick business blocks and five hundred residences were erected in this town.

Forty miles to the west of Shawnee is Oklahoma City, the metropolis of the Territories. It will be near the geographical center of the new State of Oklahoma. Sixteen years ago its site was barren of human habitation. To-day it claims a population of more than

thirty thousand, and seems destined to be the metropolis of the Southwest. It has fourteen miles of asphalt pavement and eighteen miles of electric street railway. It has eight banks, with deposits reaching three millions of dollars. It has sixty manufactories and forty-seven wholesale houses. Last year thirty-one new business houses were built, some of them five and six stories in height. There were also 375 new residences built, ranging as high as \$65,000 in value, and three new churches, costing \$130,000.

Guthrie, thirty miles north of Oklahoma City, the Territorial capital, is another flourishing city. While its neighbor to the south has outstripped it slightly in growth, it is a very important manufacturing and jobbing center, and anywhere but in Oklahoma its growth would be phenomenal.

The State of Oklahoma will differ from its neighbor, Kansas, in that its central portion will be far more advanced and more populous than its eastern portion, owing to the fact that the Indian Territory has not been opened to free settlement by the whites. The eastern portion will make a remarkable growth, however,—more remarkable even than in the past,—when Statehood is an accomplished fact. It is estimated that in the next three or four years half or two-thirds of the land in the Indian Territory may be placed on the market. Most of the Indian allottees will have much more land than they will use. Under the rules established by the Dawes Commission, most of them can sell one-fourth of their allotment the first year, an-



THE LIBRARY BUILDING OF THE OKLAHOMA AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE AT STILLWATER.



A COUNTRY HOME IN THE INDIAN TERRITORY,—CHOCTAW NATION.

other quarter the second year, and a third quarter in three years, and a great amount of this land will be placed on the market. Much of it is exceedingly fertile, and the result will be a rapid migration into what is now the Indian Territory. The towns which have been laid out by the town-site commissioners are already growing rapidly. Muskogee, the commercial center of the Indian Territory, on the line between the Creek and Cherokee Nations, has a population of 15,000 people, and South McAlester, in the Choctaw coal-fields, has over 10,000. Numerous other towns have from 3,000 to 8,000.

FINANCIAL STRENGTH.

In a financial way these two Territories are making tremendous gains. In a new country most of the returns from the soil are expended for improvements, and this is what has happened in Oklahoma and the Indian Territory. Yet in the latter, in the seven months from June 9, 1904, to January 11, 1905, the bank deposits increased from \$8,098,840.78 to \$11,437,883.11,—an increase of over 40 per cent.

In June of last year Oklahoma Territory had 92 national banks and 250 Territorial banks, with a combined capital of \$5,785,000, and with deposits aggregating over eighteen million dollars. The Indian Territory last January had 113 national banks, with a capital of \$4,847,500, and deposits amounting to nearly \$11,500,000. At this writing (August, 1905) the bank deposits are estimated at \$20,000,000 for Oklahoma and \$17,000,000 for the Indian Territory.

It was an Oklahoma banker, M. L. Turner, president of the Western National Bank, of Oklahoma City, who went to Washington a few

months ago and surprised Eastern financiers by purchasing \$3,000,000 of Philippine securities, outbidding Wall Street in securing the plum. He did it with Oklahoma money.

LANDS STILL OPEN TO ENTRY.

The future of Oklahoma no one can predict. There was still two and a half million acres of government land open to entry on June 30, 1904, but that it is being taken up rapidly is shown by the fact that over two million acres



A TYPICAL TOWN HOME,—GUTHRIE, OKLAHOMA.

had been homesteaded during the year ending on that date. Over one and a half million acres of this vacant land was in Beaver County, the strip that runs from the main body of Oklahoma west to New Mexico. Nine hundred thousand acres in this county was taken up last year. Altogether there remains about one million acres.

VARIED RESOURCES.

It has been remarked that New England, buying its coal in West Virginia and Maryland; its iron in Alabama, Virginia, and Pennsylvania; much of its timber in the South; its cotton also in the South; its hides in the West; and its foodstuffs from the same source, has developed an industrial life and wealth equaled nowhere else in the country. Yet the new State of Oklahoma will have nearly all of these things within its boundaries. It will have coal without limit; the finest kind of timber from cedar to walnut and oak; hides on its western prairies; and foodstuffs, not only for its own people, but for millions besides. And in addition it has gas, oil, and other underground resources as yet undeveloped, a climate that is neither too hot nor too cold, and a cosmopolitan people full of the vim and energy characteristic of the West.

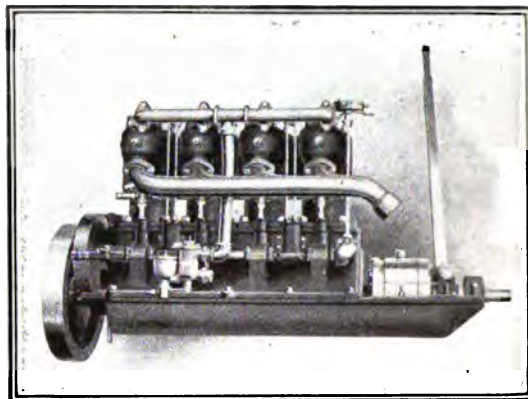
THE AGE OF GASOLINE.

BY F. K. GRAIN, M.E.

(Author of "Gas Engines and Launches.")

AT the beginning of the twentieth century we find gasoline even in its infancy threatening to supersede coal as a producer of motive power, light, and heat. As a competitor of steam it has already supplanted its old and well-tried rival in the smaller units, especially in marine use, and we daily note its adoption in new fields. Unlike many producers of power which have appeared in the past two decades, it has universally proved a commercial success to whatever purpose adapted. Although most people have some idea in a vague way of what gasoline really is, few understand its true composition. Without entering into a detailed description of the process of producing it, we can perhaps best explain to the layman that it is a product of crude oil, or petroleum, obtained during the process of distillation. In refining the crude petroleum we extract different grades of oils in their turn, and in this process we come to the lighter and more volatile products known as gasoline, naphtha, and benzine, the difference being but a few degrees in their specific gravity.

In the use of gasoline for power purposes we have to employ mechanical means to control and convert its energies; thus, we have the motor known as the gas or gasoline engine. The gasoline engine as now made is an adaptation of the steam engine, employing the gas produced by gasoline as a means of energy. Contrary to the general understanding, the gas or gasoline en-



A MODERN FOUR-CYLINDER HIGH-SPEED GASOLINE ENGINE.

(The type employed in the propulsion of the so-called
auto-boats.)

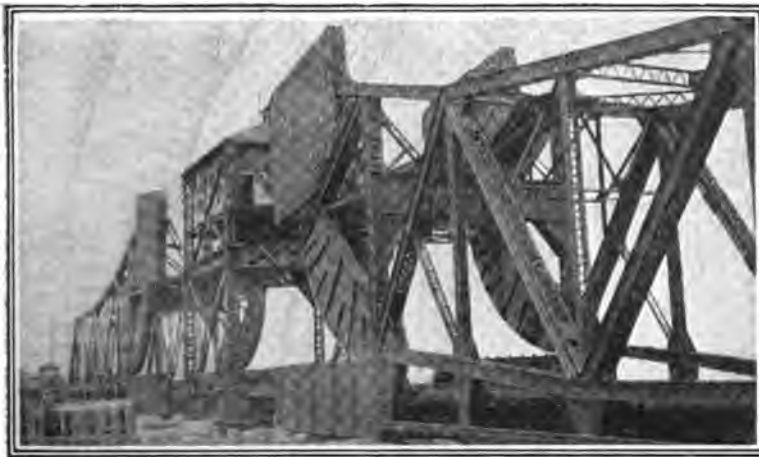
gine is but a high-pressure caloric motor. The power in the gasoline motor is derived by igniting the gas produced in the cylinder, which in turn by its heat expands, the atmosphere imparting energy to the piston by its expansion. A common error is the supposition that the explosion of the gas produces the power, the same as a blow from a hammer, whereas it is the heat generated by the ignition of the compressed gases acting expansively.

About fifteen years ago we first began to hear much of the gasoline engine, which was then in



THE GASOLINE LAUNCH "ONONTIO."

(Photograph taken while traveling at the rate of 28 miles an hour. The engines are of the six-cylinder four-cycle type, developing 175 horse-power.)



NEW LIFT-BRIDGE OF THE CENTRAL RAILROAD OF NEW JERSEY OVER NEWARK BAY.
(The lifts of this bridge are operated by gasoline engines. Several bridges of like design are now being built for the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad.)

a very crude state. Its possibilities, however, were so attractive, and the field for its use so large,—practically unlimited,—that inventors and manufacturers at once bent their energies to its development, with the result that the gasoline engine has reached a degree of perfection in the past few years that is surprising in view of the fact that the designers were working out a new problem in a practically unknown field, and consequently had no data, theoretical or practical, of any value to assist. This task was made still more difficult by the fact that the requirements of the gasoline engine created a demand for certain electrical appliances, special metals and castings, accessories and fixtures of many kinds, which all in their turn had to be perfected and produced in order to bring the gasoline motor to its present state of perfection and enable it to compete, in efficiency, with steam.

As a motive power, utilized by means of the internal-combustion engine, gasoline is at this time revolutionizing travel, through the automobile. The automobile, in turn, has been the means of adapting gasoline to propulsion of railway trains, as this form of power is found especially useful on

short lines where the traffic is light. Several railroads are now building gasoline motor cars of considerable size.

The use of gasoline is not alone confined to the internal-combustion engine,—it is largely employed for heating by vaporizing and burning the gas in stoves, and also by the same means in the production of gas for lamps which by means of the mantle burners give a light of very high candle power.

Another use to which gasoline is adapted, and in which it is finding rapid favor, is for supplying the power for operating draw and lift

bridges, the engines being sunk in the piers of the bridges or placed overhead, which is made possible by their small dimensions. We find the farmer now sawing his wood, grinding his fodder and corn,—even operating his wife's washing-machine,—with a small, inexpensive gasoline engine. It is running air-compressors daily in our streets, cleaning and carving the fronts of our buildings. By its means we are running portable vacuum pumps which call at your house and draw every

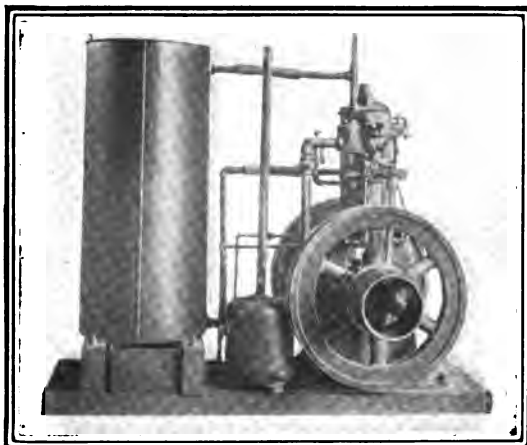


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THE UNITED STATES SUBMARINE TORPEDO BOAT "HOLLAND" AND HER CREW OF NAVAL ACADEMY INSTRUCTORS.

(The *Holland* is operated while not submerged by a gasoline engine, which, while propelling the boat, charges the storage batteries for operating the electric motor for propulsion while submerged.)

particle of dirt and dust from every crevice and nook, leaving your house and its furnishings perfectly clean. The small manufacturer, from whose smokestack formerly issued volumes of black soft-coal smoke, has now only a small exhaust pipe protruding from his building, a gaso-



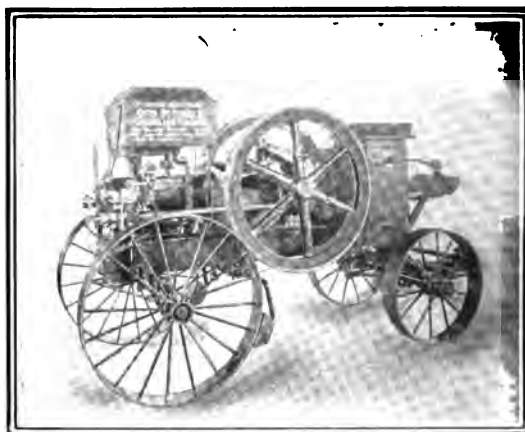
A 2-HORSE-POWER GASOLINE ENGINE.

(Mounted on skids patterned after sled-runners; may be moved by one horse from place to place on the farm.)

line engine taking up but one-quarter of the space formerly given up to his steam engine and boiler. It requires no State inspection, licensed engineer, and, for that matter, scarcely any attention.

It is but a few years since our bays and harbors were dotted with small sailing craft bent on pleasure or employed in fishing or other industries. Now the small sailing craft has almost come to be a curiosity, the gasoline engine having taken the place of sails, enabling the boats to come and go regardless of the elements, and to explore waters not available to the sailing vessel. Perhaps it is in the marine field that the greatest strides have been made in the employment of the gasoline engine, and there are to-day over fifty thousand gasoline-power boats in the United States.

Experiments looking to the employment of gasoline in the propulsion of large vessels are daily showing

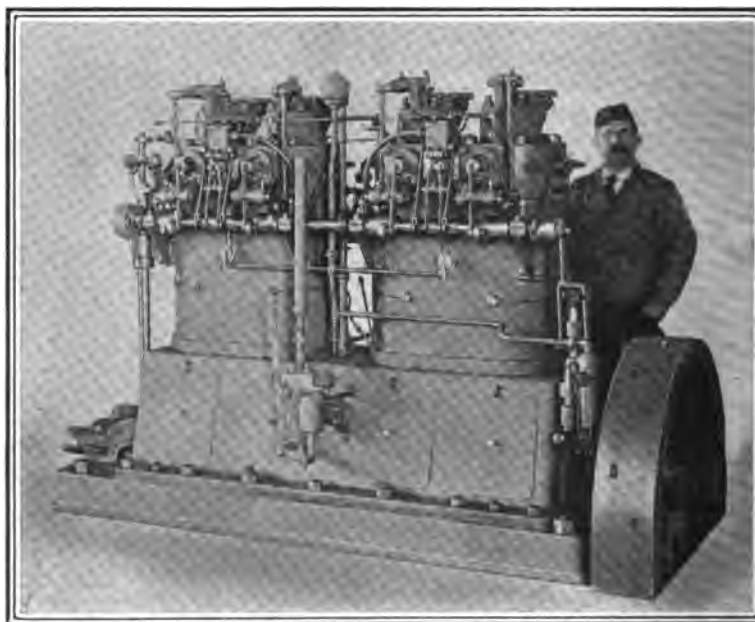


A PORTABLE GASOLINE ENGINE.

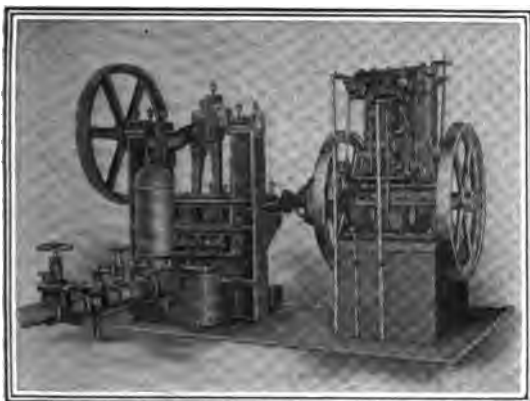
(9 horse-power; 300 revolutions per minute. Weight, 3,800 pounds.)

surprising results. The performance of the torpedo yacht *Gregory* in crossing the Atlantic quite recently was a notable instance. Gasoline has also made possible the submarine torpedo boat, which seems destined to play so important a part in the future operations of navies.

Gasoline may almost be regarded as a means of our future independence from trusts and grasping corporations. We have now but to call at almost any corner grocery and for a small outlay fill our can with gasoline that will give



A FOUR-CYCLE GASOLINE ENGINE OF 200 HORSE-POWER; USED IN SUBMARINE BOATS.



A GASOLINE ENGINE USED IN A NEW JERSEY PUMPING PLANT.

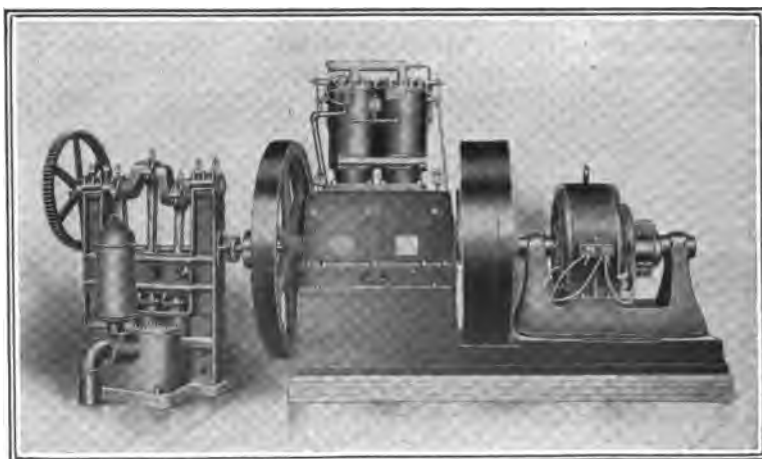
us the means of doing our cooking, lighting our houses, or operating the engines that will generate our electricity. It gives us our means of travel, through the power furnished us in either automobile or boat. The use of the gasoline engine, the power of which is ready at a moment's notice, may supply us with water for drinking or for irrigating our gardens, may do our threshing and grinding, may operate our ice-machines, may convey us to the tops of our tallest buildings, may run the machinery which makes our clothes, or may fashion the materials for the building of our homes. To-day we are only at the beginning of the developments in the use of gasoline, and each day sees us making improvements in the means of using it, discovering new economies in its consumption, and adapting it to new fields.

There are to-day more than ten thousand mechanics employed in the construction of gasoline engines in the United States. This number does not include mechanics engaged in other lines in the same factories, but only those actually engaged in the construction of engines. When we take into account all the articles manufactured which are in whole or in part dependent on gasoline in one way or another, we believe a conservative estimate would place the number employed at not less than one hundred thousand. The amount of capital invested is very difficult to estimate, owing to the number of manufacturers who do not make gasoline

appliances exclusively. However, estimating that we have engaged exclusively in the manufacture of gasoline engines in the United States, at the lowest estimate, two hundred well-established and prominent manufacturers, whose paid-up capital will average, at the lowest estimate, twenty-five thousand dollars each, it will readily be seen that we have in that one branch some five millions of dollars invested, and as a large amount of this represents capital invested in new and improved machinery, new buildings, etc., it demonstrates the great assistance gasoline has been to labor, particularly in the large purchases of machinery coming at a period when the general outlook in the machinery market was anything but encouraging.

Although the output of gasoline, like all hydro-carbon products, is controlled by the trusts, the tendency has been to reduce its price to the consumer, and we see no reason to fear that its increase in use will result in any increase in price.

Some of the largest power plants now being erected in Europe and in the United States are installing external-combustion motors of higher powers than were formerly attempted, even in steam practice. Gasoline engines of 1,000 horsepower are to-day quite common, and, used in multiple or battery, we find a number of plants from 3,000 to 5,000 horse-power. In cost of operation, the gasoline engine will develop a horse-power at a fuel expenditure of 1 cent, against $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents for the steam engine and about $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents for electricity. Taking every point into consideration, the showing as made to-day by gasoline certainly puts it in the foremost rank as a power-producer, with almost unlimited possibilities.



A GASOLINE ENGINE USED FOR ELECTRIC LIGHTING AND PUMPING.



A GROUP OF LITTLE PATIENTS ON THE SANDS AT SEA BREEZE, CONEY ISLAND, NEW YORK.

THE SEA-AIR TREATMENT FOR NEW YORK'S BEDRIDDEN CHILDREN.

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN.

(General Agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.)

"WELL, I hope he jest did enjoy hisself!"

How many adults who entertain the President of the United States rise to such solicitude? The wee hostess had seen the heretofore mythical personage right before her going about under the trees at Sea Breeze, where the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor gives fresh air each summer to over twenty thousand children and mothers from the so-called slums; had wondered why he laughed when she and two hundred and fifty others sang "Tammany, Tammany;" had learned that he had come to visit the Sea Breeze "cripples;" had even looked straight into his eyes as he said, "I am glad to see you out in the open air having such a good time getting well and strong."

The cripples referred to are forty-three children who furnish the now conclusive testimony for the first American experiment in out-of-door sea-air treatment of non-pulmonary tuberculosis. Night and day, rain or shine, winter or summer, these children breathe only out-of-door salt air. Leaving their hospital wards or overcrowded homes, many of them considered helpless and hopeless, they have responded immediately to the stimulating atmosphere, nourishing food, and normal child pleasures by gaining in spirit, weight, color, vitality. An emaciated girl of seven, weighing only twenty-seven pounds, has gained twelve pounds in as many weeks; a child

of four is now walking on the foot no one hoped to save; Emil, bedridden for thirty months, can use the "scups" and walk quite freely; David, all but hopeless last December, now writes, "There are two other boys who are sick instead of me,—I am getting well."

"SURGICAL TUBERCULOSIS" AND ITS VICTIMS.

The distinguished guest of July 28 exclaimed, "Anybody could get well out here!" The same conclusion has been reached by eminent medical and surgical experts intimately acquainted with the inception and progress of the Sea Breeze demonstration dating from June, 1904. The experiment was begun in the interest of seventy-five thousand little American children known generally as cripples, whose misfortune, usually attributed to fate or a blow, is really due to tuberculosis. Almost every village knows one or more; New York's tenements alone have over four thousand. These children, when not neglected, are now being treated in conventional hospital wards and clinics; operation follows operation. We have hunchbacks where we might have straight backs; stiff joints where there might be free joints; and permanent deformity, arrested development, or loss of life where, if treated in time out-of-doors, preferably in the salt air, the disease could be cured without mutilating or crippling its victims.

Never until our attention was concentrated upon this phase of the terrible scourge, tuberculosis, did we realize how pitilessly it afflicts the helpless child. Because the child's lungs are relatively strong, the tubercular germ-plant seeks elsewhere the weak tissue upon which it thrives. In our small group almost every organ is affected,—ankle, toe, knee, hip, spine, ear, eye, wrist, elbow, rib, shoulder, finger, glands of the neck and the loins, pleura, and skin. In many cases it is possible to trace the little moss-like organism working in the child's hip or finger or ankle directly to the similar plant which caused the death, after eating away the lungs, of the child's father or mother, uncle or grandmother.

PURPOSE OF THE WORK AT SEA BREEZE.

The New York Association itself never intended to add a permanent hospital to its fresh-air work. It undertook rather to accomplish four things: (1) To impress upon consumptive adults that their neglect of simple precautions inflicts upon their helpless children another terrible form of their own malady, which, unchecked, will cripple and maim their offspring for life; (2) to inform the general public that the vast majority of crippled children owe their misfortune to the same germ that causes consumption in adults; (3) to prove that it is possible by salt-air treatment, proper food, and

expert orthopedic care to cure even desperate cases of surgical tuberculosis; (4) to attract the attention of philanthropists, city officials, and private hospitals to the vast possibilities of reinforcing the crusade against consumption if inexpensive, out-of-door sea-air hospitals proclaim constantly the child's right to protection.

The *Outlook* for July 8, 1905, contained a letter written by Laura Winnington, herself at the point of death, telling of this opportunity in philanthropy. Within a few days after the publication of this letter Mr. Jacob A. Riis had visited Sea Breeze at the request of a wealthy friend of little children; had contrasted the ruddy cheeks, outdoor life, the games, surf-bathing, and buoyant atmosphere with other observations in tenements and in hospital wards; the



THE SEA BREEZE SUBSTITUTE FOR A TUB BATH.

(In the group are several children who were regarded as bedridden and hopeless as recently as last January and February.)



THIS ILLUSTRATION SHOWS THE GENERAL ENVIRONMENT WHICH THE CHILDREN HAVE HAD SUMMER AND WINTER.



THE PORCH VIEW, WHERE THE NEW ARRIVALS SLEEP DURING THE DAY.

(Note the absence of glass windows. The first three children are resting after games on the beach. The seated boy is Emil, who had been thirty months in the city hospital, and could be moved only on a wagon. The ocean can be seen from this porch.)

friend had offered to be one of ten to give twenty-five thousand dollars toward the first of a chain of seaside hospitals; President Roosevelt had signified his desire to see for himself the work destined to mean much to suffering children in every corner of the land, and Miss Winnington had died knowing the happy results of her last effort.

THE SEA-AIR TREATMENT
WELL ESTABLISHED IN
FRANCE.

Although holding out hopes new to American children afflicted with non-pulmonary tuberculosis and to their parents and friends, the sea-air cure is well known to Europeans. As early as 1861 the city of Paris established at Berck, near Calais, a hospital, since enlarged to seven hundred and fifty beds, which, with other hospitals on near-by beaches, pro-

vides for four thousand children. Cases of lung tuberculosis are treated there as they should be here,—away from the more active air of the seashore. But that very ozone which overstimulates the weak lung helps to tear down the weak tissue of joint or skin or gland on which the tubercular plant thrives. Ozone is effectively aided by other ingredients of salt water and salt air,—“saline matter, chlorides of sulphate, sodium, sulphate of magnesium, muriate of magnesium, and of calcium and salts of iodine and bromine.” Other European countries have followed the example of France, the story of which, told by Mr. John Seely Ward, Jr., to the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, led to the first American experiment.

In some ways Sea Breeze has surpassed its model,—notably in its insistence upon outdoor air, which the French shut out at night.



HOW THE CHILDREN ENJOYED THEMSELVES DURING THE WINTER MONTHS.

OUTDOOR AIR AND WHOLESOME SPORTS.

Sea Breeze children slept all winter in rooms with windows wide open except when closing was necessary to protect one side against beating winds. In the daytime, those unable to play on the beach slept on a sheltered veranda. Even the Delsarte exercises of the kindergarten and the milk-and-cracker and apple lunches were taken out-of-doors. Only two days during the entire winter were the children kept indoors, and then because of the driving snow, not the cold. Children brought from hospital wards went out immediately, slept all day, all the next night, and all the next day. When asked if it would not be better to accustom the children to outdoor air gradually, Dr. James, chairman of the Medical Advisory Board, replied, "If you had a child accustomed to sour milk, would you come to sweet milk *gradually*?" At present screens are substituted for glass windows, and doors have been taken off so that the sea breezes have free play night and day.

Specialists who have observed the experiment lay great stress upon the rousing good time the children have even when on frames. "Red Nate," six years old, whose father, now dead, first learned that he had consumption, not malaria, during a visit to his boy at Sea Breeze, was told that he would go away when his wound healed. He said, "Then I must have another hole put in my leg; I don't want to go away."



A LITTLE GIRL, FOUR YEARS OLD, WHO HAD NEVER WALKED.

(She came to Sea Breeze to gain strength for the amputation of her foot. The foot is saved. She now walks freely.)



FOUR BEDRIDDEN CHILDREN ENJOYING THE "SCUPS."

The ocean itself is a versatile entertainer, and it is impossible for a child to remain depressed who sees other children leave their beds for the joy of snowballing, surf-bathing, hunting four-leaf clovers, and singing popular songs under the paradise trees with the well children. It should, however, be understood that salt air and a good time require to be supplemented by wholesome food and expert orthopedic care.

WHY NOT HAVE MORE SUCH HOSPITALS?

As to the general need of a chain of hospitals on the American coast, letters received from every section of the country testify. Mothers, physicians, pastors have written from the West, from the South, from interior districts. A few days ago a travel-stained, pathetically appealing figure on crutches arrived at Sea Breeze, and announced in broken Swedish dialect that he had come for treatment. He was a Chicago tailor unable to earn wages because of a tubercular knee, who had read of Sea Breeze in a Chicago paper; a policeman had told him it was free; a Swedish consul had given him a railroad ticket, and he was there. A tent was put up, and he began getting well with a vengeance. He went in swimming every day, anchoring his crutches on the posts. He will get well. But, as in all other cases, protracted treatment for months and months is necessary to guarantee the elimination of tuberculosis from the system.

The writer is a layman and cannot speak authoritatively of results, although gladly testifying to what his own eyes have seen. Information regarding various phases of the Sea Breeze experiment will be gladly given by Howard Townsend, chairman of the committee in charge; or Charlton Wallace, M.D., attending orthopedic surgeon.



THE REPRESENTATIVE BRITISH MONTHLY REVIEWS AND WEEKLIES.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN GREAT BRITAIN.

BY HARRY JONES.

(Associate editor of the London *Daily Chronicle*.)

DURING the past twenty years the taste of the reading public in the United Kingdom has fundamentally altered. It is not a change that has taken place, but a revolution. Many causes have contributed to bring it about. Probably the most potent single factor has been the introduction of compulsory education by the establishment of school boards.

The British daily and weekly newspapers had attained a high standard of excellence. But, with all their merits, they remained essentially organs of the well-to-do classes. They were marked by didacticism, aloofness, and a decorum that was almost frigid. In newspapers of this character the new democracy found little to appeal to it. A commercial traveler named George Newnes, the son of a Congregational minister, recognized the growth of a new public not catered to either in the daily or the weekly press. So, in 1881, he started a weekly penny magazine called *Tit-Bits*. It consisted of a collection of interesting extracts culled from books, magazines, and newspapers, with a "dash" of original matter. It was light, but clean and not unwholesome, and its success was instantaneous. *Tit-Bits* was the herald of the coming revolution. It soon had imitators, and one of these, a weekly paper called *Answers*, founded by Alfred C. Harmsworth, a young man who had no capital but his brains, quickly rivaled *Tit-Bits* in popularity.

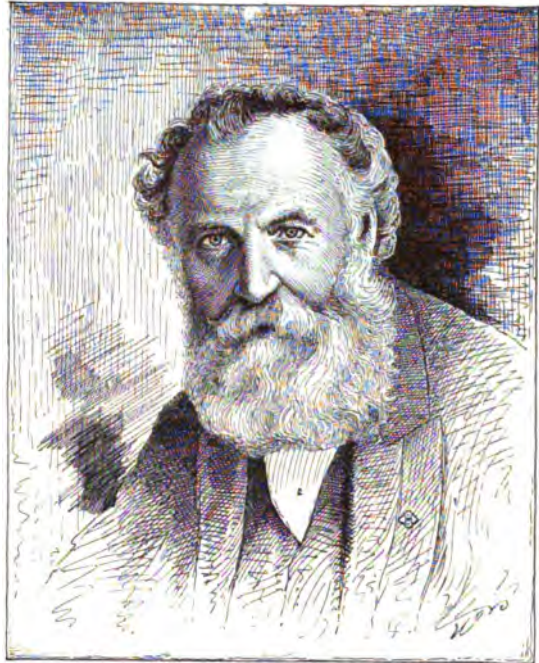
Meanwhile, the daily press in the United Kingdom went on in its old jog-trot way, giving undue prominence to politics,—stiff, dry, exclusive,—leaving large territories of human interest untouched. Mr. W. T. Stead, who edited the *Pall Mall Gazette* with cyclonic energy in the late eighties, did something to humanize the daily newspaper. Among other things, following the American fashion, he introduced the interview,—a feature hitherto unknown in the British press. But Mr. Stead stood alone. His manner was incommunicable. He never founded a school, and when he vacated the editorial chair the Stead tradition went with him. The *Pall Mall Gazette* under Stead was influential, but it was never popular.

A new note was struck by a one-cent evening journal, the *Star*, established by Mr. T. P. O'Connor, M.P., in London, in 1888. The *Star* was fresh and unconventional. It had a keener sense for life and more "spice" than its contemporaries. Withal, it had a fine literary note. The *Star* was the forerunner of many very successful one-cent papers in provincial centers. Most of these had one quality in common,—they paid great attention to "live" news and athletics and very little to partisan politics. But it occurred to nobody that the time was ripe for an application to the morning newspapers of the methods that were giving to the evening jour-

nals large circulations. Presently the idea came to Alfred Harmsworth. Himself the child of the revolution, he was soon its directing spirit.

Pure chance drew Mr. Harmsworth into daily journalism. Two London journalists, old colleagues of my own, had obtained an option to purchase the *Evening News*,—a London newspaper with a large circulation, which had not paid a dividend for many years, and had swallowed up a large capital. That option was hawked about the city of London for more than a week to no purpose. As a last resort, it was offered to Mr. Harmsworth, who was then making £40,000 a year out of *Answers* and other publications. He decided to purchase the *Evening News*, acquiring the property for a mere song. This was his first venture on the sea of daily journalism. It proved exceedingly successful from a financial standpoint. The *Evening News* had as early as 1894, when purchased by Mr. Harmsworth, a circulation of over 100,000 copies, and, on a smaller capital and with enterprising management, it paid a handsome dividend in the first year of its new proprietorship. The splendid results achieved on the *Evening News* induced Mr. Harmsworth to try his fortune with a morning one-cent paper, and in 1896 the *Daily Mail* was launched at one cent. Its professed aim was to supply the whole world's news in epitome. Already London possessed a vigorous one-cent morning journal in the *Morning Leader*, but the *Leader* was a zealous party organ. Beginning by eschewing party politics, the *Daily Mail* sprang at once into a large circulation.

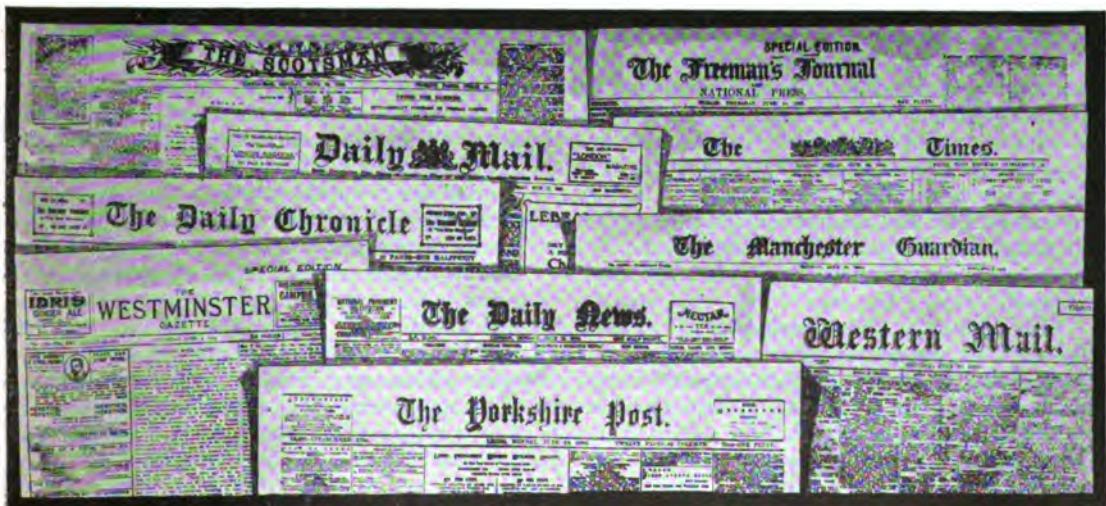
The *Mail* was a sign and a portent. It was plain that a new spirit had entered into English journalism. The old journalism was honest, but



MR. WILLIAM T. STEAD.

("At whose nod ministries used to tremble.")

apt to be ponderous. Now it was challenged by a new journalism,—all vivacity, nervous, impressionable, untroubled by principles, indifferent to tradition, and, withal, selling at half the price of the usual morning newspaper. While the old journalism maintained a dignified reserve in its attitude toward its readers, the new journalism was on speaking terms with them



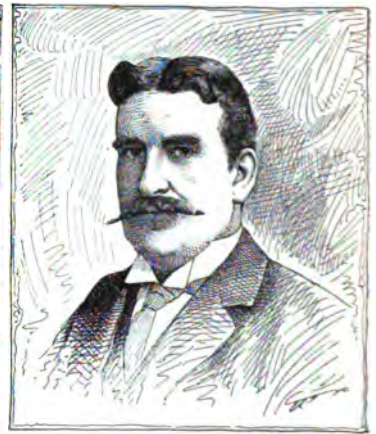
A FEW OF THE GREAT DAILIES OF LONDON AND OTHER BRITISH CITIES.



Mr. George E. Buckle, of the
Times.



Mr. Charles P. Scott, of the
Manchester Guardian.



Mr. Robert Donald, of the
Daily Chronicle.

THE EDITORS OF THREE GREAT BRITISH DAILIES:

from the first. The old journalism was conscientious, loyal to its principles; it took itself seriously, as an educative factor. On the contrary, the new journalism cares for nothing but its own self-interest. Its sole aim is to serve as a mirror of popular feeling.

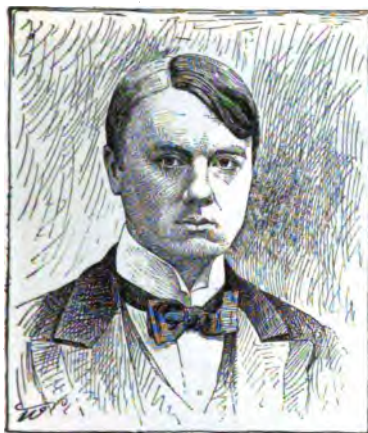
The effect on the older newspapers of a journalism so brilliant, audacious, and unprincipled was extraordinary. Journals and journalists accustomed to pay regard to principle, and to pride themselves on their consistency and their loyalty to party, viewed the new methods with feelings in which contempt, anger, and dismay were mingled. There were many who consoled themselves with the thought that the *Daily Mail's* success was a mere flash in the pan, and that it would have a meteoric career. On the contrary, it has gone on from strength to strength. For good or ill, the *Mail* and the school it has founded have become permanent features of British journalism. Flippant and insincere as it is, it were idle to deny that the *Mail* has conspicuous merits. It is alive in every fiber; there are no limits to its enterprise; it is superbly organized. In one respect, however, the *Daily Mail* has conspicuously failed. It has no weight whatever with public opinion. Its influence, indeed, is in inverse ratio to its circulation.

Yet the success of the *Daily Mail* in circulation has affected every daily newspaper in the land. Its disdain for the editorial article and for politics has spread far and wide. With the exception of the *Times*, there is hardly a British newspaper which devotes as much space to editorial opinions as it did ten years ago. The editorial article has, indeed, entirely lost its importance.

The *Times*, of course, has a place of its own. It is easily the first and the greatest of British newspapers. Founded as far back as 1788, it has been published continuously ever since. Its price, threepence (six cents), and its character necessarily restrict its circulation; but we must regard the *Times* readers qualitatively, not quantitatively. While it is no longer the great power it was under Mr. Delane in the mid-Victorian era, nevertheless, to the diplomatist, the politician, and the banker; to the expert in science and medicine and law, and to the journalist, the manufacturer, and the merchant, the *Times* is more than ever a necessary newspaper. Its foreign intelligence is unapproached by that of any other journal in the world. Its special articles are a liberal education. The *Times* is the only journal that reports Parliament *verbatim*.

THE NEW JOURNALISM IN ENGLAND.

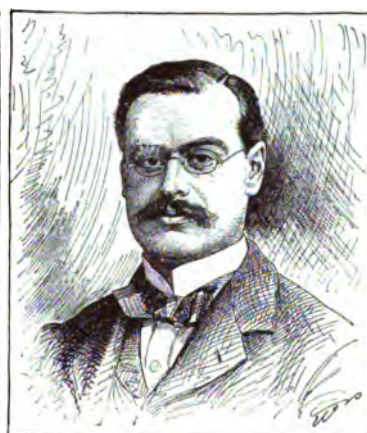
The birth of the new journalism synchronized with a period of political reaction in Great Britain. With the death of Gladstone, the noble idealism that formerly animated and uplifted British politics disappeared. The old faith, that righteousness exalteth a nation, has been eclipsed by the shadow of a rather gross imperialism. British home politics have in consequence become tame and secular. The mood may pass, but there is no immediate sign of its going. Certain it is that the new one-cent journals which treat politics with scant reverence do not suffer on that account. It is rather a disconcerting reflection that the masses of the British people receive practically no instruction in political principles from some of their favorite journals. Two old Liberal papers, the *Daily Chronicle* and



Sir Alfred C. Harmsworth.



Sir George Newnes.



Mr. C. Arthur Pearson.

THREE OF THE SUCCESSFUL PERIODICAL PUBLISHERS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

the *Daily News*, still preserve the character of political organs, though they have reduced their price to one cent; but destitute indeed must be the intellectual condition of a reader who relies for political pabulum on the *Daily Mail* or the *Daily Express*. Curiously enough, two London journals, the *Daily Telegraph* and the *Morning Post*, are giving more space than ever to politics. Doubtless, one reason for this is the diminished attention politics are receiving from the one-cent papers. The *Post* and the *Telegraph* are both two-cent newspapers. Each is an excellent property. Owned by Lord Glenesk, the *Morning Post* is the organ of fashionable society. The *Telegraph* appeals to a much wider constituency, and is a great advertising medium. For the past year or two, it has become more of a political organ than ever before. It has benefited, too, by the changes in the *Standard*, the organ of old-fashioned Conservatism, which seems to have quite lost its way. The foreign intelligence of the *Telegraph* is admirable, but, strangely enough, it pays little heed to American news, and devotes less attention than the *Daily Chronicle* to colonial affairs. The *Telegraph* has a great following among lovers of music and the drama.

Solid, austere, and just, the *Standard* was long the leading official organ of the Conservative party. For two generations it was owned by the Johnstone family, and brought in a goodly revenue to its proprietors. It used to be said that the *Standard* was read in every rectory in England. The advent of the one-cent newspaper had an injurious effect on its fortunes, but its clinging to old-fashioned methods also stood in the way of its progress. One day, last autumn, London was startled by the intelligence that the *Standard* had been bought by Mr. C. Arthur

Pearson. Versatile as he is, Mr. Pearson has not succeeded in retrieving the fortunes of the *Standard*. Like Sir George Newnes and Sir Alfred Harmsworth, he made a fortune out of miscellaneous weeklies before entering the domain of daily newspapers. In addition to the *Standard*, he owns also the *Evening Standard*, a two-cent journal, and the *Daily Express*, a successful one-cent morning daily, fashioned on the *Daily Mail* model.

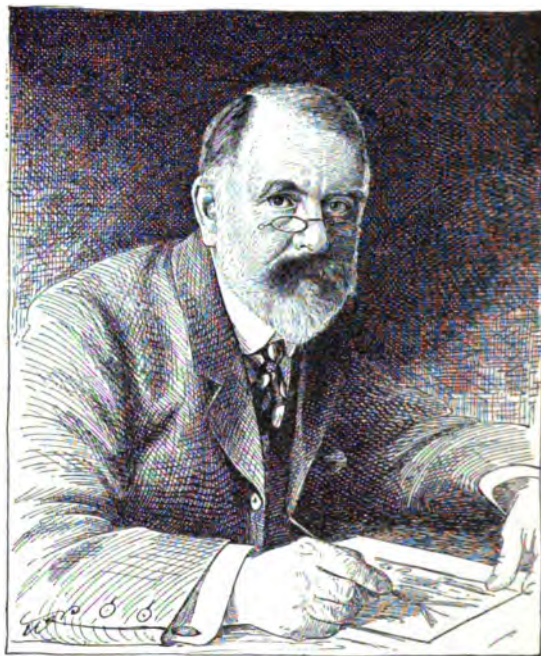
Of the Liberal journals the foremost is the *Daily Chronicle*. Founded in 1876 by the late Mr. Edward Lloyd,—a man of bold, original mind, who laid broad and deep the foundations of an immense and successful business,—the *Chronicle* has experienced some vicissitudes, and has known glorious epochs in its history. In the beginning of 1904, the *Chronicle* reduced its price to one cent, at the same time avowing its determination to preserve all the best features of two-cent journalism. That aim has been thoroughly realized. The *Chronicle* has altered its method of dealing with news, but it has not descended to the flippant level of some of its contemporaries, and it adheres tenaciously to the Liberal principles which it has advocated steadily for thirty years. Mr. Robert Donald has guided the paper through a difficult transition period with great skill. To-day the *Chronicle* has a larger circulation than any other Liberal journal in the country.

Another old-established paper, the *Daily News*, whose first editor was Charles Dickens (1846), and which has been an unflinching champion of Liberalism for half a century, also reduced its price last year to one cent, with satisfactory results from a circulation point of view. The *Daily News* gives special prominence to religious

news. It ignores horse-racing, which is a great popular pastime in England, will not publish betting odds, and has bound itself by a self-denying ordinance not to admit any advertisements connected with the drink traffic. It is owned by Mr. George Cadbury, of cocoa fame, a wealthy man of philanthropic instincts.

London is the only place in the United Kingdom which possesses two-cent evening newspapers. One of these, the *Westminster Gazette*, edited with unfailing sagacity by Mr. J. A. Spender, exercises a profound influence on political thought. It is the most intellectual organ of the daily press in this country. The editorial articles in the *Westminster* stand in a class by themselves. They are thoughtful, luminous, searching essays on the events of the day. In most daily papers, the glory of the leading article is passing away; but the *Westminster* is bought primarily for its leaders. It is Liberal in politics. A very attractive feature of the *Westminster* are the delightful cartoons of Mr. F. Carruthers Gould. The arts of caricature and cartooning are not much cultivated in England. There is a great demand for cartoonists with original ideas and deft pencils, but the supply is totally inadequate. Mr. Gould occupies a unique position, and his name is a household word throughout the kingdom. The *Westminster Gazette* is the depository of noble journalistic traditions. It is in the apostolic succession of a line of great journalists like Frederick Greenwood, John Morley, James Fitz James Stephen, W. T. Stead, E. T. Cook, and Alfred (now Lord) Milner, all of whom from time to time were associated with the *Pall Mall Gazette*, from whose loins the *Westminster* may be said to have sprung. In 1892, the Liberal *Pall Mall Gazette* was purchased by Mr. William Waldorf Astor, who intended running it as a Conservative paper. Mr. Astor found it easier to buy a newspaper than to buy men; and immediately the paper changed hands, the entire literary staff of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, with their able editor, Mr. E. T. Cook, at their head, severed their connection with it and went out into the wilderness. This courageous stand for conscience by an entire staff is a fine incident in the history of British journalism. After an interval, Mr. George Newnes,—now Sir George Newnes, Bart., M.P.,—provided the money for establishing a new Liberal evening paper to be conducted by the old *Pall Mall Gazette* staff. The new paper was called the *Westminster Gazette*, and in 1893 began its honorable and successful career.

The two-cent newspapers in London do not enjoy the popularity of their one-cent rivals. Some of the one-cent journals have enormous



MR. F. CARRUTHERS GOULD.
(The cartoonist of the *Westminster Gazette*.)

circulations. One secret of this is their "discovery" of the woman reader, and the youthful reader. Ten years ago the daily newspaper was the luxury of the few, now it is the necessity of the many. Workmen, schoolboys, shopgirls, waitresses, devour their halfpenny newspaper on their way to their daily duties. Women in England do not bother about problems, and the austerity and thoroughness of the old journalism repelled them.

In the provinces, as in London, the press has undergone a change, though it has not been so revolutionary in character. Sir Alfred Harmsworth and Mr. Pearson have, in the past half-dozen years, acquired several provincial organs. Journalists view with apprehension the continual absorption of old-established newspapers by one or other of these newspaper kings. Some, indeed, fear the establishment of a newspaper trust.

BRITISH JOURNALISM OUTSIDE OF LONDON.

Some of the provincial journals in England have attained to a high degree of excellence. There is no paper conducted with more ability than the *Manchester Guardian*, a paper which preserves all the finest features of the old journalism, and, at the same time, keeps itself well abreast of the needs of the day. It was founded in 1821 by Mr. John Edward Taylor, the grandfather of the present proprietor, and firmly

established itself as the organ of the Lancashire cotton industry. The *Guardian* has become a political force only within the present generation, under the editorship of Mr. C. P. Scott, M.P. It preaches Liberal doctrine with unswerving fidelity. It devotes more attention to literature, art, and music.—Manchester is celebrated for its music,—than any other English journal outside of London. The *Guardian* also publishes a very successful evening edition. A near neighbor is the Liverpool *Daily Post and Mercury*, of which Sir Edward Russell is the editor. The *Daily Post* recently absorbed the Liverpool *Mercury*, and is very prosperous.

The *Yorkshire Post*, a Conservative newspaper published at Leeds, is another leading provincial paper. It is Conservative in politics, and is a great power in the North of England. The *Yorkshire Post* has been fortunate in its editors. Mr. J. S. R. Phillips, who was for thirteen years the chief editorial writer of the paper before he became responsible editor, carries on the fine traditions of his three predecessors in the editorial chair.

In Scotland, pride of place belongs to the *Scotsman*, Edinburgh's great morning paper. It was started in 1817 as a Whig organ by Mr. William Ritchie and Mr. Charles Maclaren. Seventy years ago, Lord Cockburn described the *Scotsman* as "the first Scotch newspaper which combined independence with intelligence and moderation with zeal." It has always been

excellently conducted. It is one of the wealthiest papers in the provinces, and has recently entered into palatial new offices. The present editor is Mr. Charles Cooper, who has been connected with the paper since 1865. Originally Liberal in its sympathies, the *Scotsman* has been Unionist since 1886, and is now to all intents and purposes Conservative, though Scotland is itself predominantly Liberal. In Glasgow, the *Herald* enjoys great influence. It is one of the best commercial organs in the kingdom. One of the few provincial journals with individuality is the *Edinburgh Evening News*.

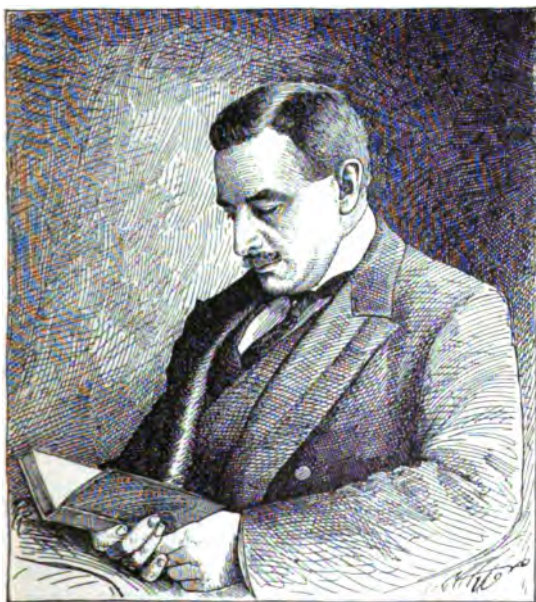
In Wales, notwithstanding the fact that the principality is Liberal to the core; the chief newspaper is a dashing Conservative journal, the *Western Mail*. One of the most successful evening newspapers in the country is the non-political *South Wales Echo*, published at Cardiff.

In Ireland, Mr. Thomas Sexton, the ex-M.P., whose eloquence used to dazzle the House of Commons, has helped to restore some of the ancient glories of the *Freeman's Journal*, the great organ of Nationalist opinion in Ireland. But the best all-round Irish newspaper is the *Irish Times*, an exceedingly well-conducted Conservative journal, which has brought a fortune to its chief proprietor, Sir John Arnott.

THE HIGH-CLASS WEEKLIES—AND THE OTHERS.

Of British weekly papers, the *Spectator* is king. It stands alone; the tide of modern degeneracy has not even touched its feet. In its nearly eighty years of life it had ups and downs before prosperity was reached; its position was never more influential than it is to-day. The *Spectator* is conducted with supreme ability by Mr. J. St. Loc Strachey. Though Liberal in its views, it has, since the Home Rule schism, thrown in its lot with the Unionist party. But when Mr. Chamberlain launched his tariff-reform proposals, the *Spectator* was one of the first to see the drift of the new policy. It is the ablest champion of free trade in the press. It is refreshing to contemplate the success of a paper like the *Spectator* when one is so often told that the public taste is hopelessly vitiated, and wants nothing more than "tabloid" journalism.

In Great Britain we have nothing analogous to the American Sunday paper. A few years ago an effort was made to acclimatize the Sunday newspaper in this country, but it met with very indifferent success. The effort did not fail from any lack of resources. It was made simultaneously by the proprietors of the *Daily Telegraph* and the proprietors of the *Daily Mail*, both papers commanding unique facilities and well supplied with the sinews of war. The *Sunday*



MR. J. ST. LOC STRACHEY.

(Editor and proprietor of the *Spectator*.)

Daily Telegraph and the *Sunday Daily Mail* had, however, short and inglorious careers. In fact, the seventh-day paper seems to be antipathetic to the British character, and the public heaved a sigh of relief when, through the intervention of Lord Rosebery, the *Telegraph* and the *Mail* came to a mutual understanding to abandon their experiment. The consequence is, that on Sunday the field is left to the ordinary weekly papers of a popular character, all of which publish Sunday editions. None of these weekly papers has any bold or striking features. They are sound rather than brilliant; their *raison d'être* is to give an epitome of the week's news, supplementing this on a Sunday with rather more exhaustive treatment of the doings of Saturday, especially athletics. Among these papers, the first position is occupied by *Lloyd's News*, which has the enormous circulation of a million and a quarter copies weekly. *Lloyd's* is owned by the proprietors of the *Daily Chronicle*.

A sixpenny weekly that has a note of its own is *Truth*, which reflects the fearlessness and the cynicism of its founder, Mr. Henry Labouchere, M.P. There is a sub-acid flavor in *Truth*, strangely blended now and again with something like generous enthusiasm for great causes. Among the religious papers may be mentioned the *Guardian* and the *Church Times*,—the one representing orthodox churchmanship; and the other, the intrepid and fiery organ of the militant ritualists. On the other side is the *Christian World*, which has a great circulation among the Nonconformists, and is a very sound and thoughtful paper. Another journal with a large Nonconformist following is the *British Weekly*, in every page of which is the impress of the powerful personality of its editor, Dr. Robertson Nicoll.

Humor is not a strong point in the English character, and the number of comic papers is small. *Punch* is wise and witty, but it is essentially an organ for the cultivated classes.

Among weekly publications, one must note the profitable and popular illustrated weeklies devoted to fashion and other women's interests. The *Queen*, the *Lady's Pictorial*, and *The Gentlewoman*, all three published at sixpence (twelve cents), are thriving properties. On the other hand, the general illustrated weeklies seem to be feeling the effect of the increasing attention given to illustrations in the daily journals.

THE GREAT QUARTERLIES AND MONTHLIES.

Although superficiality and flippancy appear to be qualities most esteemed by the great mass of readers in Great Britain, there is a faithful remnant which demands nobler fare. Happily,

the new democracy has not succeeded in removing all the old landmarks. The two great quarterlies, the *Edinburgh Review* and the *Quarterly Review*, survive to a vigorous old age. The *Edinburgh* was started in 1802 by a group of clever young men, among whom Jeffrey and Sydney Smith were conspicuous. Literature, politics, and the fine arts were treated in the *Edinburgh* always by accomplished and often by caustic pens. Some of Macaulay's most brilliant essays first saw the light of day in the *Edinburgh*. The editor is the Hon. Arthur Elliot, brother of Lord Minto, the recent governor-general of Canada.

The *Quarterly Review* came into being in 1807, and was established by John Murray, the famous publisher, with the avowed object of counteracting the Whiggish doctrines preached by the *Edinburgh Review*. Sir Walter Scott warmly sympathized with Mr. Murray's enterprise, and procured for him the coöperation of Southey. Both Southey and Scott became frequent contributors. The present editor of the *Quarterly* is Dr. G. W. Prothero, a scholarly man who touches life at many points.

The oldest of our monthly magazines is *Blackwood's*, which was first published in 1817. Founded as a militant Tory organ, it has preached Toryism with undeviating consistency for nearly a century. *Maga*, as it is familiarly known, is unique among monthly magazines from the fact that it has not only been owned but conducted by the same family with unbroken continuity from 1817 to the present day. *Maga* has always possessed a special attraction for writers on military topics. The best impressions of the Russo-Japanese war that have been published in the English language have appeared in *Blackwood's Magazine* during the present year.

Of the more modern monthlies the first in age is the *Fortnightly Review*, which first appeared in 1865. It was founded by three remarkable men,—George Henry Lewes, Anthony Trollope, and Frederic Chapman, the publisher. It was followed, in 1866, by the *Contemporary Review*; in 1877, by the *Nineteenth Century*; and in 1883, by the *National Review*. The *Fortnightly*, as its name signifies, originally appeared twice a month; but after little more than a year's existence it ceased to appear fortnightly, and became a monthly. "George Eliot" appears to have contributed only one article to the *Fortnightly*, notwithstanding the fact that George Henry Lewes remained its editor for nearly two years. She contributed much more frequently to the older *Westminster Review*, with which John Stuart Mill was connected,—a magazine that at one time had a great reputation, but which to-day is only

a pale reflection of its old glory. For fifteen years, Mr. John Morley filled with splendor and power the editorial chair of the *Fortnightly*. Under its present editor, Mr. W. L. Courtney, this well-known monthly has recovered much of its old prestige. But of the serious monthlies the most successful is the *Nineteenth Century and After*. Its proprietor and editor, Sir James Knowles, has succeeded in attracting to his banner the most distinguished men and women in the empire. Gladstone was one of Sir James Knowles' contributors.

There are many monthly publications appealing to the multitude. Of these the most popular is the *Strand Magazine*, one of the numerous publications of the house of Newnes, which easily maintains its supremacy notwithstanding the competition of many ambitious rivals; but even the *Strand* does not reach the vast figures of the circulations attained by the popular American monthlies. A magazine of the older type is *Chambers's Journal*. It is a healthy sign that this excellent monthly, which has many years of honorable life behind it, continues to thrive. A distinct place of its own among monthly publications has been won by the *Review of Reviews*, whose gifted editor, Mr. W. T. Stead, is one of the outstanding figures in British journalism.

Of the multitude of miscellaneous weeklies, which purvey light reading and do not supply news, little need be said. *Tit-Bits*, the first to be established, is easily the best. *Tit-Bits* laid the foundation of the large fortune accumulated by Sir George Newnes.

To sum up, the publishing and newspaper businesses in Great Britain have undergone a transformation in the past twenty years. The masses have come in, and old ideals and fashions have had to give way to their imperious demands. Nor is the end yet in sight. The one certain thing is that the purely propagandist daily has gone. For the rest, we are still passing through a transitional stage, of which the only encouraging sign is the evidence of growing distaste for the "snippety" weeklies.

One incident of the revolution in British journalism has been the disappearance of individual forces. British journalism, like that of France, was once rich in individuality,—that is, certain men on both sides of politics stood out like great landmarks. British newspapers now rely less and less on individuals. They have neither the space nor the inclination to allow men to achieve individual distinction. A dozen names might be mentioned at the present time of men who, in their day, had a commanding place in the British press, but who have now no fit arena for their abilities. Mr. E. T. Cook, an accomplished



MR. PERCY W. BUNTING.

(Editor of the *Contemporary Review*.)

scholar and a profound politician; Mr. T. P. O'Connor, one of the most vivid writers of the day; Mr. H. W. Massingham, who formerly edited the *Daily Chronicle*; and Mr. W. T. Stead, at whose nod ministries used to tremble in the old *Pail Mall Gazette* days,—all these men were great forces, who at one time enriched and enlivened British journalism. To-day strength, as typified in these famous journalists, is "mornfully denied its arena." Not one of them is in control of a daily newspaper. The new newspapers have no room for one commanding individuality. What they require are smart, resourceful men. They may be without erudition, without any solid talents, but if they have brightness and versatility much will be forgiven them. The newspaper, like nature, has become careless of the single life. Moreover, the increasing costliness of newspaper production has made capital dominant. The Steads, the Massinghams, the O'Connors, and the Cooks have had to give way before the power of the purse. This power is wielded by men who, without anything like the individual brilliancy of these great journalists, have yet an instinct for business amounting almost to genius. In short, the smart business man has driven out the conscientious exponent of great principles, the apostle of forlorn causes, the artist in prose. The English daily newspaper is in danger of degenerating into a mere trade, worked in the same way, and by much the same methods, as a department store.

BLENDING LEGAL SYSTEMS IN THE PHILIPPINES.

BY CHARLES SUMNER LOBINGIER.

(Judge of the Court of First Instance, Philippine Islands.)

ONE of the interesting results of the American annexation of the Philippines promises to be the development of a unique system of laws, differing alike from those of each contributing nation, yet combining some of the strong features of both. When American officials assumed the government of the archipelago they found the Spanish legal system in force in all parts, except, perhaps, what is now the Moro province,* for elsewhere practically nothing has been preserved of the Malay laws and customs. At first, the prejudice against everything Spanish suggested the complete uprooting of this judicial system. But a closer acquaintance disclosed that it was not wholly bad,—that, in fact, it contained very much that was good, and that its greatest defect lay not so much in the substance of the laws themselves as in the mode of, and provisions for, their execution. In other words, the weak part of Spanish jurisprudence is, and always has been, its *remedial law*,—that department which deals with remedies and the procedure in obtaining them,—rather than the *substantive law*, which deals with rights in the abstract. It was due in a large measure to this fact that the delays and difficulties of litigation under the Spanish *régime* became proverbial.† This, however, was not confined to the colonies; in peninsular Spain, owing to the vexations accompanying the ordinary judicial procedure, litigants have long resorted to private tribunals for the settlement of disputes.‡ Nor is this, as has too often been hastily assumed, proof of Spanish depravity. All judicial systems, unless tempered with common sense on the part of those who administer them, are in

constant danger of degenerating into technicality and of placing the form above the substance. English jurisprudence, of which our own is but a transplantation and development, has not been free from this charge, as Dickens' fictitious *cause célèbre* of Jarndyce vs. Jarndyce will testify. But the practical business instinct of the Anglo-Saxon has operated to correct some of the more serious abuses once complained of.

MERITS OF SPANISH JURISPRUDENCE.

On the other hand, the achievements of the Spaniard in the domain of substantive law have not, hitherto, been sufficiently appreciated. Just now our American lawyers are groaning under the enormous weight of judicial precedent, and codification is in favor as a means of relief from the multiplicity of reports. But the Spanish were the pioneer codifiers of modern times. Before the middle of the thirteenth century, when the written law of England was represented by a few scant treatises based on the Roman law—when the study of the Roman law had but recently been revived even in Italy itself—northern Spain produced a code, the *Siete Partidas* (seven parts), which the historian Dunham speaks of as “by far the most valuable monument of legislation, not merely of Spain, but of Europe, since the publication of the Roman (Justinian) Code.” The *Siete Partidas* form to-day a sort of common law for the Philippines, but nearly a decade before the American advent Spain had extended to the archipelago, as well as to Cuba and Porto Rico, her own “*codigo civil*.” This is a model of concise, comprehensive, and systematic codification. Divided into four books, it follows, in the main, the arrangement of Justinian's Institutes, and treats, in a volume of a little more than three hundred pages, the subjects of Domestic Relation, Property, Wills, Decedents' Estates, Contracts, etc., whose exposition in our law requires more than a half-dozen ponderous tomes. Nor is this treatment of the Spanish code superficial. By skillfully adopting the phraseology of the Roman codes and carefully studying the art of condensation, the Spanish codifiers have been able to express the principles of their substantive law in very small compass. As the

* “After a year of diligent investigation and study of the question, it has been found that the Moros and other savage people have no laws,—simply a few customs, which are nowhere general, varying from one valley to the next, from one island to another. . . . They have no written laws worthy of the name.”—Gen. Leonard Wood, governor of the Moro province, in his annual report, 1904.

† See Foreman, “The Philippine Islands” (2d ed.), pp. 267-270. Cf. the *Nation*, vol. lxxx., p. 170.

‡ E.g., “el tribunal de aguas,” or court of waters, established to settle differences between irrigators. See the *Nation*, vol. lxxx., pp. 169-170.

attorney-general* of the archipelago said to me shortly after my arrival, "It is all there; if you don't find the principle you are searching for the first time, look again; a closer reading will disclose it." In addition to the civil code, the Spaniards have rounded out their substantive law with a code of commerce (including the law of negotiable paper) and a mortgage law, both of which were extended to and are still in force in the archipelago.

AMERICAN CONTRIBUTIONS.

Our American lawmakers in the Philippines have been discriminating. Comparatively few changes have been made in the private substantive law. Certain sections of the civil code have been repeated, particularly those governing the administration of estates, which is, in a sense, a branch of procedure. Certain additions have been made in the form of acts of the Philippine Commission, as by enacting new libel and trade-mark laws providing, *inter alia*, for civil actions based thereon. The Spanish law, it may be remarked, has no department corresponding exactly to what in the English law is designated by the term "torts,"—i.e., wrongs independent of contract and redressed by a civil action as opposed to a criminal prosecution. Doubtless the deficiencies of the Spanish law in this regard will require considerable similar legislation in the future. But the existing codes of substantive law, so far as they go, remain, meanwhile, practically unimpaired.

CHANGES IN PROCEDURE.

On the other hand, the Spanish remedial law has been entirely swept away. Within less than two years after the American occupation, General Otis, as military governor of the Philippines, promulgated what is known officially as General Order No. 58, but which is really a concise and yet elaborate, humane, and up-to-date code of criminal procedure. The authorship of this clever piece of legislation has been ascribed (I cannot say how authentically) to Hon. Elihu Root, Secretary of War at the time of its appearance, and it is certainly worthy of so distinguished a lawyer. That it has survived the military government and remained in force more than five years, all the while giving satisfaction, proves its adaptability.

The task of supplanting the Spanish procedure in civil cases was more formidable, because of the larger scope and greater complexity. But within three months after the inauguration of civil government, in July, 1901, a new American

code of civil procedure went into effect, having been framed by Hon. Henry C. Ide, head of the Department of Finance and Justice. This code embodies the best results of the movement in progress during the last sixty years in the various States toward a codification of remedial law. It is based particularly on the codes of California and Vermont, and includes, as many do not, a chapter which codifies the general principles of the law of evidence. This is especially needful in the Philippines, because the Spanish code had very little to say of evidence, and there is not often, it is said, a legal treatise on the subject in that language. In our American law, on the contrary, evidence is one of the corner-stones, and it is important to have its principles codified in order to facilitate its introduction into a new field.

PUBLIC AND CONSTITUTIONAL LAW.

Thus far I have spoken only of private law,—the body of rules governing the relations of individuals with each other, as opposed to public law, which deals with the state and the citizen. In the latter field, the American contribution has been larger because more was needed. Spain has not been fruitful in constitutional results. It had no written constitution at all until 1812, and that was a borrowed instrument. Those great principles which form what we call the Bill of Rights in every American constitution are a product of the storm and stress of Anglo-Saxon history, which had no parallel in the Peninsula, and it is hardly to be wondered that the Spanish colonies were given practically nothing of what the mother country had so little. And here our American legislators rendered a real service by transplanting our constitutional and public law.

Much has been said about the failure to extend the federal constitution to the Philippines. But the Bill of Rights of that instrument is, with slight exceptions, practically reproduced in the Philippine Government Act passed by Congress on July 1, 1902. The exception which has been given most prominence is the guarantee of the right of jury trial. But aside from the question whether that system could ever be worked successfully among a people schooled for three centuries in the traditions of Latin Europe, the fact must not be overlooked that trial by jury would not come into vogue merely by extending the Constitution, for the guarantees of that instrument apply only to the United States courts proper.*

But the American legislators have done more than merely extend the Bill of Rights. They

*Hon. L. R. Wilfey.

*Barron vs. Baltimore, 7 Pet. (U. S.), 243.

have established a system of administrative law equal, if not superior, to that of any American State, including the merit system of appointments and an up-to-date internal-revenue measure. The achievements in this regard are in gratifying contrast to those of the Spaniards, who are proverbially unsuccessful as administrators.

The law of crimes is, by some jurists, treated as a branch of public law, but it is a department in which American lawmakers have, as yet, made few changes in the Philippines. The Spanish penal code, introduced in 1884, is still the law of the archipelago, though the commission has enacted some new criminal statutes, notably one relating to the crime of "bandolerismo," or larcenism. Sentiment has been somewhat divided as to the merits of this penal code, but the prevailing American opinion seems to be that its penalties are, on the whole, too severe, and that it leaves too little to the discretion of the trial judge. The commission has been for some time at work on a revision, and it is expected that before long a new criminal code, approaching more nearly the American standard, will supplant the present one.

PRECEDENT.

Case law, in the form of reported decisions, has not, as yet, played an important part in Philippine jurisprudence. The reports of the Supreme Court of Spain, which number about one hundred volumes, are authority in the interpretation of the Spanish codes (for we must still have "interpretation," though the law is codified), and the decisions of the Philippine Supreme Court, which have been published regularly in the *Official Gazette*, are now appearing in permanent form, the first volume, in both Spanish and English, having recently been issued. Upon all questions of remedial and public law, American decisions are cited in the courts, and the use of precedents in this way bids fair to become almost as common as in the code States of America.

THE EVOLUTION OF CODES.

Such, then, is the new jurisprudence forming in the Philippines through the blending of di-

verse legal systems,—the Spanish, preserving and continuing the law of old Rome, with the garnered wisdom of its mighty jurisconsults; the American, inheriting and contributing the great principles of the English common law won by the struggles of sturdy yeomen, formulated by a long line of illustrious judges, and tempered with the practical common sense of the Anglo Saxon. It is a unique process—this blending of legal systems in the Philippines, and, except possibly in the early days of Louisiana, history furnishes no parallel. And as Sir Henry Maine found in the Livingston Code,—an outgrowth of the peculiar conditions in Louisiana,—the best example of codification, some future codifier in the Philippines may find the materials which will enable him to surpass all predecessors.

FRATERNIZING OF AMERICAN AND FILIPINO LAWYERS.

The results of this process are already perceptible, not only in the laws themselves, but in the attitude of those who interpret and apply them. The American judge or lawyer who comes to the Philippines finds that he has much to receive as well as to give,—that while his colleagues among the Filipinos may not have had the advantage of an early training in the remedial part of their present law, they are more familiar than he with the substantive element, and that each can learn something from the other. This conduces to a spirit of mutual helpfulness, and to mutual concessions which make the work of administering the law far easier and more agreeable. The American and Filipino Bar associations, formerly distinct, are now one, and the united body recently tendered a banquet to Chief Justice Arellano, upon his return from a visit to the United States, at which the toastmaster was an American and the speakers both Americans and Filipinos. A distinguished member of the Manila bar, entertaining at dinner, recently, some lawyer friends of both races, remarked that nowhere else in the world could such fraternizing be found. May it indeed prove the augury of harmonious relations in all walks of life between the two races whom destiny seems to have assured a common future.



THE NEW SALARIED CLASS.

BY ELISHA JAY EDWARDS.

ONE of the masters of the law, and a profound judicial interpreter of it as applied to specific cases brought before him as a judge, thought it worth while to step down from the bench and speak as a citizen and a philosopher as well to the public of the merits and of the evils that were in the concentration of capital, corporate and individual, by which the so-called trusts were promoted and organized. Although recognizing the economy of production and of effort, and the capacity to obtain and maintain wider and better markets, which combination makes possible, this legal intellect feared that the trusts might destroy individuality. It seemed to him that there was grave danger that the change of effort, the creation of a large salaried class,—a class, too, which contained members who received very large salaries,—might benumb that spirit of independence and sense of individual responsibility and comprehension of personal opportunity which he thought were among the basic elements of a country's wise and healthful growth.

One of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States is quoted as having intimated in one or more of his popular addresses that the same fear possessed him. It was, in fact, confidentially expressed by one of those who profited by millions through the organization of the so-called Steel Trust, which is not a trust in the true meaning of that term. He feared that the weak place in the organization of this gigantic corporation would be discovered in the elimination of certain salaried offices before that time occupied by various of the managements of the subsidiary corporations which afterward came under the all-sponsoring authority of the United States Steel Corporation. It seemed to him that there might be economic weakness, and therefore, from the point of view of the public, lack of wisdom, in the creation of a great organization involving the elimination of many salaried offices before that time in the possession of those who managed the lesser corporations.

ARE MODERN SALARIES RELATIVELY LARGE?

Recently, public attention has been focused upon reports telling of great salaries paid to officers of insurance corporations, and some have ventured to say that no man could fairly earn a salary of a hundred thousand dollars a year, and

that the excess paid to him over a reasonable return for his services represented a waste which in the long run is sure to be felt by the community. But the difficulty with a judgment of that kind is that it is made by those who take a wrong point of view. Their information is insufficient, and they are dazzled by the mere figures that tell of salaries which a few years ago would have been deemed sufficient for a comfortable fortune, guaranteeing pecuniary independence.

A generation ago, the officer of any corporation who received a salary in excess of five thousand dollars a year was looked upon as a conspicuous man. He was identified to strangers because of the salary he received; yet it is probable that just after the close of our Civil War a salary of five thousand dollars, or even of ten thousand dollars, represented relatively a service equal to that now done by the recipient of a salary of fifty thousand dollars a year, or more. That is to say, the president of a bank or of a corporation forty years ago who was paid five thousand dollars a year had responsibilities, watched out for a market, controlled capital, to which the five thousand dollars a year which he was paid bore the same relation which the fifty thousand dollars or more a year paid to the higher executive officers of modern corporations bear to the services rendered to those corporations.

ONE RESULT OF CONSOLIDATION.

Just after Commodore Vanderbilt bought the control of the Hudson River Railroad, he secured the executive services of an officer for that road for a salary of four thousand dollars a year. A little later, this executive was urged to become the president of a street-railway corporation with a salary of six thousand dollars a year. He said frankly to Commodore Vanderbilt that he felt that in justice to himself and his family he ought to accept that offer, since six thousand dollars a year was a very great salary. He was, however, persuaded to remain with Commodore Vanderbilt; and after the Commodore had taught the first of the great lessons in railway development,—namely, the economic importance of the consolidation of connecting lines so that there could be single operation and control of a system stretching four hundred and fifty miles across the State rather than operation and control divided up

among six or seven corporations.—then was also learned the lesson which teaches the necessity of increased payment for executive service. Therefore, this executive who a few years before had been made glad by an offer of four thousand dollars a year as a subordinate officer of the Hudson River Railroad and was greatly rejoiced when his salary was increased to six thousand found himself receiving a thousand dollars a month, and afterward twenty thousand dollars a year.

The consolidation of the various railway systems across New York State into one effective and economically managed railway system made it possible to transport freight across New York in competition with the canal, and gave to the citizens of the State efficient, prompt transportation service at fair rates, which were constantly decreased. Moreover, this service made it possible to increase the commerce that passed in and out of New York Harbor. Properly to operate upon the mechanical and physical as well as upon the financial side, a concentrated system of this kind involved far greater ability, intenser study, and a higher degree of business statesmanship than were needed for the operation of any one of the several systems which afterward were concentrated into the New York Central. In recognition of these qualifications there came increased payment in the way of salaries. Furthermore, while there was some elimination of salaried officers in the various railway systems which were consolidated into the Central, yet after a few years the gross salaried officials of the New York Central and the gross salaries were far in excess of the number in the aggregate of officials of all of these constituent systems, and by many millions in excess of the total salaries paid.

INDIVIDUALITY CONSERVED.

Not until there had been demonstration of the economic law which is the foundation of modern industrial organization was there, however, clear understanding of what the opportunities, advantages, responsibilities, and economies of a great salaried class were to be. It is true that many of those who had some part in the organization of the United States Steel Corporation shared to some extent the apprehensions of the distinguished jurists whose opinions were quoted at the beginning of this article. Not any of them, however, fully realized what the organization of these great corporations built up through the concentration and unification of several or many corporations that had been before that time independent meant to the country, and to the economic advantage of the coun-

try, in the way of creating a new salaried class. The wiser men who undertook these unifications and corporate expansions had no fear that individuality would be destroyed and a great perfunctory, methodical, and half-hypnotized class of citizens who went doggedly and without enthusiasm through their daily task and received for that monthly salaries would be created. On the contrary, it was clearly seen that the best opportunity for individualism, the finest outlet for the inspirations of business genius, of executive capacity, would be furnished by the creation of these great salaried opportunities. The only question was whether, through the unification of several independent corporations, some men of capacity might not find themselves out in the cold, so to speak.

CORPORATIONS OWNED BY THE PUBLIC.

Experience has, however, shown that these fears were groundless. It seems not to be fully understood that these great corporations are now in the ownership of the public. The United States Steel Corporation, the Standard Oil Company, and many of the other gigantic organizations built up on the concentration of many independent corporations, are now owned, in the true meaning of the term, by the public. There are approximately eighty thousand stockholders of the United States Steel Corporation. No one individual owns a majority of that stock. This ownership is widely diversified. There is not a State or Territory in the Union in which some portion of the public who are in part owners of the United States Steel Corporation cannot be found. That is true of the Standard Oil Company, and it is strikingly true of all the railway corporations of the United States. Gradually but surely, the ownership of these corporations is passing from the hands of a few into the possession of the public.

In the organization of the means by which the vast natural wealth of the United States may be made productive it was inevitable that a few men should receive nearly all the first fine harvests. Thus it happens that John D. Rockefeller reaped the first materialization of the great wealth that the production and marketing of natural oil made possible. Thus, too, Mr. Carnegie and his associates, who were the first to bring into highly concentrated activity the mining and the manufacture of iron ore into the perfect product, and who saw the economy of the utilization of the most perfect of modern machinery, the control of mines and of some part of transportation, and the command of the ablest scientific intellects of the day, that there might be full understanding of the

chemical constituents, the physical properties, and the amenability of iron that comes fresh from the furnace to treatment that gave ultimately the most finished product,—it was inevitable that Mr. Carnegie and his associates should, at the moment when there was materialization into wealth of all that their energies represented, immediate and prospective, receive money payments that staggered the imagination. So, too, those who were early in the field of railway development, Commodore Vanderbilt, James J. Hill, and others, inevitably received in gross that quick materialization into wealth which their energies had made possible.

But the day for that has passed. Possibly a modern Bessemer may teach new and radically different scientific methods for production. If he comes, his rewards will be comparable to those of Rockefeller or Carnegie. Possibly some fortunate prospector may discover streams of gold in some now unsuspected place. But these will be accidents which in nowise will make inaccurate the general statement that the great promoters and originators of the means by which the natural wealth of the United States may by highly artificialized and thoroughly economic methods be made to yield materially their riches have had their day. A great change has been under way in the past twelve or fifteen years. The public is now taking the properties developed by the Rockefellers and the Carnegies and the others, and the ownership of these properties, though widely distributed, as well as the ownership of the railways, is to-day in the possession of the public. Herein, it may be said incidentally, is full justification for the plea of those who insist that hereafter there be greater governmental regulation of these properties, since the ownership of them is in the public, and in too great and widely scattered a public to make possible any other wise regulation and limitation than that which the government, State or national, may exercise.

SALARIES PAID BY THE STEEL TRUST.

Therefore, it may be said that the great and new salaried class, so to call it, although it is only a class made distinctive by the method in which it earns its income, is really the servant of the great public. There is very keen appreciation of this on the part of the officers and directors of these larger corporations. To illustrate how this salaried class is created, it is convenient to take the case of the United States Steel Corporation. Upon the pay-rolls of that corporation, not including those who earn what is called wages, there are to-day 166,205 names. Of these, 122,690 receive salaries of

\$800 or a little less; 43,987 receive salaries ranging between \$800 and \$2,500; 1,308 receive salaries ranging from \$2,500 to \$5,000; 156 receive salaries ranging from \$5,000 to \$10,000; 51 are paid salaries ranging from \$10,000 to \$20,000, and 13 are paid salaries of \$20,000 or more. While it has not been possible to obtain absolutely accurate figures of the pay-rolls of the Standard Oil Company, yet there is no reason to doubt that the salary list does not differ essentially from that of the United States Steel Corporation. In the employ of some of the great insurance corporations there are probably from 15,000 to 20,000 persons earning salaries of from \$800 up, the maximum salary paid by the greater insurance corporations being \$100,000.

"TRUST" SALARIES ASSURED TO THREE-QUARTERS OF A MILLION PERSONS.

A reasonable computation of the salaried officers of the various industrial combinations, of the great insurance corporations, and of the railroads of the United States would give a total of between seven hundred thousand and eight hundred thousand persons. The concentration of various small corporations into single control makes possible the assurance of permanence for those who hold these salaried places, but in addition, the assurance of constant promotion. The man who possesses an income, say, of \$10,000 a year is presumed to have a principal of something like \$200,000. At his death, that principal goes to his heirs. The officer, high or subordinate, of any of these industrial corporations, or of the railroads, who receives a salary of five thousand dollars is reasonably sure that that income will be secured to him, and if he shows energy,—and here is where individuality plays its part,—if he reveals original power, suggestiveness, capacity in emergency, then he may reasonably count upon promotion. But when his time is passed and old age or death creates a vacancy, the principal which his service at five thousand or ten thousand dollars a year represents still remains in the ownership of the people who are the owners of the corporation. Therefore, it is possible for some subordinate to count upon promotion to that vacancy, and if that subordinate himself possesses abilities that warrant promotion, he may rely upon a higher salary and a more important office whenever the vacancy occurs.

ASSURANCE OF INCOME.

Therefore, as a result of this concentration of capital and the unification of vast industries producing a like product so that there is single

control, a superb field containing opportunity and every inducement to the employment of the highest intellectual powers is now open to the young men of the United States. The salaried places remain as the veterans pass on and out. The corporations will be here as far ahead as the eye of business man can see. The income is as fairly well assured as the income of any man can be; for if there be failure of earnings so that there can be only partial payment of salaries or a reduction of the salary list, that also means a failure of the income of those whose investments are in railway or industrial security,—that is to say, of those who are called capital.

In addition, the income earned yearly by this new and permanent salaried class makes possible some saving, and the disposition in the greater corporations is to admit upon a profit-sharing basis,—that is, through the ownership of stock,—as many of the employees as are anxious to be thus admitted. So that the opportunities of this salaried class are not limited merely to the earning of their yearly stipend or to the hope of promotion to vacancies as they occur in the higher grade. The salaried employees may become, in part, the owners of the corporations which employ them. What was at first an experiment of that kind by the United States Steel Corporation has now been found to have been abundantly justified.

THE ECONOMIC TRANSITION.

In the early years of the last century, and until the middle of that century, many men in New England earned their support and that of their families through their manufacture of shoes at the cobbler's bench. Then inventive genius showed to capital a way by which machinery could make in an hour as many pairs of shoes as a score or more of these cobblers could make in a day or a week. There came a cry of warning that was echoed up and down throughout the land that the utilization of this machinery would first destroy the means of livelihood of a sober, industrious, and honorable, as well as considerable, part of the community, especially in Massachusetts. In the next place, it was asserted that the use of this machinery would stupefy, sadden, and to some extent degrade those who were employed in operating it, and that the fine individuality and sturdy manhood that

had long characterized eastern New England would be lost. Nevertheless, the economic pressure made inevitable the employment of that machinery. The result was that the individual cobbler, if he remained faithful to his trade, obtained steady wages with a better income than he had gained before; the great public, with the cheapening of the cost of shoes, was able to buy more and better shoes, and meanwhile there came accumulations of savings, so that flourishing villages and cities sprang up, and at last one who had begun as an individual cobbler became Governor of Massachusetts.

ESPRIT DE CORPS.

Like apprehensions were expressed when there were promotions of industrial corporations so that many came under one management. It is now five years since the greatest of these promotions and organizations were perfected. Sufficient time has passed to test the effect upon them,—upon the manhood, the individuality, and the powerful progress of those who are employed by them. The test has furnished most gratifying results. As a whole, those who are of this salaried class are enthusiastic, energetic, proud of their association with the corporations, possessing an instinctive sense of the real economy that is in that association, and of the great opportunities, and of the certainty that more and more no other influence than merit secures appointment or maintenance upon the salary list. For it is now already demonstrated that, unlike politics, unlike partnerships, none but the worthy survive in these corporations. Moreover, there is good understanding of the reason why one officer may receive fifty thousand dollars a year and another twenty-five thousand, and in that reason is never found anything that looks like favoritism. The young men who are just coming out of our schools and colleges may now look forward to identification as salaried officers with this great and permanent class who are servants of the people, and may be sure that service in that relation will be made more and more valuable the higher the individuality, the greater the energy, the larger the capacity.

In justice to Mr. George W. Perkins, of the firm of J. P. Morgan & Co., it should be here stated that the facts and the philosophy as set forth in this article were formulated by him and communicated to the writer.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE FEDERAL REGULATION OF LIFE INSURANCE.

SINCE the problem of life insurance has reached its present acute stage, the suggestion has been repeatedly made that the whole question is properly a matter of regulation by the federal government rather than by the different States. The specific arguments in favor of government regulation are adduced in an article by James M. Beck, formerly Assistant Attorney-General of the United States, in the August number of the *North American Review*. It will be recalled that the July number of that review contained an article by Mr. S. Herbert Wolfe which dealt with the deficiencies of insurance administration as conducted by the various State bureaus. This article was summarized in our last number.

In the historical review with which he opens his article, Mr. Beck cites the memorandum submitted by Alexander Hamilton to President Washington, in 1791, on the constitutionality of the proposed National Bank, in which he included among the implied powers of the federal government as admitting of "little if any question" the regulation of policies of insurance. Life insurance in Hamilton's day had had no appreciable growth in this country, and the enormous accumulation of capital by a few of the great insurance companies founded in the latter half of the nineteenth century could not have been foreseen at that time. As a matter of fact, the national government never legislated with reference to insurance until two years ago, when it created the Department of Commerce and Labor, to which it gave power "to gather, compile, publish, and supply useful information concerning corporations doing business within the limits of the United States as shall engage in interstate commerce or in commerce between the United States and any foreign country, including corporations engaged in insurance." In establishing this department an attempt was made in Congress to organize an insurance bureau; but this proposition was abandoned, and the power of the new department was restricted to the mere collection of statistics. There are now pending in Congress two bills for the federal regulation of insurance, —one introduced in the House by Representative Morrell, and the other in the Senate by

Senator Dryden, of New Jersey, who is himself the president of an important insurance company. In his last message to Congress, President Roosevelt declared that "the business of insurance is national and not local in its application," and urged that Congress consider whether the power of the Bureau of Corporations, in the Department of Commerce and Labor, might not constitutionally be extended to cover interstate transactions in insurance. Since the recent difficulties in the Equitable have come to light, the President has cited these difficulties as further arguments for effective supervision by the national government, if such supervision can be obtained, over all those great insurance corporations which do an interstate business.

WHY REGULATION IS NEEDED.

Mr. Beck gives these among other special reasons why insurance should be submitted to strict governmental supervision:

Its success depends upon a multiplicity of contracts in order to establish a safe average, and even when conducted on the mutual plan, as distinguished from a joint-stock company, such multiplicity (in the case of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, of New York, over six hundred thousand policy-holders) necessarily makes it impossible for the policy-holders to exercise any but an indirect control over the affairs of the company. Moreover, many of the contracts are conditioned upon the death of one of the contracting parties, and it is eminently proper that the state should supervise the faithful execution of the contract by the surviving party. The business requires such special knowledge that few, if any, have the training necessary to conduct it wisely. The expectancy of life must be determined scientifically. The earning power of money must be determined in advance by able economists. The investment of enormous accumulations of assets requires financial skill and experience of the highest order. The intricate mathematical calculations require exceptional actuarial skill. An infinitesimal fractional variance in such calculations may mark the difference between a sound proposition and an illusory scheme. The collapse of so many fraternal assessment societies shows the danger to the public of unregulated insurance; and as the public can have neither the knowledge nor the aptitude to solve for itself these intricate questions, reasonable governmental supervision is not only desirable, but imperative. Almost every civilized country has appreciated this necessity, and in almost all the insurance department is a bureau of the Department of Commerce.

ABUSES OF THE STATE BUREAUS.

Mr. Beck reinforces the points made by Mr. Wolfe in the July number of the *North American* on the futility of insurance regulation as at present conducted by separate State authorities. He shows that under the present system insurance companies can obtain their right to do business in a State other than that of their origin only under such terms as that State may direct, although these terms may be both capricious and arbitrary. Furthermore, the right of the companies when once admitted to do business and to fulfill solemn and continuing obligations exists only by sufferance, and is liable to immediate destruction by the mere whim of a State official. It was the evil of conflicting commercial regulations which led to the adoption of the Constitution by the Colonies, and yet this evil, as Mr. Beck shows, still exists in the matter of insurance. Individual States have vied with one another in passing restrictive, discriminative, and retaliatory legislation against insurance corporations of other States.

Among the evils of State legislation complained of by the insurance companies is the attempt by many States to read into insurance contracts statutory provisions which, since they apply only to contracts in a particular State, are destructive of uniformity. Even, too, the visitatorial power of State departments has been the subject of the gravest abuses. The burden to insurance companies of these examinations by insurance departments of over fifty States and Territories is excessive. On this point, Mr. Beck says :

The burden of expense has, in many instances, exceeded all legitimate bounds. In the year 1902, twenty-eight States received from insurance companies, exclusive of property taxes, over \$5,000,000 in excess of the cost of such supervision. One single State is said to have collected more than the federal government requires to examine all the national banks in the country; and this unnecessary burden, aggregating each year \$10,000,000, ultimately falls upon the policy-holder, and is imposed, not upon a money-making, but a money-saving, enterprise, whose lofty purposes and beneficent results ought to relieve it of any form of license taxation. A tax upon the moral obligation of insurance is little better than a tax on morality. It burdens the policy-holder in the recognition of a moral duty to safeguard those dependent upon him from the injurious consequences of his death. It is certainly a tax on thrift. The arbitrary expenses of inquisitorial examinations, which too often rest, as to amount, in the discretion of an insurance superintendent, is a form of Turkish satrapy which is utterly at variance with the spirit of our institutions. For nearly half a century the insurance companies have vainly protested against the intolerable burden of such vassalage to many masters, and they naturally welcome the declaration of

President Roosevelt that the time has come for the federal government to assume the duty of supervising this important and beneficent instrumentality of modern life.

A SUPREME COURT DECISION.

The advantage of having one central supervising authority rather than many is generally conceded. The difficulty of securing federal in place of State supervision is a legal rather than an economic one. It is asserted that a decision of the United States Supreme Court made as long ago as 1869, in the case of *Paul vs. Virginia*, has hitherto stood in the way of any legislation for federal regulation. In that case the validity of a State statute requiring foreign insurance companies to obtain a license as a prerequisite to do business was in question, and its constitutionality was challenged on the ground that such an act was inconsistent with the federal power to regulate commerce. The court held that the issuing of a policy of insurance was not a transaction of commerce, that contracts of insurance are not articles of commerce in any proper meaning of the word, that such contracts are not interstate transactions, though the parties may be domiciled in different States. Commenting on this decision, Mr. Beck submits that the Supreme Court placed an exaggerated estimate upon the mere delivery of a policy as the essential act of an insurance transaction, holding that the policy itself merely evidences the transaction of insurance, which, conceivably, could take place without either contract or delivery.

For the purpose of federal power, insurance should be regarded, not as the mere delivery of a policy, but as the reciprocal transfer of money and credits from insurer to insured. Each year, more than \$500,000,000 passes from State to State in fulfilling the contract of insurance, a form of commercial intercourse which surpasses in magnitude all of the interstate and foreign commerce of any kind that existed in the United States at the time of the adoption of the Constitution. A contract to exchange a ton of coal for money may not be commerce, but the actual exchange is; and, by parity of reasoning, a contract to pay a sum of money for indemnity, in consideration of an ultimate return, whether certain or contingent, of another sum of money, may not be commerce, but the actual exchange of reciprocal pecuniary benefits would seem to be as much commerce as the exchange of any other commodity. The Supreme Court, however, had apparently thought otherwise.

If, however, Congress is without present power under the Constitution, the question presents itself whether the evil to be remedied is not of sufficient magnitude to justify a constitutional amendment. In Mr. Beck's view, such an amendment is demanded, inasmuch as conditions have arisen of which the framers of the Constitution

had no conception whatever. He believes that an amendment should be passed, if necessary, to regulate insurance, the importance of which can be measured by the fact that as an institution it collects more money each year than the

Government itself, disburses more than the receipts of all the custom-houses, and administers an accumulated treasure greater than all the money now in circulation in this country or the entire capital of our national banks.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S PLEA FOR THE PARCELS-POST.

GERMANY and England are the two countries where the parcels-post has reached the highest degree of efficiency. In the August number of the *Arena*, the Hon. J. Henniker Heaton, M.P., a leading British postal authority, sets forth some of the distinctive features of both the German and the English systems. Incidentally he refers to a conversation which he once held with ex-Postmaster-General John Wanamaker, in which that gentleman, after hearing Mr. Henniker Heaton dilate on the incalculable convenience and stimulus to trade of a parcels-post, said, in effect :

All that is true. But there are four insuperable obstacles to the establishment of a parcels-post in our country,—the first is the — Express Company, the second is the — Express Company, the third is the — Express Company, the fourth is the — Express Company.

(Mr. Henniker Heaton explains that he omits the specific names of the express companies mentioned,—first, because the publication of their names might be resented ; and, secondly, because he has forgotten them. It is fair to assume, however, that Mr. Wanamaker meant to include all the express companies doing an interstate business.)

This writer makes the assertion that in England the post-office gives the utmost attainable speed and regularity of service in the carriage of parcels at a lower rate than that offered by private companies. He refers to an experiment made some time since in which, on the same day, one hundred parcels were posted and one hundred similar parcels were directed by the carrying companies to the same recipients. Of the parcels posted, 71 per cent. were received before their duplicates intrusted to the carriers.

THE ENGLISH PARCELS SERVICE.

The English parcels-post is only twenty-two years old. It was established by the late Henry Fawcett, the blind postmaster-general. Successful as the British organization has proved, this British writer finds two serious defects in the system :

It is hampered by the obligation to pay an excessive amount (55 per cent. of the postage on the railway-borne

parcels) for railway transit. And it does not include the "cash-on-delivery" system, under which the post-office collects from the addressee the price of goods on delivery and transmits it to the sender. In these two respects the Continental parcels-posts are superior to ours.



HON. J. HENNIKER HEATON, M.P.

In England, the sender must take his parcel to a post-office, where the clerk has to be satisfied that it is not more than eleven pounds in weight, that the proper postage stamps are affixed, and that its combined length and girth do not exceed six feet. That the British postman is, however, less robust than the German, who accepts any parcel up to one hundred and ten pounds, I refuse to believe. The rates of postage are :

For a parcel not exceeding one pound, 6 cents ; two pounds, 8 cents ; three pounds, 10 cents ; four pounds, 12 cents ; five pounds, 14 cents ; six pounds, 16 cents ; seven pounds, 18 cents ; eight pounds, 20 cents ; nine pounds, 22 cents ; eleven pounds, 24 cents.

With the exception of eggs, compensation not exceeding ten dollars is paid for any parcel lost or destroyed. If the parcel be registered (costing 4 cents) and a small fee (up to 28 cents) be

added, compensation not exceeding \$600 will be allowed.

THE GERMAN SYSTEM.

The parcels-post of Germany has certain features which Mr. Henniker Heaton seems to think especially applicable to the United States. He says :

The severest American,—or for that matter English,—critic of German ways will find much worthy of imitation in the German parcels-post-office. It may be regarded as the highest type of the arrangements existing in the greater part of the European continent, and it is therefore worth while to describe it in some detail. Broadly, the difference between the English and German posts is, that the former only does postal work for the individual which he cannot do for himself, while the latter undertakes everything that it can do better than the individual can. The former resorts to the powers of the state with fear and reluctance, the latter works them for "all they are worth."

ADVANTAGES OF THE "ZONE" TARIFF.

The German parcels-post has many merits. In the first place, it adapts the "zone" system to the conveyance of goods. It is manifestly unfair that it should cost as much to send a parcel fifty as to send it one thousand miles. A uniform charge is fair in the case of letters, which are of inappreciable weight and occupy little space. But parcels are comparatively heavy and bulky, and the post is largely employed by advertising traders. It is but just that a manufacturer sending his goods one thousand miles to compete with local dealers should defray at least part of the expense of transit incurred by the post-office.

As the railway mileage of the United States exceeds that of all Europe, it is plain that an American parcels-post should be based on the "zone" system. In this

way the danger which, I understand, is apprehended to small local industries would be done away with. The German view is that the local trader does not suffer. On the other hand, consumers and producers, without reference to their geographical position, are placed on the same footing. Everybody can supply his wants easily and cheaply from manufacturing headquarters, however distant.

It is even possible, by means of the post, to transfer certain industries to localities where lower wages and duties are paid and to open up new and remunerative markets.

SPEED, CHEAPNESS, CONVENIENCE.

Another distinguishing feature of the German parcels-post is its rapidity of operation. Nearly every train carries mails and parcels, flung in at station after station, and parcels are frequently delivered as soon as letters. It is needless to point out how vitally important this is to innumerable little industries, such as those of the struggling farmer and market gardener. Flowers are received with the dew still glittering on their petals; fish that Dr. Jonathan Hutchinson would not disdain.

The German post has no occasion to enforce heavy rates. It can impose its own terms on the railway companies. By law these have to carry free all parcels under eleven pounds in weight. Thus, the mistake which has crippled the activity of the British parcels-post has been avoided.

But the value of the parcels-post to the people is, in my opinion, doubled by the ancillary system of "cash on delivery." Schmidt, resident in Trieste, sends a post-card to Zeiss, of Jena, ordering a microscope, price \$250. Zeiss never heard of Schmidt, but he sends the instrument by the first train. He runs no risk. The postman at Trieste, before handing it over to Schmidt, presents the invoice, receives the \$250, and by the next post the money is remitted by the post-office to Zeiss.

AN ENGLISH PROGRAMME OF SOCIAL REFORM.

SIR OLIVER LODGE'S presidential address before the Social and Political Education League is published in the *Contemporary Review* for July. It declares, among other things, that

Never were all classes so permeated by the spirit,—not the phrases, but the essential spirit,—of brotherhood and coöperation; never was there such universal recognition of the beauty of the spirit of real and vital Christianity, far above the differences and dogmas of the sects.

CONQUER YOUR ENVIRONMENT.

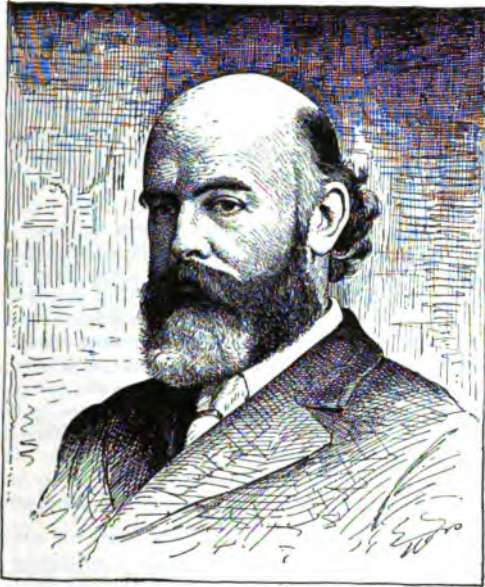
Sir Oliver's starting-point is that man must be master of his fate.

What we have to teach, throughout, is that in no sort of way is man to be the slave of his environment. No longer is he to adapt himself to surrounding circumstances, changing color with them as do the insects and plants. It is not himself which is to suit the environment, but he is to make the environment suit

him. "This is the one irrefragable doctrine that must be hammered into the ears of this generation till they realize its truth and accept it. To maintain that the grimy and soul-destroying wretchedness of human outcasts, that death by starvation and the transmission of disease by ignorance and dirt and sin—to maintain that these are permanently decreed divine ordinances, otherwise than as the necessary outcome of neglect and mismanagement, is essential blasphemy.

THE LAW OF INHERITANCE.

There is another matter that may have to be considered some day,—viz., the law of inheritance, whereby a person can acquire a competence and live luxuriously without necessarily doing a stroke of work of any kind all his life. It is not an easy problem how to regulate inheritance,—indeed, it is a supremely difficult one; but the idea that life is intolerable without some inherited background or cushion of property, the idea that people may live without working and yet without disgrace, is responsible for much incompetence and some misery. All should have leisure, but then, also, all



SIR OLIVER LODGE.

should work. No one should be idle, completely idle, save on pain of starvation or the disciplinary drill of prison.

THE OWNERSHIP OF LAND.

I cannot help thinking that the custom of allowing absolute ownership of land to individuals, instead of to communities, is responsible for a good deal. To me it is somewhat surprising that it is quite legal and ordi-

nary for a person to be able to sell a portion of England for his own behoof. If ownership of land is permitted by law, the owner should be a trustee, not a parasite.

POOR-LAW REFORM.

The great social organizations called workhouses and jails might be manufactories of human beings,—hospitals, as it were, for the ill and warpings, not of body, but of mind and character, receptacles for refuse and converters of it into manhood and womanhood. Workhouses should not only be institutions for maintaining the impotent and aged in fair comfort, as at present, but also for dealing efficiently with the able-bodied of weak character, and so try to convert it into an instrument of instruction and discipline and organization for those mental and moral invalids who are unable or unwilling to organize their own lives. Why should society set upon weak people and try to crush them into hopelessness and rebellion? By placing the people on land, on unreclaimed or unfertile land calling out for labor, under skilled supervision, they might, I believe, be made self-supporting before long.

THE REFORMATION OF CRIMINALS.

Whatever may be the case with paupers, concerning the criminal class I am perfectly certain we are doing wrong. We are seeking to punish, not to educate, stimulate, reform. Punishment is not our function. We think it is, but it is not. Prisoners should be put under industrial conditions, and should be organized into useful members of society. Nor do I believe that the trade-union leaders would object to this, if it were properly presented to them, any more than they object to evening technical rate-aided schools, municipal educational institutions, and other machinery for swelling the ranks of the competent and the trained and the respected artisan.

HOW FAST ARE THE SOUTHERN NEGROES INCREASING?

WILL the negro race in the United States increase as rapidly in the twentieth century as it did in the nineteenth? How many negroes are likely to be here at the end of the century? These questions are discussed in an article contributed to the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard) by Prof. Walter F. Willcox, of Cornell University. It is interesting to note that very few attempts have been made in the past to give definite answers to either of these questions. About twenty years ago, Prof. E. W. Gilliam published an estimate that the negro population of the United States would be about two hundred million in 1980. He estimated the probable number of whites in the country in 1985 at 336,000,000. Thus, the negro race would amount to about three-eighths of the total population of the country. This estimate has usually been regarded as extravagant, and the arguments on which it was based have been discredited. Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, in a book

published last year, wrote: "Unless conditions change, it is possible that before the end of the century there may be between sixty and eighty millions of negroes in this country."

Examining critically Mr. Page's estimate, Professor Willcox concludes that it must have been based on the rate of increase as shown by the census figures between 1860 and 1880. If that rate should persist throughout the century, there would be 62,000,000 negroes in the United States in the year 2,000. If, however, the rate of increase between 1880 and 1900 should persist, there would be only 38,000,000. Now, which of these rates is the more likely to be maintained? Professor Willcox shows that since 1820, measured by twenty-year periods, the rate of increase of the negroes has steadily diminished. If, then, we are to judge the future by the past, that decline will continue. But he goes further:

If it were admissible to assume that any rate of increase would persist through the twentieth century, it

would be best to accept that for the twenty years between 1880 and 1900, because it is based on the longer period and involves no correction of census figures. But the history of the nineteenth century and what is known about the increase of population concur in testifying that the rate of increase is likely to dwindle, and that 38,000,000 negroes in continental United States in 2000 A.D. is much too large an estimate. Emancipation wrought so radical a change in the economical condition of the negro race that its increase before 1860 affords almost no clue to its probable increase in the future. The period since 1860 is too short, and the returns are affected by too large errors, admitted or suspected, to furnish much basis for a forecast. Yet, if we take as our base the rate of increase 1880 to 1900,—namely, 34.2 per cent.,—and assume that in each score of years during the twentieth century the increase of the negroes will be less by 4 per cent. than in the preceding score of years,—and this slackening is only about one-third of that which has taken place since 1860 among the negroes, and one-half of that among the whites,—the percentages of increase during the century just beginning will be as follows:

1900-1920.....	30.2
1920-1940.....	26.2
1940-1960.....	22.2
1960-1980.....	18.2
1980-2000.....	14.2

The negro population at the end of the present century will then be less than 24,000,000. On the whole, I am disposed to believe that this assumption is as favorable to the negro race as any of the facts warrant, that 25,000,000 is the maximum limit of the probable negro population of this country a century hence, and that it may fall several millions short of that figure.

Just here another factor comes into the problem,—the growth of the white race in the South,

where nine-tenths of the negroes live. Even if the two races, side by side, should continue to increase during the century at the rate maintained between 1880 and 1900, there would be in the year 2000 about 33,000,000 negroes to 155,000,000 whites. The negro population would have fallen from 32.4 per cent. of the whole in 1900 to 17.6 per cent. in 2000.

Doubtless, each of the above figures is much too large; but if the checking of growth which will appear in each race shall affect them in such a way as to keep the ratios of their increase what it has been for twenty years,—and I think this also is an assumption as favorable to the negro as the facts will warrant,—then the ratio of the above figures will be correct, and we may expect that the negroes, who in 1860 were 35.0 per cent. of the population of the Southern States, who in 1840, when they were relatively most numerous, were 38.0 per cent., and who in 1900 had receded to 32.4 per cent., will continue to recede, and in 2000 A.D. are likely to be not more than 17.6 per cent. of the Southern population.

Professor Willcox then enters into an elaborate study of social and industrial conditions at the South, which for lack of space we are compelled to pass over without summarizing, and concludes that "relatively to the whites in the South, if not absolutely as measured by any conceivable standard, the negro as a race is losing ground, is being confined more and more to the inferior and less remunerative occupations, and is not sharing proportionately to his numbers in the prosperity of the country as a whole or of the section in which he mainly lives."

ARE THERE SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR RACES?

IN a brief but pointed article in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome), Oliviero Zuccarini combats the oft-made assertion that the races of mankind are inherently different and immutable, and, therefore, divided into superior and inferior. He cites numerous books and articles, such as N. Colaianni's "Inferior and Superior Races; or, Latins and Anglo-Saxons," and Jean Finot's "Race Prejudice," the former in Italian, Spanish, and French, and the latter in French. Signor Zuccarini points out that not only are races continually mingling and changing, but that there is really no pure race. The Hebrews, who come nearest, perhaps, to this description, are the product of a mixture of the Semites of Judea with the Aryan Greeks, Romans, and Lydians. The United States is producing a new race, and it is stated that this is taking on, more or less, the lineaments of the redskins who were the first to submit to our climatic conditions. Italy's race strains come both from Asia and Africa,

Spain is peopled with Mediterranean and Celtic, and France has the most varied mixture of Walloons, Flemish, and Bretons with the southern elements. The "Latin race" is therefore a chimera. Superior characteristics disappear in great centers of population, and even dolichocephalics become brachycephalics. The great progress made by American negroes in forty years is cited as proof of what can be done to raise races to higher levels. Many articles along this line have appeared in French reviews. One of the most interesting to Americans is by D. P. Tobias, a negro, which appeared in *La Revue* (Paris) last year, and is quoted here thus:

Physically and morally, the white race in America is declining. I have often observed the signs of decadence in the whites. The most striking is the loss of hair and teeth. There are proportionally more suicides and insanity among American whites than among negroes. Intellectually, there has been a great decline in the whites of the United States in the course of the last

fifty years. This is especially to be noted in the literary works produced each year. Compared to the white race, we have better teeth, and few young negro people are bald. Our future thus seems more brilliant than that of the white race. We have livelier intelligence than the whites, but our intellectual productions do not become known because of the intense opposition existing against us.

After this it is only necessary to quote Houston Stewart Chamberlain to show the "last step of aberration of the theory of races," as Signor Zuccarini calls it. Mr. Chamberlain considers it certain that everything great has been done by the Germanic race. Christ; Cæsar, whose bust "shows an all-German physiognomy;" Alexander the Great, Dante, Bonaparte,—all belong, he holds, to the "most noble Germanic race."

The Papacy, the Renaissance, the Empire, are the results of Germanic spirit and enterprise. Finally, "the Germanic race is called to rule all the earth, to enjoy the treasures and the working forces of nature, and to compel the passive races to serve as instruments to its own civil evolution." All of which Signor Zuccarini takes small stock in. He says: "The races that are artificially divided evidently show a tendency to unite, and the idea of their irreducibility is disappearing into the arbitrary and the subjective, showing itself absolutely illusory. Those who sustain it as true and just cannot but be enemies of peace and humanity, since they help to keep up the antagonism between peoples and nations."

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF PSYCHOLOGY.

THE fifth International Congress of Psychology was recently held in Rome, and papers which were presented there by leading psychologists in this country and in Europe appear in the *Revue Scientifique* (Paris), which announces the next meeting to be held at Geneva, in August or September, 1909.

Dr. Paul Flechsig presented a paper on "Cerebral Physiology and Theory of the Will," in which he reviewed the history of the earliest studies of the brain considered as an organ of thought and discussed the question of voluntary action, the localization of voluntary impulse, the discovery of motor cells and their control, and the investigations upon the nature of stimuli that will react upon them, and gave especial attention to his own theory concerning association centers in the brain.

When a stimulus, as electricity, is applied to any part of the brain, it usually will be followed by a definite set of reactions in the organ that is controlled by that center, but these so-called association centers lie in parts of the brain that do not respond to stimuli, showing that they are not sensory-motor areas. What their true function is, remains a question to be answered by the pathologists.

Any injury to the convolution of Broca, which is on the left side of the brain, will affect the use of language in some degree, so that the patient may become unable to talk at all, or may be able to use words of only one syllable, or perhaps to speak only certain syllables, and still be able to write understandingly. Injury in the area of the brain containing the centers of visual association renders the patient unable to read, although his sight is perfectly good, but the

printed words convey no idea to his mind. Injury to the auditory centers will cause deafness, the same as injury to the ear, and if the lobe of the brain serving as the seat of the tactile sense is injured, the person may either completely lose his ability to write, or he may be able to write single words or letters but not be able to combine them to express his ideas, although his powers of articulate speech remain unimpaired.

But the whole frontal region of the brain corresponds to the highest intellectual faculties, to the consciousness of one's own personality and ideas, while the prefrontal region of the brain is associated with voluntary action, which would naturally be expected to depend on the higher centers.

This general conception of the physiology of the brain is borne out, not only by nervous and mental pathology, but also by results furnished by the study of the development of the individual.

During the development of the cortex of the human brain, cells that control motion appear first, and part of them develop conducting tracts, while the area controlling the movements of the extremities serves as a nucleus around which other centers develop, those for the seat of sensation first, and later, centers for association of impressions and impulses.

In the animal series, a parallel course of development of the race is shown when lower animal forms are compared with higher ones, for phylogenetically the differentiation of the nervous system is correlated with the psychic progress of animals, beginning with the most elementary instincts, the first evidences of sentiment and memory, and extending to manifestations of in-

telligence and conscious will in the anthropoid apes and in man.

Another paper, by Mlle. Goldsmith, presented the results of her experiments upon certain fishes, which showed that these fishes did not recognize their own eggs, but did recognize their nests, in a way, as places which they were accustomed to being in and had worked to make. The guarding of the nests by the males is to be attributed more to an instinctive desire to defend that place than to an idea of protecting the eggs.

Knowledge of the psychology of the lower animal forms is necessary for purposes of com-

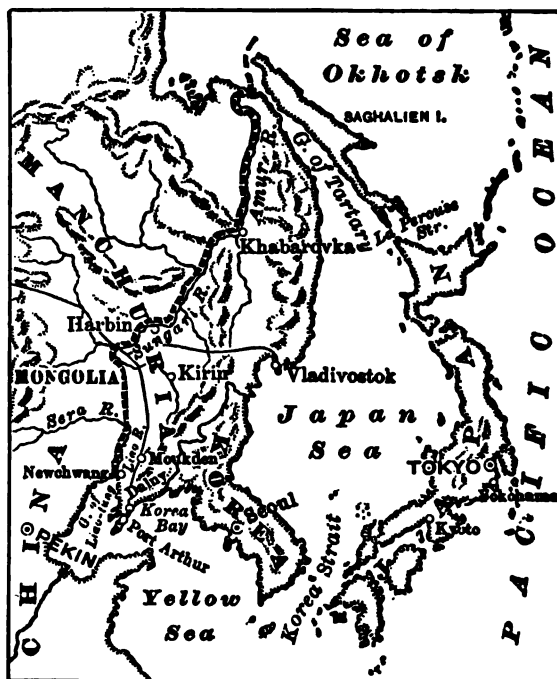
parison in understanding the psychology of man.

A paper presented by Drs. Hachet and Souplet stated that the lower animals are capable of associating their impressions directly, and so deriving complex impressions, which, once formed, they can never dissociate again into the original simple impressions. With the vertebrates, psychology consists in dissociating the elements of these old complexes and combining them in new ways. We recognize this as the power of adaptation and take it as a criterion of intelligence. Training increases the animal's powers of adaptation.

THE SINISTER SIDE OF JAPAN'S PURPOSE.

IN the midst of the chorus of tribute and admiration for Japan's ability in conducting her present war with Russia and her disinterestedness there are a few—a very few—notes of dissent. In *Scribner's* for August, Mr. Thomas F. Millard, who has been writing a number of thoughtful, analytical articles on the war in its larger aspects, and who has been many months in Japan and at the front, has an analysis of the national aims of both Russia and Japan, under the title "The Fruits of Japan's Victory." It is exceedingly difficult, he believes, to estimate the Japanese ambitions and tendencies, because of what he terms the popular misconceptions among Western peoples, based on misinformation systematically and intentionally disseminated, he contends, by a well-organized Japanese publicity propaganda, at the head of which stands the London news agencies. Mr. Millard quotes a distinguished and well-informed Oriental as saying that the greatest force in the readjustment which must follow the war will be public opinion in America and England. To gain this opinion, British antipathy to Russia and sympathy with her ally, Japan, has, Mr. Millard claims, colored all the news which has gone out to the world through British sources. The Anglo-Japanese alliance, he declares, further, was in itself the determining cause with Japan of her attack upon Port Arthur.

The foreign press published in China and Japan has, until very recently, been almost exclusively in British hands, which was also a great advantage to the favorable presentation of the British point of view. As a rule, editors and reporters on these papers are employed as correspondents for the English and American press, and their correspondence naturally has reflected the interests in which their respective papers were published. Mind, I do not wish to convey the impression that any great preponderance of news forwarded from



THE NEWER JAPAN.

(Broken lines show the suggested boundaries of the "greater" Japanese Empire of the future.)

these sources was false, or even improperly colored; but I do think that the general result was, in matters that could be given a political bearing, calculated to represent England and Japan, so far as far-Eastern events were concerned, in a generally favorable light, and Russia in a generally unfavorable light.

Moreover, Japan has for the past ten years,—ever since, in fact, her diplomatic defeat at the hands of Russia, Germany, and France,—main-

tained a press propaganda of vast extent and keen, subtle power.

A Japanese press bureau was established in London, with branches in Europe and indirect connections in America, for the purpose of keeping the Japanese point of view conspicuously to the fore. This bureau supplies special articles for publication to various news-distributing concerns which operate in England, Europe, and America. It also supplies a special telegraph news service free to all newspapers published in the Orient that will print it, and most of them do. A number of newspapers and publications are directly, though surreptitiously, subsidized, especially papers printed in the far East. Even the Chinese native press is not neglected, but is said to print news telegrams and special articles supplied by the Japanese.

THE "REAL CAUSES" OF THE WAR.

Mr. Millard believes that a great many of our notions of Japan's purposes are false, and he sets about correcting them. As to the cause of the war, he maintains that, as a matter of fact, "neither belligerent has any rights involved; both have *interests*, but no *rights*." The actual cause of the war, as he sees it, he puts in these words:

Stripped of diplomatic verbiage and the pretenses of special advocacy, the positions of the opposing powers amounted to about this: Russia, desiring to extend her influence in the Orient and secure an open port on the Pacific, and finding in her path territories belonging to nations too feeble to protect them, under various pretexts had seized Manchuria and was making tentative encroachments upon Korea, in both cases in disregard of the wishes of the political sovereigns of the countries and the treaty rights therein of other nations. Japan, newly awakened to a great ambition to extend her prestige and territory, and seeing in the success of Russia's policy the final closing of her only avenue to expansion, coveting for herself the disputed territories, and despairing of being able to check by diplomatic means the Russian advance, resolved upon war rather than abandon her own projects.

This writer has no toleration for the idea that popular opinion in Japan is any freer or more nearly unanimous in support of the war than it is in Russia. The masses of the Japanese people, he declares, have no better knowledge of public and foreign affairs than the masses of the people in Russia. Japan is ruled by an oligarchy, "which includes some very brilliant and a large number of able men."

The Japanese oligarchy rules Japan just as the Russian oligarchy rules Russia, by seeking the approval of the people only when it is compelled to, and no oftener. The people have really almost no voice in the government, and that there are fewer manifestations of popular discontent than in Russia is due to the fact that the people are more indifferent to a direct influence in public affairs and that they are better governed. But in a great war, with its consequent human and other sacrifices, it was prudent to secure popular approval, which

the government set to work to gain. One of the strongest evidences that Japanese statesmen have long been preparing for this war is the manner by which public opinion has been shaped to meet the emergency, while Russia's unpreparedness and lack of political unanimity show that however her far-Eastern policy may have led toward it, she failed to realize that it was at hand.

THE GREATER, NEWER JAPAN.

Assuming as a fact that needs no proof that the Japanese demands and ambition have grown as a consequence of the empire's success in the war, Mr. Millard proceeds to recount some of the subtle, "insidious work of the propaganda" in preparing the Japanese people, as well as the rest of the world, for the imperial ambition. The greater, newer Japan, with more territory on the mainland than in the islands themselves, looms up before him as the clearly defined aim of a few ambitious Japanese statesmen. He says, speaking of public opinion at the Japanese capital:

I have noticed colored cartoons in the shops, couched in the same spirit of vainglorious pride that characterizes the war prints, outlining the newer Japan which will be the result of the war. Delineated in map form, these cartoons make a very pretty geographical composition, calculated to stimulate to the utmost the rising tide of Japanese imperialism. They embrace that part of Siberia east of the Amur, including the island of Saghalien; the eastern half of Manchuria, or the Liao-tung proper somewhat extended; and the whole of Korea. This converts, as a glance at the map will show, the Sea of Japan into another inland sea, politically speaking. It is truly a very pretty ambition that is thus sinking into the mind and heart of the average Japanese. There is not the slightest reasonable doubt that it is being quietly stimulated by the ruling oligarchy, which is at present entirely under the control of the military party, and if occasion arise it may be pointed to as a reason why the government cannot comply with its first announced intentions. The war party is so completely in the saddle that it scarcely deigns to listen to the suggestions, much less be influenced by the civil branches, of the administration. Conservatism is being rapidly pushed into the background. The war department rules the country, and for the moment sways the destiny and impulses of the nation. Soon after the battle of Mukden, Baron Kodama, chief of the general staff and the real brains of the army, returned to Tokio to consult with the government in regard to the continuation of the war. All military plans stopped when Mukden was taken. Beyond there begins a new policy, born of the confidence of success.

In the current issue of *Scribner's*, Mr. Millard has another article on "The Financial Prospects of Japan," in which he considers the sources of national wealth and discusses the possibilities of their securing additional foreign loans. Mr. Millard does not believe that the natural resources of the country are sufficient to warrant foreign countries in making loans in the future.

THE BOYCOTT OF THE SCHOOLS IN RUSSIAN POLAND.

A "LEADING ARTICLE" in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for June presented the fight of the Poles in Russian Poland for their language in the administration of the communes. Simultaneously, a campaign has been carried on for the Polish language in the schools, or, rather, for the nationalization of the schools. Upon the refusal of the school authorities to grant the demand of the pupils that instruction in the schools be conducted in the Polish language, the pupils initiated a strike of the schools in Warsaw and in other cities. The movement was later taken in hand by a patriotic organization, the Alliance for the Nationalization of the Schools. This month we quote from an article in the Cracow *Przeglad Wszepolski* (the Pan-Polish Review), by Roman Dmowski, which shows why the Russian school in Poland is boycotted. He who says that "a bad school is better than no school at all," says so, observes Dmowski, because in his conviction that evil does not exceed certain limits; if he should be shown, however, that those limits have been exceeded by the Russian school in Poland, he would say, with equally strong conviction, that "it is better with no school at all than with such a school."

WHY THE RUSSIAN SCHOOL IS BAD.

Is the school in Russian Poland bad for the Poles solely because the language of instruction is the Russian language; because the teaching of Russian history, language, and literature occupies the first place, while the Polish language is slighted,—even conversation in the school in that language being proscribed? Or has the school other bad sides even more important than the language of instruction? These questions Dmowski, who has given much thought and study to the subject of the Russian school, and who has written more than one article and book on that subject, answers at length in the article from which we quote. The introduction of instruction in the Russian language; the almost entire removal of the Polish language from the school; the proscription of the Polish language in the conversation of the school children; the replacing of Polish teachers by Muscovite teachers,—have not transformed the young Polish generations into Muscovites.

The pupils of the Russian schools speak Polish just as do their fathers, who attended Polish schools; they satisfy their intellectual wants with the aid of Polish books and Polish periodicals; and frequently, in later life, they even forget the Russian language; while, as for the feeling for union with the Russian nation and

Russian state, the newest political currents in Poland must surely awaken little satisfaction, in that respect, in the Russian pedagogues.

The language of a nation, even when there is no sensible defense of it, is not changed for another in one or two generations. For that there is needed the constant, equable influence of whole centuries. Nevertheless, the school may implant political tendencies. For those tendencies to take root, however, depends on whether they have found a suitable soil in the souls of the youths and in the soul of the community to which those youths belong.

In these fields, therefore, only such naïve barbarians as are the Russian educators of our youths could count on a rapid success. But there is another field,—there is a side of the soul much more impressionable, much more easily pliable to external influences that operate for a longer time on an individual, on a generation,—especially in the school age, in the age between the tenth and the twentieth year, in which the child is being transformed into a man. That field is the moral system of the community, which is transmitted from generation to generation, and which determines, not only the type of its collective life, but even the possibility of healthy life,—for the life of a given community can develop normally only according to the type peculiar to it. In that field the Russian educator has accomplished an unheard-of devastation.

A community exists by what its past has bequeathed to it. That legacy is not only the fields cleared for cultivation, the villages and cities that have been built, the monumental edifices and the beaten roads; not only the rows of books which are constantly accumulating upon the shelves of its libraries, the works of art in its galleries; not only the supply of knowledge and skill in the field of the sciences, arts, techniques, and culture of daily life; but also, and above all, the moral instincts, sentiments, and conceptions, answering to the family, social, and political constitution, produced by history. Education is the medium of transferring this moral heritage, which is indispensable to the social existence of the community.

MORAL LOSS BY RUSSIFICATION.

The Russian Government has rendered the undertaking of this task entirely impossible for the school in Poland; it has, on the contrary, made that school an instrument of destruction in that field. The Russian teacher belongs to a nation to which the Polish social institutions, the Polish customs, beliefs, views, instincts,—the entire Polish type of life, as a Western type,—are alien and, in the main, hateful.

The Russian, if he be a man of ideals, desiring a better to-morrow for his country, instinctively under-



HENRIK SIENKIEWICZ, THE POLISH NOVELIST, WHO HAS BEEN ARRESTED FOR PROTESTING AGAINST THE RUSSIFICATION OF POLISH SCHOOLS, AT HIS HOME NEAR WARSAW.

(This estate was presented to Mr. Sienkiewicz by the Polish people. The figure to the left is Jeremiah Curtin, translator of the novelist's work into English.)

stands that to-morrow is the abolition of the present state of things, the destruction of everything that exists, and the arranging of everything anew on the cleared, leveled ground. And how does he feel in relation to a foreign country? Whether he act in such a country as a common hireling, as the tool of the government, serving to render lasting the Russian dominion in that country, or as a Russian idealist, Slavophile, and "nationalist," or as a liberal "humanitarian," desiring a better to-morrow for all peoples alike,—the type of our life is always equally alien and hateful to him; his instincts will always impel him to the destruction of the foundations of that life, whether it be for the realization of the objects of the Russian Government and state or for the Russian national interests, or for our own good, in his understanding. Regardless of what general aim lights his way, every one of these Russians, having an influence on our youths, will, consciously, or, at least, instinctively, extirpate in them Polish "aristocratism," as he calls it; will combat Catholicism; will excite in the youths a loathing of the past of Poland as "the past of a land of nobles;" will deride all dignity, all moral authority, which those youths recognize in their family and their community, because the Russian has become accustomed to see in authority only violence and oppression, and to obey only such authority, or to hate it as such. He will insult, in the Polish youths, the civilized sense of human dignity, regarding that sense as *dierzost* (temerity),

if he be a government tool, or as *shlahetskuyu gordost* (aristocratic pride), if he be a radical; he will treat pedagogy as a weeding of the soil, a tearing out of it of every whit that grows on it, in order to prepare it for a new sowing. It has frequently been complained that those who come to Poland from Russia as teachers are the castaways of the Russian community. In a certain measure, that is true; but when it is a question of the above-indicated moral influence on the youths, it does not constitute any fundamental difference.

Here begins the influence of Russian rule in Poland, which is the most terrible, the most deep-reaching, the magnitude of which is not duly understood even by the Russian agents themselves.

Instead of protectors and friends, instead of people conscious of the duty of continuing the educational work of its parents, the Polish child meets, on entering the school, arrivals from a foreign country, who do not know, do not understand, whereby this community lives and what it needs for life; men who have an aversion to our type of life, to our ethics, to our conceptions of probity and honor; men who, from hatred of us, are ready to extirpate all this, or who, at best, interpret falsely to themselves the most excellent sides of the character of their pupils, and consequently persecute them.

People who regard the school and the matter of education too formally may not recognize that these have an importance in such psychological subtleties as the moral action of the teacher on the pupil, which is not embraced in the school programme, and which cannot be grasped at first sight. But, to continue in the words of the author already quoted,

the moral influence exerted on our youths by the Russian teacher is so far-reaching in its results that to it there gives place the fact that those youths do not learn their native literature and history in the school, and that they learn even their native language in Russian. One can learn his native language outside of the school; one can, though with difficulty, learn in that way the literature and history of his nation; but no influence outside of the school is able to repair the moral damage, the devastation, which the steady influence of the Russian teacher causes in the souls of the youths. The human individual must suffer for being put, in the most important years of his life—the period of universal ripening—under the influence of alien men, absolute barbarians, who, even involuntarily, treat most brutally that which constitutes the most delicate, the most impressionable, side of the young soul,—namely, its moral constitution. Under the brutal pressure of the Muscovite, gratifying his wanton cruelty, or acting the apostle of Russian civilization, or simply indulging his brutal nature,—the elements of that moral constitution, existing in the young soul as yet in embryo, whether they be inherited instincts or conceptions implanted by the parents, break, boil, wither, and, sometimes, are torn out by the roots. Maiming follows, without the knowledge of the victim. That which centuries of civilized social existence have built in human souls perishes, or becomes distorted, in one generation, under the action of the spiritual vandalism of the educational horde, which does not even give itself an account of its acts. Whoever will give himself the trouble to reflect more deeply on this matter, on the results of the education of our youths in such a school, will easily understand whence

have come the changes of the moral physiognomy of our community, changes which are striking in the younger generations. . . . He will understand why the entire type of life of our university youths has become similar to the Russian type of life.

SOCIAL DEGENERATION EVIDENT.

Simultaneously, "the conceptions of the most important matters of life have scattered, and the moral system of the community has, in a considerable measure, become lax. On religion, on the future of the nation, on the family and its constitution, on the internal social relations, on the relation of the nation to the state, on the duties of son, husband, father, citizen, Pole,—every one looks as he pleases."

There is scarcely anything generally acknowledged, binding, sacred. We are beginning to be like a throng of immigrants from all possible countries in some American city who have only that in common that they earn their bread in identical conditions, that they must hold intercourse in the same generally accepted language, that over the conduct of all there watches one and the same policeman. But there the strong spirit of the old-American community rapidly assimilates the medley, imposes its moral system on it, and cements it gradually into one homogeneous whole: while here, there is no such agent,—here, the whole is scattering more and more. . . . We are already, in a considerable measure, disorganized. Whence is there such a rapid progress in this fatal direction? To this there contributes many factors, but the most important of them certainly is the Russian school,—this education of our youths by alien men, to whom our type of life, our past, and the ethics produced by it, are repugnant and hateful.

Hence, the whole Polish community demands a Polish school—a school with Polish as the language of instruction and with Poles as teachers.

DO RUSSIANS THEMSELVES REALLY EXPECT REFORMS?

THERE are serious misgivings among Russian Liberals as to the outcome of the proposed reforms. No attempt will be made by these, it is felt, to abolish the spirit of bureaucracy, and the slight concessions granted will remain more nominal than real. "For all the deep secrecy which had surrounded the labors of the Bulyghin commission," says the Russian weekly, *Pravo*, "its project, as finally elaborated, became known to the public through the *Novoye Vremya*, the faithful servant of the bureaucracy, and the motives that guided the authors of this unique system of imperial reform are no longer a mystery."

May we expect that this form will answer the popular needs, that it will direct the latter into legitimate

channels, and that it will bring tranquillity to the country? According to the project, the idea of popular participation in matters of higher government has no roots in the conditions of the national life. All the attempts to limit the ruler's power originated in insignificant circles, and there is no reason to suppose that this historical attitude of the people toward the ruling power had essentially changed among the great mass of the people. . . . Such is apparently the essence of the project which is calculated to bring about the gradual tranquilization of the country through the convocation of popular representatives. But there is here a very serious misunderstanding. It is certain that only political charlatans and persons whose ideals are circumscribed by government subsidies, etc., like Prince Meshcherski or Gringmut, can allow themselves to claim that all the existing confusion is due to the desire of some party leaders to secure comfortable berths and to attach themselves to the public pie. Yet whoever is



A RECEPTION IN RUSSIA.

'How the Czar "received" the zemstvos deputation.)
From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).

capable of considering seriously the fate of his country cannot but see that the whole land is shaken to its foundations, that everything is detached from the old moorings. Had the present régime been capable of satisfying even partly the crying needs of the day, no abstract discussion on the advantages of one or another government system would have availed to spur it to

action. . . . But as it is, the bureaucracy has proved wholly insolvent, and has brought the country to the verge of ruin.

Having realized its impotency even officially, this bureaucracy directs all its energies toward self-preservation, and becomes thus an empire within an empire.

Legislative activity consists now of mere form without contents; the country, ruined by a plundering system of management, is groaning and strangling in the vise of arbitrariness; and that difference of opinion of which the project speaks is no longer a mere difference, but an implacable, mad hatred, to such an extent that, as was repeatedly admitted even by the *Grazhdanin*, Russian men rejoice at their own defeats. Under conditions like these, all must realize that it is no longer possible to live thus.

Aside from the nominal modification of the fundamental laws, everything remains essentially as of old; not a single bureaucratic institution is touched, and the bureaucracy remains master of the situation. "Two months ago," continues this writer, "Prof. E. D. Grimm concluded his brilliant article on our political conditions with the words: 'The government cannot by any means stop the decay of the old order of things; on it depends only one thing,—not to carry matters to a violent revolution.'"

Now, after the incidents of Łódź, Odessa, and Libau, if there is still anything that depends on it, it should be done to-day, and not to-morrow, resolutely, honestly, consistently. The salvation of Russia is to be sought, not in a state of siege that oppresses the people more than does the discontent itself, but in a resolute breaking with the past, with which non-official Russia has already parted forever.

SVEN HEDIN ON NORWAY AND THE PURPOSES OF RUSSIA.

A WARNING to Norway as to the possible consequences of her revolution is contributed to the German weekly, *Woche*. In concluding his discussion of the separation, Dr. Hedin says:

The entire Norwegian people is now exulting. It is as if they had gained a splendid victory and shaken off the yoke of a foreign tyrant. To an onlooker of cool and calm judgment, this artificial and fanatical enthusiasm presents a touching and melancholy spectacle. They sing themselves hoarse with the admirable, magnificent national song, "Yes, we love this land" (by Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson). They sing like doves which, while cooing, do not perceive the lurking hawk which is resting upon outstretched wings. On the very day after the Norwegian revolution, a Russian journal, the *Slovo*, contained a first warning. An eminent Englishman, who is sojourning here in order to study the present crisis, informed me yesterday that the *Slovo* obtains communications of this nature from a very prominent source. The Russian journal recalls the fact that Rus-

sia was one of the participants at the Congress of Vienna, and that she thereby assumed a certain responsibility for Norway—a responsibility which must become specially important at a moment when the position of Norway has changed completely from that which she occupied at that time. And the *Slovo* adds that Russia, Germany, and England are directly interested in Scandinavian politics. For each one of these states it must be a matter of the greatest significance under whose particular influence Norway, after her separation from Sweden, will fall.

The day, then, following that dissolution of the union for whose revolutionary character Norway is alone responsible, Russia sounds a first warning signal.

Russia already brands Norway, marks it as a future bone of contention between the three great powers neighboring on Norway, and she lets it be clearly understood that none of those powers singly dare take her under its protection. "Europe does not like changes,"

it has been said. The Norwegian revolution has caused a most disastrous shifting of the north European balance of power; the responsibility rests upon those men, Michélsen, Löfstrand, Nansen, and others who incited their countrymen to a rash step for which they are now glorified as heroes of liberty. They will one day stand before the tribunal of Europe and of history, and it will be a severe sentence that will be passed upon them and their deeds.

It can now be understood, Dr. Hedin continues, why the Swedes maintain an attitude of quiet and calm.

We know the Russians but too well. The Swedes and the Russians respect each other on the strength of this ancient experience, and there is a heartfelt wish on both sides of the Baltic that the peace between us of nearly a hundred years' duration may not be broken by any sort of discord. Norway does not possess this experience, and its foremost organs of the press vouch for it that Russia positively does not need an ice-free Atlantic harbor, not even after she has been driven from the Pacific. What did the *Slovo* mean by its first warning signal? On the side of the English it has been said that such a warning announces impending action. They can then say: "We warned you to absolve us from the responsibility which we assumed; now you yourself must bear the consequences." Finmarken is Norway's blind-gut, and on account of the excesses of that country this blind-gut is more than ever exposed to inflammation. Let us assume that the operation by

which "this useless and superfluous part of the body" is removed passes off very smoothly, and time heals every wound.

Sweden, we are assured, will not hasten to the succor of the patient with "a supply of strengthening iron pills kept on hand for his benefit." Russia does not aspire to territorial expansion in Europe. "She may thank Heaven if she succeeds in maintaining her present possessions."

But it may some time happen that Russia will think it necessary for her to have an Atlantic port which shall be thirty or forty sailing days nearer to England than Alexandrovsk, and for the accomplishment of this object she need not step upon one foot of Swedish soil. What would England do in the face of such an event? Fortify a port on the east coast of Scotland? Increase her navy, since a portion of it would be constantly stationary on account of the threatening neighborhood of Russia? A new Balkan Peninsula Scandinavia can hardly become as long as we Swedes maintain the calm dictated by sagacity. But Norway may one day become a new Korea, when the political constellation presents a different aspect from that which it does at this moment. It is not alone the geographical resemblance which prompts me to this comparison, but the fact, which is preëminently true in our time, that small states, if they offer even the slightest attraction to a neighboring great power, and do not keep perfectly quiet, are easily absorbed.

THE FALL OF THE KUYPER MINISTRY IN HOLLAND.

FOR some years a condition of things has existed in The Netherlands scarcely conceivable in connection with any other constitutional government of the present day,—the control of the government by a clerical party, and that a Protestant party of the strictest Calvinistic type. At the head of this was, and for that matter still is, so far as the party is concerned, the Rev. Dr. A. Kuyper, one of the staunchest advocates and supporters of old-fashioned orthodoxy, and the foremost leader of the ultra-Calvinistic wing of the Reformed Church. This energetic and versatile man, though such an extreme pietist, became premier of Holland. His ministry has just been overthrown, and Dr. Kuyper has been relegated to his study, where his tireless pen elaborates many a pamphlet and book and his active brain guides the affairs of the *Standaard*, the most conservative paper in the kingdom.

The cause that led to the fall of this ministry was the adoption and formulation into a law of a new educational project, embracing both the schools of lower grade and the universities. An article in the Dutch review *De Gids*, of Amsterdam, outlines the situation.

The new plan of higher education contemplated the

granting to particular colleges and universities established by associations or corporations the same rights and privileges as those enjoyed by the national universities, including what is in Holland known as the *jus promovendi*,—the right of conferring degrees upon graduates. The debate in the Chambers on this point was very sharp. The opposition to this law was based particularly upon two points,—viz., (1) the permission included in the law to establish private universities for or with sectarian instruction; (2) the fact that by the establishment of such particular or private colleges or universities the standard of higher public education would be lowered and the former would more and more crowd the latter aside; and (3) that such non-national schools would require to be supported by subsidies from the state, which would be contrary to the fundamental law.

The opposition to the new law for lower education was based upon the same general objections as lay against the law for higher education, and, in addition, upon the lack of proper safeguards furnished by the law against the intrusion of clerical and sectarian influence, and the omission of a proper guarantee that the education given in the particular or private schools should be the same in all respects as that furnished by the public schools.

The new primary-school law also contemplated

the pensioning of all teachers, whether employed in the national or private schools. To the granting of pensions to the first-named there was no opposition, because the teacher employed by the state is, *ipso facto*, a state official, and therefore constitutionally entitled to a pension, like every other employee of the state. But the teacher in a private school is employed by a private association or corporation, and therefore cannot be placed on the civil list, which is national and governmental.

These educational laws were unanimously supported by, if they did not wholly originate with, the clericals, or the Anti-Revolutionary party, as they call themselves, of which Dr. Kuyper is the astute and able leader and head. They had the undivided support also of the Catholics, but were strenuously opposed by the Liberals and all the anti-clericals, including the Social Democrats. The Anti-Revolutionists and Catholics on the one hand, and the Liberals and their allies on the other, form, respectively, the Right and Left in the Chambers.

The question was "rushed through" and carried by the Right by a strict party vote. And it was upon this that the Kuyper ministry went before the country. The elections for members of the Chambers were held on two days, the 16th and the 28th of June last.

DUTCH ELECTION METHODS.

The Dutch parliamentary elections have this peculiarity, that a mistake or incompleteness in the vote of a district may be rectified at a subsequent election to be held within a limited period from the first. If, for example, no candidate secures the required two-thirds majority in any district, another election is set for a subsequent day in the district involved. In case one person should be elected to represent more than one district, as may happen, the successful candidate selects the particular district that he prefers to represent, whereupon another election is held for candidates to fill the unsupplied vacancies. This may explain why there were two elections in Holland, one on June 16 and another on June 28.

The vote of the 16th, though not decisive, strongly indicated how the tide was turning, and already proved a moral defeat to Dr. Kuyper. The vote for candidates of the Left was everywhere increased. Even where the government remained victorious, the strength of the minority of 1901 had enormously increased, and the Anti-Revolutionists, or pro-clericals, had sustained correspondingly severe losses. While the Catholics, who had, of course, unanimously supported the new education laws, retained each of their twenty-five seats, the supporters of Dr. Kuy-

per were defeated even in their chief strongholds. The people had indicated even in that first election that they had had enough of the Kuyper régime; the turning-point had come; presently the politics of the state would change for good.

On the night of the 28th of June the telegraph flashed the news of the final vote throughout the kingdom, evoking a shout of victory from the entire anti-clerical population. As soon as the bulletins anywhere announced the result, the crowds sent up a jubilant shout and every tongue joined in some one of the many campaign songs, such as "Kuyper must pack up and go, hi, ha, ho!" or, "In the name of Freedom, Kuyper must step down and out!"

The yoke of Kuyper had been shaken off; the man of the common people, as his adherents loved to call him, had been compelled to succumb. The Left had a majority of the popular vote. To be sure, they had elected only fifty-two members, against the forty-eight of the Right, a meager majority of four, but yet more than the most sanguine had looked for on the 16th. The most that was then hoped for was a deadlock, which, however, would also have compelled the resignation of the ministry. The thing of supreme importance was the number of votes cast for members of the Left. Almost everywhere, their majorities were large; even in districts where, although success seemed assured, the Liberals looked for no more than a narrow escape from defeat, the majorities reached into the hundreds.

The elections of 1905 will exert a strong influence upon organized politics in The Netherlands. Such tremendous clerical majorities and such bitter party hatred as have obtained in late years will be relegated to the past. Whether Rome will remain true to its late ally, the Protestant clericals, may well be doubted. The severest blow in this contest falls upon Dr. Kuyper himself. It is his own partisans who must pay the score. The Anti-Revolutionists, the Orthodox Reformed, lose no less than eight seats, while the Catholics retain every place they held before the last elections. The Kuyper government has received its death-blow in The Netherlands.

There is a mighty difference between the exit of this late premier and that of one of his notable predecessors, Thorbecke. When the latter had to quit the field he must have been conscious that some day he would be recalled to the head of affairs. Dr. Kuyper, on the other hand, will depart with no indication as to what the political future may bring him. What can be predicted with entire confidence is that this statesman will never again guide the ship of state.

Although such a small majority as that in which the Left can count cannot give rise to a strong, energetic, enterprising government policy, the country is to be congratulated on this inestimable fact,—viz., for a clerical government there is and can be no longer room in Holland. In this lies the victory; and this fully justifies all the exultation.

WHAT DID THE KAISER SAY TO THE CZAR?

THE mystery surrounding the meeting of the German Kaiser and the Russian Czar on the coast of Sweden, recently, has been the subject of much comment in European periodicals. It will probably never be known what their majesties really said, but the clever and celebrated political and economic writer, F. Naumann, a shrewd German who has more than once cleared up diplomatic mysteries, makes a guess and publishes his idea of the gist of this conversation in the *Hilfe*, of Berlin. Imagining the two monarchs to be sitting before the window of the cabin on the German Emperor's yacht, Herr Naumann reports the following conversation:

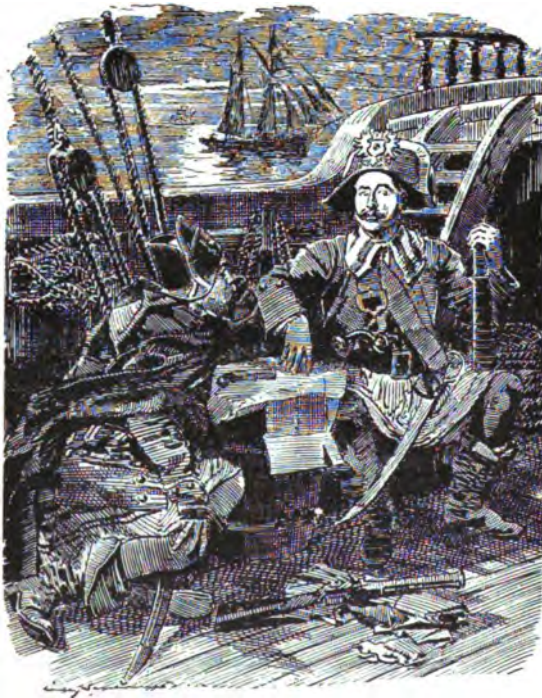
KAISER: "Do you see the little vessel out there? It is probably a Swede. There is one more! Shall we open the window? We are still alone."

CZAR: "One is never alone!"

KAISER: "Here we are alone."

CZAR: "I must speak with you. There is so much on my mind, and I need somebody who does not want something of me."

KAISER: "How do you know that I do not want anything of you? Perhaps I do want a great deal. Bülow has a whole portfolioful of things ready to be presented to you at the opportune time. But now



MELODRAMA IN THE BALTIC.

THE CZAR (anxiously): "I trust we are not observed."
THE KAISER (aside): "It won't be my fault if we're not."
From *Punch* (London).

speak out! You know that our ancestors have treated each other as brethren."

CZAR: "Will you frankly tell me what you think of our position?"

KAISER: "We follow with regret all your steps, and we hope that the present time of trial will soon be over. Of course, we have but the sentiments of heartiest friendship, as usual."

CZAR: "You do not want to understand. I feel as if everything were breaking down. I decided not to be moved by anything, but when I am alone, and when I see the little ones! . . . Tell me what you would do."

KAISER: "Make peace and control the revolution."

CZAR: "Witte is going over. The peace will cost many sacrifices, but the war also. I wish I had died out there! I did not want the war,—it was necessitated by an injustice without equal. The day transmitting the news about the torpedo fleet was terrible. And then Kuropatkin. And so it goes, month by month. Sometimes I think nothing is true!"

KAISER: "Our people, the merchants of Hamburg, used to say: 'The first damage is the best, because it is the cheapest.' You must make peace,—then you have free hands."

CZAR: "And what shall we do then?"

KAISER: "That is very simple. You suppose that you are Nicholas I. Do you know what he did?"

CZAR: "I know it, but I do not know how he did it. I always think of Louis of France. He was such a man as I, and at that time the revolution was not as mean as now. Only think—our Sergius! And all the others! Now something seems to have happened to our old honorable Pobyedonostzev. Oh! it is not human; it is barbarous, pagan! Such a hell never existed!"

KAISER: "You must be more firm. This I have resolved to tell you,—that, first, all rebellion must be crushed before you make the least concessions. If you prove weak you are lost."

CZAR: "But I am weak."

KAISER: "We all are but men. Yet a ruler must forget himself and rather fall in the fight than give up. When he has shown that he is the lord, then he shall consider the wishes of his subjects, but not before. We all stand in a dangerous position, and nobody knows whom it strikes first. It is not only so in Russia. Come, let us be brotherly and brave!"

CZAR: "I thank you. I will consider it."

Then there was silence for a while. The Kaiser looked thoughtfully and very seriously out of the window, as if he wished to catch the little clouds swimming away out on the horizon. But the Czar gazed on the reflection of the looking-glass in the room. Finally both looked each other in the face.

CZAR: "What will you do if the Poles rebel and recede from me?"

KAISER: "We will march on Warsaw and restore it to you."

CZAR: "Would you be doing that for us, or for yourself?"

KAISER: "Both! The division of Poland unites us forever."

CZAR: "And your soldiers,—what will they do?"

KAISER: "They will march."

CZAR: "They will . . . I do not know. I do not believe in anything more in the world. You know the incident at Odessa—you know it."

KAISER: "Do you wish another cigarette?"

CZAR: "No; I do not smoke very much, thank you."

Again there was silence for a while. It seemed as if the Czar was more comforted. He also started the conversation this time.

CZAR: "What sort of a constitution would you allow after the crushing of the revolution?"

KAISER: "After the crushing of the revolution I would be liberal!"

CZAR: "Somebody told me that the Prussian constitution of 1876 would be suitable for us. I do not know it very well. I think it was provincial self-government, but no general parliament."

KAISER: "A strong government can rule with any constitution."

CZAR: "Also with a revolutionary right of suffrage?"

KAISER: "That also. It must only have conquered first."

CZAR: "I know so very few men. You do not know how narrow a life I live. What keeps me is the duty, not the hope. I have the duty of holding old Russia as long as I live."

KAISER: "There is no such duty. There only exists the duty for us to hold the inherited power. Nobody can uphold old conditions."

CZAR: "You are the West Europeans. You have other feelings than we. Russia is a world for itself. How tired I am of all the misery around! I love this world and would die for it. If I give this up, any wind will blow me away. I remain a Russian, and God will save Russia. . . . I believe he will do it."

THE FRATERNIZING OF THE BRITISH AND FRENCH NAVIES.

A STUDY of the international significance of the visit made by the British fleet to Brest and the exchange visit of the French fleet to Portsmouth is presented by Arnold White in the *National Review*. This writer points out the peculiar appropriateness of Brest as a meeting-place, since "the very names of the streets in this French town speak of the long struggle of five great wars with England." Mr. White is enthusiastic over the effect on the world's peace of this drawing together of England and France. He believes it will neutralize the influence of Germany, which he regards as decidedly opposed to peace. The visit of the English fleet to Brest, he declares, "marks the shifting of the center of gravity in international affairs throughout the world." There was no rhetorical exuberance of speechmaking, but, one after another, Frenchman succeeding Englishman, the naval officers "expressed in almost identical language the desire of all that the home life of France and England may be maintained intact, and that the power of the two navies might be used for maintaining the peace of the world."

Shrewd men these; firm supporters of law and order; hostile to marauders and hooligans, more especially to imperial wrongdoers. The one cry of these honest men was that between France and England there was no cause of quarrel, and that there were many interests in common, and that the guardianship of the Narrow Seas should be exercised strictly in the interest of universal peace. There is no occasion to put the dots on the "i's," but these honest mariners, bred in storms, did not refrain from indicating the quarter in which dirty weather might be expected.

Mr. White refers to a number of excellent points in the French naval equipment which it

would be well for England to study. The French have much to learn from the English in naval matters, he declares, but, on the other hand, Britons may learn a great deal from the French. "It is commonplace to recall the fact that in *matériel* our neighbors have always led the van. In the days of wooden ships, French naval constructors furnished the models which were afterward imitated in the British navy." In many other points, such as in the good cooking of food, in holding the loyalty of the men and listening to any complaints they wish to make, in emphasizing the fact that the French sailors are citizens before they are sailors, and in other points, the navy of the republic deserves close study by Britons.

In a current number of the *Graphic*, the London illustrated weekly, M. Edouard Lockroy, late French minister of marine, has a study of the French navy which presents in brief form some interesting data. He points out the fact that the French navy is one of the oldest in Europe, and that it is still governed by regulations which date back to Richelieu and Colbert. As regards officers, he declares they are among the most highly trained men in Europe. Emphasizing the fact that the French navy, by the number of its battleships and the high standard of its men, is the second in Europe and the first on the Continent, M. Lockroy proceeds to a detailed study of the elements in France's naval force. As a whole, he declares, the distinctive element, that of "protection," is much greater, in proportion to the size of the entire navy, than in other countries.

The necessity of protecting maritime frontiers, to put the country under the protection of disembarka-



FRANCE AND ENGLAND—THE BRITISH ADMIRALS LAND AT BREST.

tions, and to prevent the blockade of dockyards and ports, has dominated the minds of the general staff and the Chambers. No nation has constructed more destroyers, torpedo boats, and submarines; and it is perhaps in these last-named vessels that the skill of our shipbuilders is most conspicuously apparent. France was the first to make use of submarines. Among these vessels, the most remarkable type would seem to be that called the "submersible." It can be navigated on the surface as easily as a destroyer, which in its elegant shape it resembles; and it can dive down in a very few

minutes. Its speed is considerable; its sphere of action relatively extended; and the latest experiments made at Cherbourg have shown that in time of war it could take the offensive and be a formidable opponent.

France constructs very large vessels successfully, he reminds us, although these are not homogeneous enough in plan and are very expensive to build. One great fault, he points out, is that certain ships are not sufficiently provided with guns.

This defect has been remedied in the latest types of warships, which will be abundantly provided with guns. At the same time, it should be

stated that if the quantity of guns is not always what it should be, the quality is absolutely of the highest. The artillery of the French navy may claim, with justice, to be one of the best in Europe. Considerable progress has been made, not only in the construction of the guns and in the making of powder, but in the rapidity of firing. The guns of larger caliber, which have already been made rapid-firers, are soon to be, on the new ships, absolute quick-firers. In actual warfare this will be a great advantage, and will make up for other defects.

AN ITALIAN VIEW OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF OUR NAVY.

IN the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), Signor Federico di Palma writes with understanding partly based on residence in the United States of "The Development of the North American Navy." He says that President Roosevelt's declaration to the parliamentary delegates that he was an apostle of peace must not lead the world to think that he is ingenuous enough to neglect to prepare for any eventuality of war. In fact, he thinks that "the political act of greatest importance accomplished by the President,—and that concerns also the foreign powers,—is the rapid development that he has sought to give to the North American navy." It has drawn the attention of all European powers, and has alarmed a few. The writer continues:

The Americans have understood in time that true economic greatness cannot exist if not guaranteed by a large and efficient navy. For statesmen that have a free and complete vision of the political and economic problem, the navy is not a costly and passive element to be confounded with many other parasitic expenses,

but a productive element that guarantees existing riches, that helps to create others, that makes feared and respected its own flag in near and distant seas, that aids treaties of every nature between his own nation and others, that is an element of fraternity and peace between peoples, that is a weighty instrument of civilization, that is an efficient and secure guaranty of the interests and rights of its own territory.

Signor di Palma takes little stock in the charge that easy victory over the Spaniards has intoxicated us with the idea of conquest, while fully allowing for the stimulus afforded marine and army spirit by the late war. He says that they are wrong who see contradiction between our programme of industry and that of the navy. "These two weighty coefficients of a nation, economic greatness and maritime power, mutually complete each other." In the light of recent Russian disasters, the United States is to be praised for its foresight.

If possibly America cherishes jealously and secretly some project of war against a European

power (which some go so far as to assert), and her navy plans are for very definite purposes, still he thinks that "a country that has labored for more than a century, intensely, feverishly, without truce or rest, to form the limitless edifice of its riches and its commerce will not press lightly forward in a policy of adventure, which might compromise a part, if not all, of the work that forms the greatest glory of young America." But if war should come, the United States would be ready, and would spare no sacrifice in the hope of victory.

One danger the writer foresees,—that of finding men enough to man the ships when complete. The forty-nine new vessels will require about twenty thousand men. These men do not now

exist,—that is, as trained sailors,—and especially not as the specialists,—machinists, stokers, electricians, torpedo-men, artillery-men etc.,—of which navy crews are now made up. He asks :

Will it suit the American workmen, who earn two, three, and four dollars a day, working eight hours on land, in factories, enjoying liberty the rest of the day, and having about a hundred holidays a year, to renounce such conditions to enroll themselves as simple marines? I do not believe it, notwithstanding that the American navy gives the high pay of a dollar, net, a day.

He points out that this is already the difficulty in Europe, where the workmen enjoy far less of pay and liberty than here, and where the traditions of the sea exercise a much greater fascination than in America.

IS EMIGRATION RUINING ITALY?

THE question of Italian emigration is quite as much discussed in Italy as is that of Italian immigration in the United States. In the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), Senator Angelo Mosso considers all sides of the problem, historically, statistically, and economically, and some of his statements and conclusions are corrective of misapprehensions prevalent here. Several other articles appear in current Italian reviews, as will be mentioned.

The Italian population in foreign countries has grown thus : 1881, 1,032,392 ; 1891, 1,983,206 ; 1901, 3,458,024 ; 1905, above 4,000,000. The causes of this emigration, larger than from any other country save Ireland, are complex and various. Senator Mosso finds the roots of it back in ancient Roman times, and it is recognized in religious customs. Rome has ever been "a vortex about which human currents are drawn by a mysterious power in the continuous renewal of civilization. In many languages *romeo* became a synonym of 'pilgrim.'"

The migration of peoples, though influenced by other causes, is as natural as atmospheric currents. The demand for labor of certain kinds draws from those regions which are oversupplied with vigorous workmen. Travel has convinced this writer that in spite of the Italians' reputation for impulsiveness and hot blood, it is precisely in northern climes that their sobriety is most appreciated. Among Italians there is less separation between rich and poor than elsewhere in Europe, their sociability is greater, and the workmen have more solidarity and coöperation. Vivacity of language and gesture are merely superficial, covering a solid base. He continues :

Emigration is an inevitable need and a form of mod-

ern life for the Italians, because it conforms to their character. The state should guide the emigrants ; no intimidation, no social consideration, should check our diffusion into foreign countries. Emigration is for us not a blood-letting, but a strengthening, remedy ; not a dangerous crisis, but a growing fever, like that which comes to youth, and from which the body issues stronger and better formed.

Poverty may determine emigration, but alone is not sufficient to produce it, he says. Sardinia, far poorer than Upper Italy, has no emigration, while the women of rich Lombardy go to Lyons silk mills because their dexterity is in demand.

The emigrant is usually a poor person discontented with his state, and a member of the proletariat nobler than the others. His will is stronger, making him carry through his resolutions, dominate circumstances, launching himself into the vortex of the unknown.

In the article is given a table showing the countries for which Italian emigrants departed during 1904, to a total of 471,191, besides 35,545 who did not require passports. The United States leads, with 168,789, but Switzerland took 52,763, Germany 55,049, and Argentina 51,779. However, Italy's numerical loss is small, for Senator Mosso says that practically all Italian emigration is temporary. In proof he cites from Senator Bodio's figures presented to Parliament for the movement to and from the United States. These are : 1902, arrived in the United States, 201,269 ; returned to Italy, 57,955 ; 1903, arrived, 232,528 ; returned to Italy, 88,293 ; 1904, arrived, 156,764 ; returned to Italy, 140,164. In Europe, almost all the workmen leave Italy in the spring and return in the autumn, and many of those who go to Argentina pass only the season of agricultural activity there and re-

turn to Italy for the rest of the year. Also, Italy's increase of population by birth is a quarter of a million a year.

This enormous movement of over half a million people a year has given rise to a great transportation industry. The writer lists forty-nine steamships given up solely to third-class passenger traffic, and minor companies bring the number to nearly one hundred. The passage money, at very cheap rates, amounts to 180,000,000 lire a year (\$36,000,000), and about ten thousand persons are employed in Italy in stimulating and caring for this traffic. Nine years ago, there were twelve thousand. These ticket agents bring all sorts of arguments and pressure to bear, and induce many to undertake the voyage that of themselves could not break the bonds of inertia and hard circumstances. These agents often add usury to their profits, and work great hardship. Then there are unauthorized agents for foreign transportation lines who work still more nefariously. In the past two years, six hundred and twenty of these were arrested.

SOME PREVENTIVE MEASURES.

Senator Mosso touches on measures taken to limit or repress Italian immigration into European countries, especially France, where even violence has been resorted to, but this subject is more extensively treated in an article on "Italians in Foreign Countries," in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), by Giuseppe Prato. In the same number of that magazine Dr. Guido Gray writes of the work of the Catholic aid societies for emigrants, and "A Piedmontese" on "The Future of Italians in the United States of America."

Signor Prato shows that owing to the density of population in Italy and the lack of capital for productive industry it is necessary that from two hundred thousand to three hundred thousand leave Italy each year. The last census gives Italy an average of 113 (or 116)* inhabitants per square kilometer, while Germany has 97 (or 104), Austria 80, and France 72 (or 74), although the latter countries have more tillable soil and fewer malaria-infested districts. He mentions the achievements of Italians in other countries, the fine buildings of Buenos Ayres, the flourishing colonies of Brazil, which has 1,100,000 Italians, the Asti colony in California, the model fruit farms of Louisiana and of Australia, the great building enterprises of Cairo and Alexandria, the solid commercial houses in Smyrna and Constantinople, the cafés, restaurants, and hotels of London and Barcelona, and

the thousands of farms of Sicilian peasants in Tunis, where there are three Italians to one Frenchman. In spite of these, there is a growing hostility to the Italian and other foreign workmen. The trade-unions have excluded them from almost all British shops and factories. The Australian Commonwealth, South Africa, New Zealand, British Columbia, have all passed strict laws against immigration and contract labor. "But," says Signor Prato, "it is the United States that represents for us the most disquieting uncertainty," and he quotes the rather florid language of Congressman Sherman, now consul at Liverpool, in proof of the feeling here that we should cease to be a "foster-mother for the oppressed" and should "choose our collaborators in keeping this the greatest nation in the world." Whether proposed legislation takes the form of excluding the illiterates (among Italians 48 per cent.) or limiting the number from any country to 60,000 or 80,000, Signor Prato says it would be foolish to shut one's eyes to the near possibility that "the door to fruitful industry and eventual fortune" may be at least partially closed.

The writer signing himself "A Piedmontese" has studied the immigration question during residence in this country, and appears well informed. After commenting on the complex racial characteristics of the American, he finds it strange that the Germans and the Irish are considered as forming part of American life, while the Italians are still considered intruders, and meet with opposition and discouragement. He says Italians have done for America more than the sons of any other country. Columbus discovered it; Amerigo Vespucci gave it its name; Sebastian Cabot, Venetian, discovered much of it; Enrico Tonti shared in all the discoveries of La Salle; Antonio Meucci he calls the true inventor of the telephone, and General di Cesnola and Marconi are cited as recent benefactors of Italian race. The reasons for opposition he sums up as follows:

1. Many suppose, erroneously, that Italian immigrants are like swallows that have no fixed residence; that they put aside vast sums of dollars and give little profit to American commerce.

2. Others say that our immigrants are the "scum of Italy," and a mass of poor people worse than the Chinese or the negroes, who take up only the vilest trades.

3. The Italians are quick in anger, and know how to use the knife and the dagger; by many they are considered as anarchists, *mafia* members and *camorristi* of the first order, and a race of ignoramuses.

4. The Protestants oppose the Italians because they are Roman Catholics and come to America to swell the army of the Catholic Church.

5. The American clergy neglect our immigrants because they contribute little, if any, to the welfare of the local parish, and because the priests do not know Italian.

* Writers in these articles give the different figures.

6. After the brutal deed at New Orleans, when a savage populace took summary justice on eleven Italians, hate and opposition toward these grew immeasurably.

These objections he takes up in detail and explains or controverts. He adds: "Judging by what is being done for the Italians on the moral and economic sides, I believe it to be certain that our colonies will flourish and form one of the glories of the United States." Distrust of Italians from other provinces and conservation of dialects, a tendency to irreligion, and the desire of the younger generation to drop the Italian language and be entirely American he regards as evils, and the padrone system and the secret criminal societies are others.

WHY DON'T THE ITALIANS GO SOUTH?

The turning of the immigration current to the South the writer thinks would be of immense benefit, but the poor results so far achieved through official channels are discouraging. They are due to the clannishness and poverty of the newly arrived. The problem, he thinks, would be solved if the immigrants could be landed at Mobile, New Orleans, or Galveston instead of at Northern ports. Ambassador Mayor des Planches is working to this end, with the coöperation of the Gould railway system, though not without opposition from some quarters. Efforts against illiteracy and irreligion and for information in the Italian press about American life, American machinery, and opportunities in the South or other agricultural sections he considers can do much to remedy present evils. As is shown in the article mentioned by Dr. Gray, various societies are aiding.

In the *Nuova Antologia*, Senator A. di San Giuliiano, who was a delegate to the Parliamentary Congress at St Louis, in 1904, discusses fully "Italian Emigration to the United States." The temporary diminution last year he ascribes to economic and political causes in this coun-

try, and not to restrictive enforcement of our laws, as stated by J. D. Whelpley in the *North American Review*. Moreover, this year's increase is marked. Leaving aside the question of loss of valiant workers, the immediate advantages to Italy of emigration he states to be the rise in wages in Italy, the sending home of money to Italy (from \$25,000,000 to \$50,000,000 a year), and the increase of Italian exports of certain products demanded by the emigrants or sold by them. The disadvantages are the exodus of youthful, productive force, to be returned often in conquered, older men, beaten in the fierce struggle for life in America; the loss of the small capital carried by the emigrants (\$2,219,745 in the fiscal year 1901-02), the competition of products grown or made in America with similar Italian products,—wine, alimentary pastes, and oranges being the chief,—and the abandoning of farm land in some parts of Italy. He quotes a resident of the Molise region as saying that the exodus of 10,000, 12,000, and finally 15,000 a year from that region was its salvation from direst misery.

This writer says the Italians have done well in agriculture only where they could reproduce their own methods of culture and keep up their community life. With Commissioner of Immigration Sargent, he doubts if any large number of Italians can be induced to go to the farms of the Southwest, either as farmhands or as small proprietors, for reasons that he states at length. But if Italians do not yield to American desires and cease massing in the cities, restrictive measures are certain. Moreover, the distribution of the immigrants over our vast territory, and their employment on a large scale in agriculture, depend on so many complex causes connected with economic and social life that the Italian Government can influence it little, particularly since the Americans are so jealous of any foreign interference and Italy's means are so small compared with the magnitude of the problem.

THE POLITICS OF THE THERMOMETER.

CONTRIBUTIONS to the London *Times* by Prof. Alleyne Ireland on the subject of the administration of the tropics have attracted much attention in England. Professor Ireland has been employed for the past two or three years in investigating the condition of the tropical dependencies of all nations, on a commission from the University of Chicago. He recently read a paper before the Colonial Institute on "The British Empire in the East," which ap-

pears in the current number of the *Journal of the Royal Colonial Institute*.

The gist of Professor Ireland's paper is that heat is incompatible with liberty, that self-government becomes impossible when the mercury climbs above a certain point in the tube of the thermometer, and that the heat belt of the world can never be governed decently excepting when under the more or less despotic control of nations born in cooler regions.

THE HEAT BELT OF THE WORLD.

Professor Ireland remarks :

The first point which impresses the observer when he considers the British Empire in the far East is that all the territories comprised in it lie within the great heat belt which girdles the earth between the northern and southern parallels of 30 degrees.

The whole of our far-Eastern empire is under the direct political control of the mother country ; and we do not find in it a single dependency in which the control of affairs rests unreservedly in the hands of an elected legislature. If we wish to discover this form of government within the British Empire, we must go outside the heat belt,—to the Cape, to Australia, to Canada.

This by itself is sufficiently striking ; but if we enlarge the field of our inquiry we find that what is true of the far East is true of practically the whole of Africa and of the whole of America, in so far as those continents lie within the heat belt.

HOW HEAT AFFECTS POLITICS.

In the discussion that followed, one speaker referring to the influence of heat on the teaching and governing classes in India, he said :

You find that their life also is restricted by climate in a way which Europeans can hardly realize. There is far less free intercourse between them. I will give you a simple illustration. In going round India, inquiring into the operations of the universities and colleges, I was greatly struck by the isolation of the colleges. You found institutions in the same town all very much of the same class doing good work, which appeared to know nothing of one another, and to have no association one with the other. The explanation is, I believe, simply that the climate makes it impossible to go about. When you have got into your own house, in India, you may come out for a strictly limited period of exercise, but you are not inclined to walk even half a mile down the street and talk to your neighbors.

To this same malignant influence of excessive heat Professor Ireland seems to attribute the fact that

Representative institutions have proved a complete failure within the heat belt. . . . Now, with the single exception of the republic of Haiti, there is not a government in tropical or in sub-tropical America which is an independent native institution or which includes a true representation of the natives.

Haiti is no great success, and among other governments the most successful are those which are least republican.

It is a most striking fact that for every revolution which has occurred in Europe within historic times we can find a dozen in each tropical country. The tropical revolutions have never had any other real aim than to transfer from one party to another control of the corrupt and oppressive agencies of a despotic power.

THE HOTTER THE COUNTRY THE MORE DESPOTIC ITS GOVERNMENT.

There seems to be a natural connection between tory principles and excessive heat. The

more infernal the temperature, the more impossible is it to apply liberal principles of government. This is not due to European intermeddling. It is to be noted in every tropical country long before the European invasion. Professor Ireland refers to Burma as an illustration.

For centuries, stretching back beyond the time when England was a province of the Roman Empire, the people of Burma were free to develop enlightened institutions ; all they had to show at the end was a despotism strong in every element of oppression, formidable in everything which contributed to the unhappiness of the people, but weak and inefficient alike in maintaining decent order within its frontiers and in protecting itself by diplomacy or by war against foreign aggression. The Malay Peninsula affords an illustration no less striking of what native rule means for the natives of a tropical country. Here, again, the form of government evolved through uninfluenced native activity was purely despotic. There seems to be no ground whatever for a belief that if the natives of the tropics were given more time they would improve their governmental methods and adopt the principle of true representation.

EXPLOITATION AN ECONOMIC NECESSITY.

The abolition of the native administrations is a fact within the domain of political history, but the causes of the fact must be sought in the field of economics.

First, there is the effort to protect life and property ; then we see the establishment of courts of justice ; this is followed by the making of roads ; and this, in turn, by the building of railways, the improvement of harbors, the laying of telegraph lines and submarine cables ; and so on through a whole series of acts traceable to the common origin of economic necessity.

To put the matter in a brief formula : in tropical areas the colonial problem as between nation and nation, the colonial problem as between each nation and its own dependencies, and the colonial problem as between each dependent government and its own sphere of activity has always been a problem in the domain of economics. Or, to put it even more concisely, the problem of the control and development of tropical dependencies alike in its international, in its national, and in its internal aspects rests, and always has rested, upon economic foundations.

THE STRUGGLE FOR LIFE AND FREE WILL.

As economic pressure and Christian morality have been at the root of political progress in Europe, it is useless to expect that there can be any natural growth of political activity in tropical countries until economic pressure and the idea of free will take the place of economic ease and the philosophy of fatalism. For although the suffering, the stress, and the anxiety produced by economic pressure are the most apparent reasons for man's efforts to secure relief, they are, in fact, founded in a deeper cause. It is the threat that man's growing conviction of economic helplessness will destroy his sense of free will, and thus make him a moral as well as an economic slave, which causes him to struggle so violently in the mesh of his economic environment. In this struggle he is sustained by all the teachings of the Christian religion, for without the idea of free will Christianity would be an empty creed.

GREEKS AND THEIR ENEMIES IN MACEDONIA.

A STATE of war is virtually always existent in the Balkans,—the play of ethnic and religious motives is so fierce. It is all really a conflict between Greek and Slav and Turk, according to keen students of the problem. As to Macedonia, our knowledge here in the West is very imperfect. The Greeks are not false to their old ideals, writes a *Review* reader in Constantinople. They are oppressed and cheated by the Bulgarians and Servians, particularly the former. This correspondent takes exception to some statements quoted in this department some months ago from an article by a French writer (M. Messimy) on Macedonia. In support of his contention that the Greeks are more numerous than the French writer asserted, and that they are upholding nobly the banner of Hellenic culture, this correspondent refers us to an article in a recent number of the *Revue Générale de Droit International Publique* on the Christian schools of Macedonia.

INACCURACY OF POPULATION STATISTICS.

In the rough conflict of the races which has been going on for many years in the provinces of European Turkey, we are reminded in this article, it is very difficult to form an exact and impartial idea of the numerical and moral value of the divers elements therein. The statistics are fallacious and deceptive; being planned according to the desire and fancy of their author, they magnify the figures to such a degree that on the whole the population of Macedonia varies from two to five millions. It is therefore impossible to arrive at even approximately exact numbers, because in many rural districts the national conscience is hardly awake, and numerous peasants would hardly be able to tell for themselves to which race they belong. For a long time all the Christians of Macedonia were dependent on the Greek Church. Now there is also a Bulgarian Church. Neither the one nor the other corresponds to ethnological divisions. The Greek Patriarchate still comprises Servians, Koutzo-Valaques, and Bulgarians also; and the Bulgarian enarchate, in spite of its strictly national character, comprises thousands of Servians. The sole national criterion is the school. The school is an element extremely important in a country where the instruction depends on private initiative alone, and where it is not obligatory. The construction of a center of learning, and the preference of one school to another, are, as has been well said, manifestations of national creed. "Moreover, the love and progress of instruction denote the moral and

civilizing value of a race. Therefore, knowing the number and importance of the Christian schools in Macedonia, we can estimate with perfect exactness the material and intellectual force of the divers contending races, respectively."

GREEK AND BULGARIAN SCHOOLS.

The published statistics of these schools indicate, village by village, the number of the schools in the two vilayets of Salonika and Monastir, with the importance of the students and the teaching body of each one. The statistics based on the population, the language, and the religion vary. The statistics of the schools ought to be taken more seriously, because the data which they furnish are easily verified.

In the vilayet of Salonika, which comprises twenty-six *cuzas* (districts), there are in all 871 schools (primary and secondary schools and schools for girls), with 1,360 teachers of both sexes and 42,993 students. These are divided between the four Christian races,—the Greek, the Bulgarian, the Servian, and the Roumanian,—as follows:

Greek schools.....	521	with	787	teachers	32,534	students
Bulgarian schools...	319	"	493	"	9,544	"
Servian schools.....	21	"	52	"	532	"
Roumanian schools..	10	"	28	"	363	"
Totals.....	871	"	1,360	"	42,993	"

Greek schools are found in 23 districts, Bulgarian in 17, Servian in 16, and Roumanian in 4. So that out of a total number of 25 districts Greek schools are lacking only in 2—Kavador and Raslik—where only Bulgarian schools are found. On the other hand, Bulgarian schools are not found in 8 districts, in which there are only Greek schools, with the exception of Veria and Katerina, where 4 Roumanian schools are found also. In the vilayet of Monastir, which comprises 15 districts, there are in all 790 schools, with 1,233 instructors of both sexes and 38,634 students. These are divided according to nationality as follows:

Greek schools.....	477	with	676	teachers	27,106	students
Bulgarian schools...	242	"	380	"	8,767	"
Servian schools.....	39	"	117	"	1,619	"
Roumanian schools..	32	"	60	"	1,142	"
Totals.....	790	"	1,233	"	38,634	"

The Bulgarian, Roumanian, and Servian schools, being instruments of national propaganda, are created and helped almost only by official resources,—by the interested governments. Some years ago, Mr. Blount, the English consul-general at Salonika, wrote: "The importance of most of the Bulgarian schools is diminished, I think, by the importance of the sums sent from Bulgaria. Oriental Roumelia, perhaps even from Russia, for their sustenance (Blue Book, Turkey No. 3, 1889). Instruments of official propaganda, these schools have a factitious clientèle recruited by large pecuniary subsidies. All these schools

are quite artificial,—they have no roots in Macedonia."

The condition of the Greek schools is altogether different. They are due to private initiative, and are attended freely, without any aid, pecuniary, moral, or physical. The most obstinate Bulgarophile writers are forced to recognize this.

It is impossible not to be struck by the educational superiority of the Greek race. It denotes an intellectual value and activity which the contending races are far from possessing in the same degree. Considered as an instrument of combat in the struggle of nationalities in Macedonia, this superiority is a good omen for the future of Hellenism, and in the present circumstances it furnishes to the civilized world a consoling example of what *intelligence* and *reason* can do against *brutality* and *force*.

GREEKS NOT WORKING WITH TURKS.

As to the charge made by M. Messimy that the Greeks have allied themselves with the Turks, the *REVIEW* correspondent says: "This is a horrid slander, forged and spread about by the cunning Bulgarians and their devoted friends. The course of events proves just the opposite." The Bulgarian *comitadjis* (propagan-

dists), he continues, have started an artificial movement in Macedonia, just in a country where the divers national interests are in constant and violent conflict.

They wanted the Greeks to take up arms and help them, so that they might present a strictly Bulgarian movement as a Macedonian revolution to the rest of the world. The Greeks have not been so simple as to be caught in this snare. The *comitadjis* at once put into execution their infernal plan to extinguish the Greek race, that strong and influential obstacle to their selfish and greedy intentions. Taxing the Greeks and murdering men and women without distinction brought terror and calamity to the peaceful and disarmed Macedonians. What would the disinterested Bulgarophile desire these poor Macedonians to do? The Greeks had to take care of their own existence. Most naturally, they applied for protection to the ruling government. They asked the Turkish Government to save them from these strange liberators, who pretended to liberate them from the Turkish rule by overtaking, plundering, and murdering them. Is that an alliance with the Turks? Did the American citizens and schools ally themselves with the Turks because they were guarded and protected by Turkish soldiers during the Armenian massacres? Certainly not! It is exactly the same with the Macedonians. There is but one difference,—that the Americans were guarded and faithfully protected, while the Greeks were not.

SOME FRANK ENGLISH VIEWS OF GERMANY.

FOLLOWING the remarkably frank and, in the main, uncomplimentary impressions of England by a German resident which appeared in the July *National Review* and were quoted in our issue for August is a trenchant paper on some candid impressions of Germany by an English resident of many years in the Fatherland. This writer also writes under the protection of a *nom de plume*. He begins by quoting several sentences from a recent editorial by Dr. E. J. Dillon in the *Contemporary Review* on the relations of France and Germany over the Morocco question. Dr. Dillon said, in support of his contention that the standpoint of the German Kaiser in the Morocco matter is not the standpoint of the highly cultured and, in the main, peaceful German people. It really sounds like a libel, said Dr. Dillon, "on the Teutonic nation to assert that it grounds its security on the continuance of bitter enmity between the two neighbor nations. The sentiment of civilized races throughout the world would be shocked at the thought that any state should base its interests upon a perpetual menace of war between two other states. There is something positively fiendish in the notion."

This English critic goes on to elaborate the difference between the personal opinions of the German Kaiser and the official action of the German Government on the one hand and the eminently peaceful views of the solid German business community on the other hand. We do not know the real views of Germans, he declares, because "freedom of speech in our sense of the term is as yet not possessed by the German people." They can only give expression privately to their opinions. The writer then proceeds to quote the actual views of private German citizens, communicated to him in private. He prefaces these by stating that he has lived in Germany many years, and has mingled with the plain people of all descriptions. "He has mixed intimately with them, eaten with them, drank with them, sang with them, smoked with them, worked with them, played with them, talked with them, listened to them, answered them, questioned them,—man and woman, youth and maid. He has esteemed much that they do, marveled at much they do, taught them anything he could, and, more especially, learned from them anything he could. He admits his regard for them and his debt to them."

PEACEFUL GERMANS "OBSCURED BY JUNKERDOM."

The peaceful German people, he says, are "not far away, nor are they blind or dumb. They are only misinterpreted and obscured by Junkerdom." After repeating the verdict of one of the professors in a German university on the Kaiser, to the effect that his imperial majesty is "in everything a dilettante, purely and solely," the English critic quotes as follows an excellent expression of opinion from "a substantial, conservative, wealthy German business man, with a university doctor's degree:—"

Somehow, we're most of us getting mighty tired of worshipping the image which Nebuchadnezzar the King has set up. At nearer view such image seems to be mostly clay,—one iron toe, the army, with which we are kicked. And another iron toe is being prepared, an unnecessarily aggrandized navy, for which we must pay, and with which there will be further kicking. We are disgusted to have suddenly discovered that our recent development has been lopsided. Thanks to our native habits of thrift, careful research, and thorough organization, our solid material progress has surpassed expectation. But any approach to proportionate political power in the hands of us plain taxpayers, who really constitute the German people, remains yet to be achieved. We have been Hohenzollernized into forgetting one of the chief lessons drubbed into us by our greatest schoolmaster, Napoleon,—the folly of trusting to or, indeed, permitting one-man power. Where's our Magna Charta? Where's our Bill of Rights? Your contention of some years ago that in this respect Germans are practically living under a conjunction of your bad King John and your bad King Charles I. proves so near the mark that the wonder is it could ever have been seriously contested by me. Thus, we have grown even retrospectively dissentient, and look back with hot indignation and shame on such acts as—among others—the Krüger telegram; the "mailed fist" Kiel speeches; the Lippe-Detmold bullying; the Königsberg affair; the policing of refugee Russians and Poles; and the pardon, after farcical temporary detention, of murders and outrages by ruffians wearing our uniform. Moreover, after recent exposures, there is much heart-searching as regards the real efficiency of our army. Is it, despite everything, "bossed" by an irresponsible amateur, whose one idea of attack is a theatrical charge of massed cavalry against an intrenched, modernly armed body of infantry? That appears certain. Not only according to foreign experts on our last maneuvers, but also according to many of our own best officers who consider their hereditary commander-in-chief a reactionary. Fancy the ghastly farce it would be to hurl such a huddled cavalcade against enemies like the Japanese! And additional glittering squadrons are demanded, and though at present refused by the Reichstag, these will, doubtless, be eventually screwed out of us. We used to screen the Kaiser to save our own face. He was "young; surrounded by evil flatterers." But the years have robbed us of our first excuse, and, as well, taught us that a benevolent imagination had invented the second. Reverting to a previous point, it has become unpleasantly disturbing to compare the

stern reprisals dealt civilians under our absurd *lèse-majesté* laws with the opera-bouffe court-martialing and enjoyable retreat-before-pardon "graciously" provided military murderers. Are we getting impregnated with the Anglo-Saxon serum? Are the ideals of equal justice and political liberty envisioning among us? Anyway, numbers of my own class—myself included—vote Socialist now.

GERMAN FRIENDSHIP FOR ENGLAND.

As to the desire of the great masses of Germany for peace, opposing the Kaiser's militaristic Jingoism, this writer quotes a teacher in a German gymnasium as saying:—

Do you fancy that the Kaiser can love Deutschland half as well as does August Bebel? Which of these two men has worked harder for her best interests? Which works for war, do you think? Which for peace? We hate the very name of war. Thank God, our three million votes grow not less, but more, day by day. They will ever be cast on the side of peace. Every one of them. We desire to be and remain at peace with England and with all—especially with England, to whom we industrials owe so much. Why not? We have no real cause of quarrel with any one. And it's a lie to say that we wish to benefit by the quarrels of other nations. We hate war, I tell you, and will yet capsize these professional cutthroats who provoke and thrive on it.

It may be safely affirmed, continues the English critic, that the standpoint of the German Kaiser's government,—i.e., "the main interest of Germany was, is, and will be the perpetuation of the immemorial feud between England and France,"—is not the standpoint of the bulk of the German people. But what can this good, peace-loving folk do? "They dare not speak their minds. Blinded by Bismarck's Titanic achievement of a United Germany, they did not realize that he always and everywhere worked as well for 'my Master,' the King of Prussia. Thus, there was no questioning the Junker constitution he imposed upon them. How can they assert themselves against the extravagant one-man power given by that constitution to the King of Prussia?" One thing, however, they will not do,—they will not fight England for a whim of the Kaiser.

WHAT THE GERMAN WORKMEN THINK.

The English critic closes with a verbatim report of a conversation between himself and a German workingman who bade good-bye to him on the steamship dock. Here is the conversation:—

"Und in welcher Weise bei Ihr Landsleute wollen Sie über uns sprechen—zum Friede?"

"Ach, ja, lieber Mann, zum Friede!"

"Zwischen Deutschland und England?"

"Ja, ja. Zwischen Deutschland und England für immer und immer! Es muss so werden."

A CHINAMAN ON THE CANTON-HANKOW RAILWAY DISPUTE.

A BRIEF history of the American concession to build the Canton-Hankow Railway, and the subsequent developments which have involved this project in a vexed international situation, are given in an article by a Chinese resident of California, Mr. T. Y. Chang, in the *Dragon Student*, the official organ of the Chinese Students' Alliance of America. Mr. Chang recalls the fact that the contract was made, in 1898, between the Chinese Government and the American company known as the American-China Development Company. The terms of the contract were that the Chinese Government granted the right of way and promised to issue, in installments, imperial Chinese Government gold bonds to the amount of \$40,000,000 in gold. With this sum, it was agreed, the company was to raise enough funds to complete the work within three years. According to this account, the company failed to fulfill the conditions of the contract, and, in 1900, secured five years more in which to complete its work. The actual construction was then begun to the northward from Canton, but the discovery was soon made that the company had sold portions of its capital stock to the French and Belgian governments. These sales have been so large that the contract had been practically transferred to the hands of the Belgians, a transfer which was contrary to the terms of the contract with the government at Peking. The article goes on to recount the protest of the Chinese authorities against this transfer of stock, the continued sale of stock, and the frequent complaints against the construction and management of the road by the people of the district through which the tracks were laid. The presentation by the company of a demand for a sum which the government considered disproportionate to the work actually completed led the authorities at Peking to cancel the contract. When a Belgian was made chief engineer, with practical control of the entire business, the American minister at Peking was notified of the resolution of the Chinese Government to cancel. Then the company began to buy back its capital stock from the Belgian Government, "but it was too late."

After this brief statement of the history of the railway, Mr. Chang considers the three questions arising from the cancellation of the contract,—financial, legal, and diplomatic. He asserts that the Chinese Government is quite able and willing to raise the necessary funds for the completion of the road, and that the American company will lose nothing in the end. As to the legal aspects of the question, Mr. Chang

insists that, since the American company has "violated the provisions of the contract it made with the Chinese Government, the latter has a perfect right to annul the agreement." The diplomatic question is the most difficult one, he believes. On this point, he says, it is necessary to consider the "hinge" of the problem so vital to the national life of China.

This hinge lies in the fact that, first, the Canton-Hankow Railway contract is a contract made between a government and a foreign corporation,—not between two governments; and, second, as railway is of a domestic nature, no foreign power has the right to interfere in the domestic affairs of a sovereign nation. Of course, it is the duty of the American Government to protect the interest of its citizens who have transactions with a foreign government whenever they suffer any loss due to no fault of their own. But as the cancellation of the said contract is caused by the illegal actions of the company itself, it can make no complaint. Besides, the Chinese Government does not intend to annul the contract without providing adequate compensations for the actual work done and the actual funds advanced by the company. It is, therefore, too clear to point out that the United States Government has no right to compel China, a sovereign nation, to continue a contract which was made between the Chinese Government and a body of American citizens, and which was already broken by the latter party. It is perfectly right for the United States Government to express its opinions against the cancellation of the said contract by sending notifications to the Chinese Government, but the latter has no obligation to observe such notifications, for they cannot be considered as formal diplomatic representations according to the principles of international law.

In concluding this article, which we have quoted to show the logic of the Chinese point of view, Mr. Chang has a few words to say about the general attitude of his countrymen toward the railway problem.

The public opinion in China now is not against the construction of railways and the opening up of resources, as one who has not realized the remarkable changes in our country within recent years might suppose; but it is strongly against the control of railway affairs in the hands of foreigners. The people have good reasons to fear dangerous results from foreign invasion in railway business. The Eastern Chinese Railway in Manchuria, which was built by the Russians and has been entirely under the Russian control, is a sufficient warning to the Chinese people that the control of railway by foreigners naturally invites a foreign invasion. Another warning just recently presenting itself to the attention of the public is the completion of the German railway in Shantung, which is now threatening the whole province. Our countrymen have now fully realized that railway in foreign hands is a menace. Should the Canton-Hankow Railway be controlled by a great foreign power, the whole of southern China might be threatened. Such a trunk line can only be safely controlled by the government or the people themselves.

A GREAT DUTCH SCIENTIST ON BURBANK AND HIS WORK.

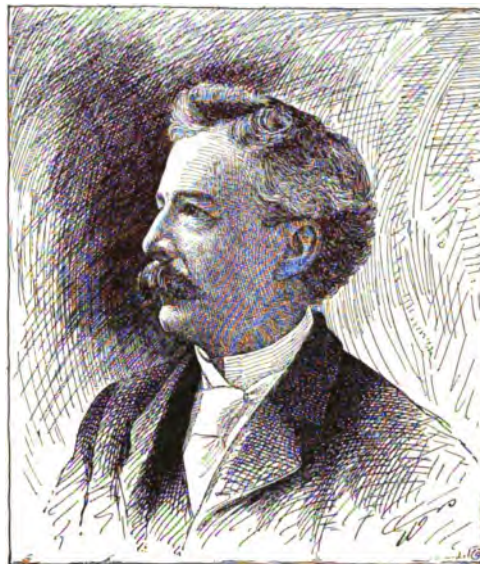
LUTHER BURBANK, of California, has won world-wide fame as a successful cross-breeder of plants. Perhaps it is not generally known how fully this modest American gardener has gained the esteem and respect of the most eminent botanists at home and abroad. Some indication of this is afforded by a paper which was written last year in California by the great Dutch naturalist, Prof. Hugo de Vries, was published in the magazine *de Gids*, and forms a part of a book which recently appeared in Amsterdam, where its author holds a university chair. This account of the scientist's visit to Mr. Burbank's home and experimental farm at Santa Rosa has been translated from the Dutch by Dr. Pehr Olsson-Seffer, of Stanford University, and appears in the August number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. As the editor of this periodical remarks, in an introductory note :

It is of considerable interest to note the impressions de Vries, the scientific botanical experimenter, received during his first visit to Luther Burbank, the foremost practical plant-breeder in the world, whose remarkable achievements have created world-wide admiration, and to whom the Carnegie Institution recently granted an annual appropriation to insure the undisturbed continuation of his work for the next ten years.

BURBANK'S PITLESS PLUMS.

Professor de Vries ascribes to Burbank "a great genius and an almost incredible capacity for work, together with a complete devotion to the purpose in view." Not only is it assumed that no possible improvements are beyond his reach, but even the impossible is expected from him. The pitless plum had been pronounced by such an expert as Professor Bailey, of Cornell, an impossibility. Other botanists had shared this view. Professor de Vries describes his own sensations on making the acquaintance of this horticultural wonder :

Next day Burbank took us to a plum tree heavily loaded with clear blue, very attractive, yet small plums. He picked a few and asked us to bite right through the middle of the fruit. We did as requested, and although we knew there was no stone in the plum, we experienced a feeling of wonder and astonishment. Inside the plum was a seed, like an almond in its shell, and with the taste of an almond, but without the stony covering. When cutting through the fruit, we found the seed surrounded by the green fruit-flesh, the innermost part of which was a jelly-like mass, in which could yet be seen some remnants of hard little stones, that scarcely offered any resistance to the knife. Burbank declared, however, that he was not at all satisfied with the result, and said that he had already young trees with fruits in which nothing could be detected of the stone.



MR. LUTHER BURBANK.

It turned out, however, that this stoneless plum was not really a new product at all, but merely the result of the crossing of an old French variety with Burbank's American species.

PLANT-BREEDING ON A VAST SCALE.

What especially impressed this observer of Burbank's work as its distinctive feature was the scale on which the selecting is done. By such means Burbank is able to make greater improvements than others and in much shorter time. He is guided, says Professor de Vries, "by a special gift of judgment, in which he excels all his contemporaries."

His methods of work are the same as those followed by plant-breeders in Europe. Secrets he has none, and if he is not willing to demonstrate his cultures to everybody, this must be attributed to the fact that his time is too valuable. There is no fear that any one could "steal his trade" by merely looking at it. Every one is left free to follow in his path, but without the special disposition for it nobody will succeed, and for simple imitation the entire process is too complicated.

To give an idea of the immensity of his cultures, it is sufficient to cite one instance. When selecting a new kind of blackberry he picked out the best from sixty thousand specimens, all in full bearing, dug up the rest and burned them. This is his way of working, not only with one kind of fruit or flower, but with all. The most remarkable trait, however, of his work is that he experiments with as many forms as possible. This method is carried to the highest degree of perfection, and thereby his results are so stupendous that they receive the admiration of the whole world.

The magnitude of Burbank's work excels anything

that was ever done before, even by large firms, in the course of generations. The number of fruits and flowers which he has improved is unequalled. Others confine themselves to one or two genera; he takes hold of everything. The majority of breeders who became famous by their improvements of certain groups took up this work merely as an adjunct, as a means of widening

their commercial relations, thus creating a greater demand for their nursery products. Burbank commenced in the same way, but as soon as he had obtained what he thought he required the nursery business was abandoned, and he devoted himself exclusively to the improvement of flowers and fruit. It is to this resolution he owes his present fame.

THE "MUTATION" THEORY FORMULATED BY DE VRIES.

FEW chapters in the history of modern science are more interesting or inspiring than that which records the laborious studies of Professor de Vries on which is chiefly based the so-called "mutation" theory of descent. An account of this work of de Vries is given by Daniel T. MacDougal in the August number of the *Open Court* (Chicago).

The naturalist's painstaking methods of research are described in the following paragraphs:

Twenty years ago Professor de Vries began bringing under observation successive generations of several species of plants in order to determine whether all of the thousands of individuals included in the progeny of one parent-plant would inherit all of the parental characters. Over a hundred species were examined in this way. Finally, one was found which showed seed-sports among its progeny,—individuals which in some types lacked some of the parental qualities and hence constituted retrogressive forms, and others which bore characters not manifested by the parent. In this momen-

tous discovery he had happened upon one species which was in its mutative period, which might occur in the history of a species once in a century, or once in a thousand centuries, and which might extend over one season or over a hundred. With this clue he set to work to ascertain the principles governing such forms of inheritance.

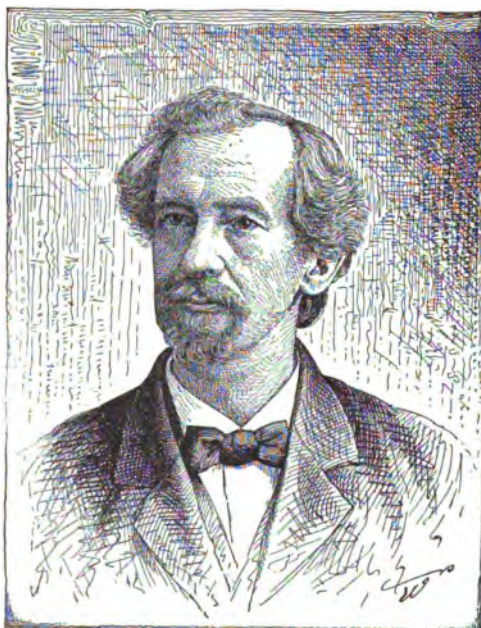
THE NATURALIST HIS OWN GARDENER.

Greenhouses and experimental grounds were prepared and cultures tended for two decades with the most painstaking and microscopic care. Every precaution was taken to exclude the interference of the wind, insects, birds, and other agencies in pollination and fertilization. Exact pedigree-cultures were carried through two decades with a degree of care not hitherto used in any culture of plants. It is impossible to set forth the enormous amount of detail to be kept in mind and organized in such experimental observations. It may only be cited as an illustration that in some seasons the packets of seeds, each representing a separate experiment and requiring separate notes, reached into the thousands. Furthermore, the striking character of the results to be tested made it necessary that the experimenter himself should perform the commonest operations of gardening,—in the way of weeding, watering, etc.,—in order that a line of descent might be traced through an unbroken series of years without a trace of doubt as to the purity of its lineage. The splendid results derived from a collation of these observations well justify the work spent in obtaining them, constituting as they do the most important contribution to organic evolution since the appearance of Darwin's "Origin of Species."

THE CAREER OF AN INVESTIGATOR.

It seems eminently fitting that results of this character should be obtained by Professor de Vries when his experience and attitude toward research are taken into consideration. As a young man he had come into contact with Sachs, Hofmeister, and Bunsen, and developed an enthusiasm that has never failed through the tedious ordeal of two decades of patient, arduous plodding. During the course of his studies he has been a student, lecturer, and professor in universities in both Germany and Holland, and he came to his self-appointed task with a broad knowledge of physiological science obtained at first hand, and with the mental strength and support that came from contact with the leaders in biological thought in his earlier days, and with the technical skill that is to be gained by experience in many laboratories.

A keen insight into the problems awaiting solution, a clear conception of the methods applicable, a trained



PROFESSOR HUGO DE VRIES.

Imagination to bring into review all of the possibilities, then the steady, strong, unrelenting attack, these are the qualities that mark the investigator of the first rank, and which insure progress in thought and advancement of human knowledge.

Nor is the mutation theory the first expression of de Vries' speculative insight into the nature of organized matter. The idea of ultimate units of structure bearing the indivisible qualities of the body of which it formed a part formed an important theoretical basis for his work, and the present conception of the ions of the physical chemist may be traced to a development of this conception originated by de Vries. This generalization, which is essentially of a physiological character, even when applied to inorganic substances, gave the

basis for the researches upon descent which have been carried out with such notable results.

Beyond the value of the principles established by Professor de Vries, he has rendered a notable service to biological science by demonstrating anew that the principal problem in descent, the origin of new types, is capable of investigation by actual observation, and by methods so simple that they may be followed by naturalists with only elementary training. To rescue the subject of organic evolution from the wearisome tangle of polemics and bring it again before the student and worker as a proper matter for experimental inquiry, is in itself a triumph, and constitutes a service to biological science not surpassed in importance by the actual discoveries already made.

OCEAN BATHING.

SALT-WATER bathing is a subject of importance to thousands of Americans, and its treatment by Dr. Philip Marvel in a recent number of the *Pennsylvania Medical Journal* is worthy of serious attention. Sea water, being composed of minerals such as chloride of sodium, magnesium, bromine, and iodine, he claims, is truly a mineral water, and an ocean bath, therefore, may be properly classified as a mineral bath. The author shows that the first effect of an ocean bath is invigorating, and the second, due to prolonged exposure, depressing. He says that in the latter case he has noticed the temperature lowered from one to two degrees, and the pulse rate lessened from fifteen to twenty beats. In estimating the benefit to be derived from ocean bathing, many influences must be taken into account, such as, for instance, those relative to the sea,—namely, the forcible activity or movement of the water, the physical conditions of the strand, the distance and convenience of the dressing-rooms, etc.,—and those relating to the individual,—namely, the resisting power of the body, the time of the bath, length of time of exposure, the temperament, and the presence or absence of debility.

When a perfectly healthy individual plunges into sea water at a temperature of from 65 to 70 degrees, the stimulus to the peripheral sensory-nervous system is such that it quickly contracts the adjacent capillaries and sends the blood speeding to the larger vessels and internal organs. The systemic vigor and reserve forces return it again to the surface of the body accompanied by the resiliency and invigoration which emphasize the pleasurable sensations so gratifying to the bather. If, after dressing from such a bath, a genial glow suffuses itself over the sensitive surface of the body and is succeeded by a pleasing warmth internally, accompanied

by a refreshed and invigorated feeling, it is evidence and proof of the salutary influences; but if, instead, there follow a chilliness, languor, headache, irresistible depression and disposition to drowsiness, or any of these, it should be reckoned as important evidence that the bath has not contributed in any material way to the advantage or improvement of the person's health, and that, if persisted in under similar or like conditions, the result will in time prove injurious.

Dr. Marvel contends that sea or ocean bathing, as practised at Atlantic seacoast resorts, is responsible for greater harm than good. "Few people," says he, "seem to attach much importance to the danger of either the prolonged exposure in water or to the prolonged exposure in their wet garments in the cool atmosphere on the sand. . . . Many of us have stood on the strand and observed not a few, but many, young, middle-aged, and old alike, returning from the surf, or from a prolonged exposure in their wet clothing on the sand, to their dressing-rooms, slightly, and even markedly, cyanosed, with pale and shriveled cutaneous surfaces, capillaries contracted, cutaneous functions temporarily paralyzed, internal organs and deeper vascular system greatly engorged, and in some instances seriously disturbed, shivering and chattering as they pass, giving little thought to the threatening dangers incidental to the impaired forces and debility occasioned by the exposure.

"Each physician should counsel those over whom he has advisory charge of the dangers incident to a prolonged exposure in the ocean, or on the sand in wet clothing, and also to the too frequent daily indulgence of either. It is his duty to impress on them the advantages of a short exposure to immersion, say ten, fifteen, or twenty minutes, and never exceeding thirty minutes; the necessity of prompt and positive

reaction after the bath ; the maintaining of a good physical condition, and giving to them, according to their particular need, such specific instruction as will best avert harmful or serious disturbances.

"The practice of promenading on the beach in the scant and poorly protecting garments so

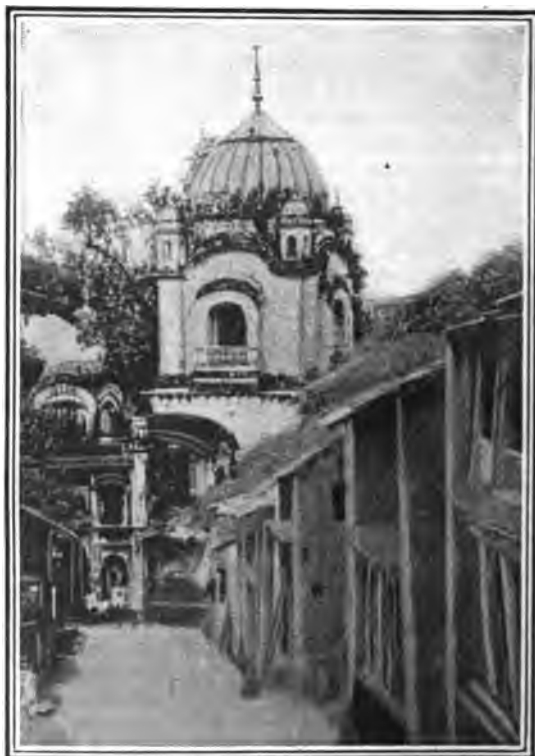
fashionable of recent years after an immersion of from, say, three-quarters of an hour to an hour in the surf, is unmistakably harmful, and equally inexcusable, and should have the denunciation of every physician, as well as of others engaged in the upbuilding and maintenance of good health."

THE TERRIBLE WORK OF THE RECENT EARTHQUAKE IN INDIA.

DETAILED accounts of the destruction and suffering caused by the great earthquake shocks which visited the Kangra Valley, in India, early last April, are just reaching the Western world. The *Empress*, an illustrated monthly published in English in Calcutta, contains a series of studies of the earthquake and its effects, with a recital of some thrilling personal experiences and reproductions of actual photographs. We show two of the latter in connection with this article, the first photographic scenes of the earthquake's work to be reproduced in this country. Mr. D. W. MacBean, the manager of very large tea estates near Palampour, gives his impressions and experiences as follows :

On the morning of the 4th April, at about 6 A.M., we were disturbed in our sleep by a slight earthquake, quickly followed by a severe one, and lastly by the worst shock of all, which appeared to come from the northeast and having a sudden circular action traveling toward the west. The first one I took no notice of, thinking it was one of the many slight shocks off and on experienced up here. When the second shock came, I sat up in bed and called out to my wife to come to the window. I had hardly done so when I saw the highest wall of our bedroom fall in like a torrent on my poor sleeping child ; then all became dark with fearful dust from the falling walls. I felt suffocated, and pushed my hand through the panes of glass in the window into which I had crept ; had I not done so I should have been killed by the wall that fell in on the head of my bed. I shall never forget those few moments that appeared like years,—the noise of the falling masonry, smashing of beams, planks, and slates. I had fully made up my mind that we should all perish. When the shock was over I opened the window and dropped into the lower veranda, rushed out, and cried out for help. No one could be seen,—all had fled to the villages to help their friends and relations. A fearful sight presented itself to my eyes. All our houses (with the exception of the *malik's* hut) were leveled to the ground, including a magnificent factory built of cut stone which my poor old father had lately built. All was still as death save for the wailing of a man who afterward turned out to be my head clerk. After a few minutes had elapsed I succeeded in getting a few of my household servants together and dug with bare fingers among limestone

and plaster for my only child. We had to make a coffin out of planks taken from the *débris*, bury her without ceremony in a quiet sequestered spot on the tea estate. To look around the valley, nothing but desolation meets the eye. The once pretty little villages, with their bluish-white walls and slated roofs, mixed here and there with thatched buildings, all leveled to the ground. We have been ruined ; lost tens of thousands of rupees. As for our loss in machinery, it is unknown, being all buried beneath the ruins. And this is not all. We are afraid we shall lose thousands yet, owing to our terror-stricken workmen and coolies, who believe that this picturesque valley is to be totally destroyed. They have made little thatch sheds for their families and cattle, and pass the



THE BHOWAN TEMPLE, KANGRA, INDIA, BEFORE THE EARTHQUAKE.



THE RUINS OF THE BHOWAN TEMPLE, BENEATH WHICH AND THE ADJOINING BUILDINGS ABOUT TWO THOUSAND PILGRIMS AND OTHERS WERE BURIED.

day in sorrow and fear, refusing to return to work or even work at their own fields. A great many families have been wiped out.

The Bhowan Temple, of which we give illustrations taken before and after the earthquake, was one of the oldest temples in the world, and was visited by thousands of pilgrims annually.

On the night of the 3d April, about two thousand pilgrims arrived in the small town of Bhowan, which

is about three miles from Kangra town, to worship at the temple. On the morning of the 4th, at 6 o'clock, a rumbling noise was heard, and before the people could realize what it was, they felt the terrible shock, and within four seconds the whole town was destroyed. The shock lasted three minutes, but all the damage was done in the first few seconds. About two thousand people were buried beneath the ruins of the temple, and under the adjacent buildings. The Guru, or High Priest of the Temple, was dug out of the ruins and buried near the site of the Toshakhana, adjoining the temple.

AN INTERPRETATION OF HARNACK.

"HISTORIC Christianity" is the subject of an elaborate article in the current number of the *Edinburgh Review* which is characterized in the *London Review of Reviews* as a "whole-souled declaration of faith in the Gospel according to Dr. Harnack."

Concerning Dr. Harnack himself the reviewer says:

In "Das Wesen des Christentums," Harnack defines

his attitude to the central question. He conceives religion as a fact of spiritual experience,—a relation between God and the soul, realized in various forms and in greater or less measure, but in itself unchangeably the same. The book is one of the most memorable of our generation; it cleared the air.

More, perhaps, than any one man, Professor Harnack represents the reaction against the inadequate hypotheses and premature conclusions that were current half a century ago. The nature of this reaction has been misunderstood. The later criticism is in two

respects, and two only, a reaction against the former,—it has disposed once for all of the Voltairean legend that Christianity was the invention of a fraudulent priesthood; and it has assigned an earlier date to the canonical books of the New Testament, and generally to ecclesiastical dogma and institutions.

HIS GOSPEL,—NOT INSTITUTIONS, BUT IDEAS.

The great service which Dr. Harnack has rendered to religion has been to disassociate religion from the alien and heterogeneous subject-matter with which it had been encumbered, and to show that the eternal substance of Christianity is independent of its varying and historical setting.

Those who look at religion from without, from the standpoint of institutions and formulas, may despair of the future; for, whether these institutions and formulas survive or perish, the future is not theirs. There are more important questions than whether a man belongs to this or that church, or holds this or that theological opinion; the kingdom of God does not consist in these things. But while women are loved, and men achieve, and children link heart to heart as they pass the lamp of life with increase from generation to generation, its interests are secure. To idealize is the one thing needful; what we idealize is of less consequence, for in the idea all things are one.

THE TRANSFORMATIONS OF THE GOSPEL.

Dr. Harnack points out that the Gospel, by which is meant the personal teaching of Christ, has passed through four great transformations:

(a) From its original shape into Catholicism; (b) from Catholicism into the compact structure of Medievalism; (c) from this in the sixteenth century into Protestantism; and, finally (d), in our own time into a larger and more spiritual atmosphere, a standpoint rather than a creed, representing the temper of Christ in many respects more nearly than did the ecclesiasticism of the intermediate periods. The second and third of these transformations are the more important for



DR. ADOLF HARNACK.

political history; the first and fourth, incomparably the more vital for religion and thought. Admit the conception of Christianity which embodies the Christian idea, as such, in an external form, whether that form be an institution or a book, a priesthood or a dogma, and you have the medieval Papacy; the logical process of construction is inevitable. Question the medieval Papacy, and the process of dissolution is equally inevitable. The conception of an embodied Christianity falls to pieces; you are thrown back on a radically different conception of Christianity, in which it appears not as letter but as spirit, not as institution but as idea.

The whole article is a masterly presentation of this modern conception of religion.

A JEW ON THE ORIGINALITY OF JESUS.

IMPRESSIONS of Christianity from the Points of View of the non-Christian Religions" is the title of a series of papers in the *Hibbert Journal* (London), the first of which is contributed by a Jew, Mr. C. G. Montefiore. This writer considers how the ethical and religious teaching of Jesus, as recorded in the three synoptic Gospels, appeals to the Jewish consciousness. After showing much that was common to the Synoptics and to the rabbis, he remarks on the "first classness" of the Synoptics, their lofty fervor, their great paradoxes. In stress

on the inward as above the outward, Jesus under the law followed Amos before the law.

This writer grants that "tit for tat" occupies a larger place in Jewish ethics and religion than the facts of life justify. The Synoptics traverse that doctrine. The principle "Much is forgiven her, for she loved much," and the principle "Whosoever shall not receive the kingdom of God as a little child," may be considered as novel creations of the Gospel. Poetic justice, the ideal of the rabbis, is shown by the Gospels to be neither the highest justice of earth or

heaven. The passionate glorification in the Gospels of renunciation and adversity goes beyond the rabbinic standpoint, and lowly active service for the benefit of the humblest is distinctive of the Synoptics.

A NEW PURPOSE OF REDEMPTION.

Speaking of the purpose of service, the calling of sinners, the seeking and saving of the lost, this writer says :

Here, once more, we seem to be cognizant of fresh and original teaching, which has produced fruit to be ever reckoned among the distinctive glories of Christianity. It has two aspects,—first, the yearning and eager activity to save and to redeem ; secondly, the special attitude of the Master toward sinners and toward sin. The rabbis and the rabbinic religion are keen on repentance, which in their eyes is second only to the law ; but we do not, I think, find the same passionate eagerness to *cause* repentance, to save the lost, to redeem the sinner. The refusal to allow that any human soul is not capable of emancipation from the bondage of sin, the labor of pity and love among the outcast and the fallen, go back to the synoptic Gospels and their hero. They were hardly known before His time. And the redemptive method which He inaugurated was new likewise. It was the method of pity and love.

REBUKE OF PHARISAISM.

There is no paltering with sin ; it is not made less odious ; but instead of mere threats and condemnations, the chance is given for hope, admiration, and love to work their wonders within the sinner's soul. The sinner is afforded the opportunity for doing good instead of evil, and his kindly services are encouraged and praised. Jesus seems to have had a special insight into the nature of certain kinds of sin, and into the redeemable capacity of certain kinds of sinners. He perceived that there was a certain untainted humility of soul which some sins in some sinners had not yet destroyed, just as he also believed and realized that there was a certain cold, formal, negative virtue which was practically equivalent to sin, and far less capable of reformation. Overzealous scrupulosity, and the pride which, dwelling with smug satisfaction upon its own excellence, draws away the skirt from any contact with impurity, were specially repugnant to him. Whether with *this* sin and with its sinners he showed adequate patience may perhaps be doubted ; but it does seem to me that his denunciation of formalism and pride, his contrasted pictures of the lowly publican and the scrupulous Pharisee, were new and permanent contributions to morality and religion. As the Jewish reader meets them in the synoptic Gospels, he recognizes this new contribution ; and if he is adequately open-minded, he does it homage and is grateful.

UNCLE SAM'S PRINTING BUSINESS.

PROBABLY few people are aware that in the year 1904 the United States Government expended for printing more than seven millions of dollars. Whether this large expenditure be ascribed to the amount and variety of printing matter now used by the Government in the conduct of its business or to waste and extravagance in management, it is a matter of interest to every citizen to know something of the methods employed by the Government in this branch of the service. The most exhaustive study of this subject that has recently appeared is a paper on "The Problem of Federal Printing," by William S. Rossiter, the expert special agent for printing and publishing the twelfth census, which is published in the September number of the *Atlantic Monthly*.

It will be remembered that near the close of the last session of Congress a joint committee was appointed to investigate the whole subject of official printing. This committee, it is expected, will make its report at the next session of Congress, and at that time many of the features of the problem set forth by Mr. Rossiter will be fully discussed. We have space at this time for only the briefest mention of a few of his points.

THE GREATEST PRINT-SHOP IN THE WORLD.

Although private capital has not yet combined in this country to produce a printing plant worthy of comparison with other industrial plants, it has remained for the Government itself to equip and operate a printing office which, in capital invested, extent of plant, variety and value of product, and number of men employed, compares favorably, as Mr. Rossiter says, with the establishments in other industries, and far surpasses any other printing office in the world. In fact, the Government Printing Office has a capacity that is equal to any emergency that has yet arisen in the government service. Entire books have been produced in a single night, and Mr. Rossiter declares that for any required government work it is necessary to specify only the requirement and the time available, and the work is done.

Mr. Rossiter estimates the value of the present printing-office building and contents at \$10,000,000. The principal building, completed two years ago at a cost of \$2,500,000, is 408 feet long, 175 feet wide, and 7 stories high. It is equipped with 15 elevators, a refrigerator plant, a filtration plant, eight 300-horse-power

boilers, and three engines. The entire plant contains nearly sixteen acres of floor space. The equipment includes 300 tons of pipe, 60 typesetting machines, 150 printing-presses of all sizes, 600 individual electric motors, and a large amount of ruling, folding, and binding machinery of all kinds. The electrotype foundry connected with the establishment is capable of turning out 2,000 electrotypes daily. It is said to have no equal in size in the world. The number of persons employed in the Government Printing Office varies from 4,000 to 4,500, the compositors alone numbering about 1,200. The fortnightly disbursements for wages amount to nearly \$100,000.

ENORMOUS INCREASE IN THE COST OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING.

As to the cost of federal printing, Mr. Rossiter estimates that if the present rate of increase in output for printing continues during the current decade the total for the ten years from 1900 to 1909, inclusive, will exceed \$60,000,000, a greater sum than was expended for all federal printing from 1790 to 1880. He shows from statistics that the *per capita* cost of federal printing has increased steadily during the century. Mr. Rossiter gives a table showing the cost of documents, classified by topics, in the years 1870, 1880, 1890, and 1900. The increase is striking. Thus, in 1870 the printing of scientific and descriptive works for the Government cost the sum of \$5,514, and in 1900 this item amounted to \$362,633. Statistical documents in 1870 cost \$3,134, and in 1890, \$78,661. Industrial documents showed an increase in cost of from \$401 to \$72,077. The increase in the cost of Senate and House documents is from \$159,088 to \$976,689.

It appears that the cost of public printing and binding has long been higher than the charge for similar commercial work. Mr. Rossiter declares that if the plant of the government office, which does a business of \$7,000,000 a year, should be suddenly transformed into a private commercial establishment, the owners would discover that the charges for production,—although they do not include the usual and important items of rent, interest, and profit,—are, nevertheless, from one and one-half to ten times as high as the prices charged for similar work by printers who include the omitted items. This difference is mainly in the cost of presswork, ruling, and the folding and binding of books and pamphlets.

PAY OF EMPLOYEES.

Attention is called to the fact that the salary of the Public Printer is only \$4,500, and that of

his chief clerk \$2,750 a year. It is stated that there cannot be found in the United States a manufacturing plant employing one-tenth of the number of persons employed in the Government Printing Office in which the two highest officials are paid as little as the Government pays the Public Printer and his chief clerk. Compositors and binders receive much higher wages than the average paid in commercial printing offices. The other wages paid by the Government average about the same as those paid by the commercial establishments, but the additional expense of annual leave and liberality in the number of workers results in a higher rate of pay if considered from the employer's standpoint. At the present time there is no piecework composition in the Government Printing Office. Every compositor is paid fifty cents per hour for an eight-hour day. It is not intended in this article to suggest that the compensation of employees is too high. It is admitted that exceptionally high wages must necessarily result in higher cost of production, but it is reasonable to expect that these advances should be made out of the margin which the commercial printer allows for rent, interest, and profit.

HOW TO STOP THE LEAKAGE.

In conclusion, Mr. Rossiter sums up the waste in federal printing as comprised in two different classes,—that occurring from various causes in the conduct of the printing plant itself, and that resulting from the publishing of pamphlets and volumes either really not needed at all or, if needed, issued too extensively or in too large numbers. Of these two classes of waste, that existing in the plant is purely a business matter, and could be remedied to some extent by following more closely the best commercial methods. That occurring in connection with the character and amount of product, in Mr. Rossiter's opinion, could probably be met permanently only by some form of supervision dealing especially with the three questions which are to be considered,—the question of publishing at all, the question of economic and mechanical presentation, and the question of restricting the size of the edition so as not to exceed the number of copies required by a wise distribution. In government work, distribution is limited solely by the number of copies Congress or government officials are willing to issue. The object of most federal publications could be attained at a very small part of the present cost, Mr. Rossiter believes, if they were sent free only to libraries and public institutions, and certain important newspapers which agree to review them, and sold for a nominal sum to all others.

NORWAY IN REVIVAL.

THE national life of Norway seems to be asserting itself very vigorously at present. Its resolve to part company with Sweden is only one sign of the new movement. In the *London Quarterly Review*, Mr. John Beveridge records a great religious awakening. He entitles his article "A Rift in Norwegian Lutheranism." The influences from which it emanates have spread over the successive quarters of the nineteenth century. In the first quarter, Hauge, a self-taught peasant, held great revival meetings, which roused and purified the religious life of the peasantry. In the second quarter, Bishop Grundtvig did for the clergy and the upper classes what Hauge had done for the lower. Professor Johnson, in the third quarter, revived the Lutheranism of the seventeenth century. He was a great theologian and a fervid evangelist. The last quarter is noted for the liberalizing of Norwegian religion under Professor Petersen. At the present time the battle between the old rigidity and the new freedom rages around Johannes Ording, who might be placed among the neo-Kantians and Ritschlians, and who is candidate for the chief theological chair in Norway.

BREAKING WITH THE OLD THEOLOGY.

There is said to be in Norway a growing dissatisfaction with the stereotyped old Lutheran theology. There is also a breaking away from the German influence, which has been dominant in Norway ever since the Reformation. The influence of the English-speaking world is increasingly evident. The writer says :

Only within the last half-century have any of the Free churches obtained a footing in the land. Now, however, the Free Lutherans (Presbyterians), Methodists (Episcopal), Baptists, and Congregationalists are all doing splendid evangelistic work. Many local revivals of religion have taken place as the result of their operations; and the emissaries and agents of the Norwegian Home Mission, copying Free Church methods and zeal, have likewise done much for the deepening of religious life and the spread of the Gospel. The converts in these revivals have turned for their devotional reading to this country, and the books of Spurgeon and Meyer, Prof. Henry Drummond and Prof. James Stalker, Dr. G. Matheson, Dr. J. R. MacDuff, and many others have had a great effect in deepening the dissatisfaction with Lutheran theology. The people have come to see that for regeneration penitence and faith are required; and if conversion is needed for salvation, then it is not sufficient to rely on baptismal grace.

A NEW TOLERATION.

The theological controversies, in which the whole press of the country has participated, have led people back to the Bible, and a revival of religion is now taking place almost unparalleled in the experience even of the oldest preachers in the country. The revival is associated with the name of Albert Lunde, a Lutheran Baptist layman. For months the largest hall in Christiania, with a sitting accommodation of five thousand, has been crowded nightly. Multitudes have been converted. The evangelical ministers of the city and the secretary of state for the Church have attended the gatherings and taken part in them. The bishop has given permission for the lay evangelist, Anabaptist though he is, to preach in the parish pulpits, and for revival services to be held in the churches. At these Methodist lay preachers and others are allowed to take part,—a toleration never known before, and in strange contrast to the persecution of Hauge exactly a hundred years ago. And from all parts of the country come reports of similar awakening.

TUNNEL-SICKNESS.

THE meeting of the Simplon tunnel borings late in February, the tunnel's inauguration early in April, and its near opening to travel have heightened the world's interest now for seven years centered upon that colossal undertaking. The difficulty of the problem of safeguarding its employees' health, owing to the tunnel's length of twelve and one-quarter miles and its depth below the surface (there being at one point a mile and one-quarter of earth overhead) occasioned the contribution to a recent number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by the French scientific writer A. Dastre, of an article summing up the latest results of investigations into the conditions affecting health in railroad tunnels—made by the English and Italian governments.

Tunnel builders and guards, railroad employees, etc., spending some length of time, repeatedly, in railroad tunnels beyond a certain limit are subject, it is found, to what may be called tunnel-sickness. They are frequently attacked by vertigo, lose consciousness, and show the first symptoms of asphyxiation. They are troubled with headache, nausea, muscular fatigue, physical inability to do their work, and impairment of the use of the legs. Mentally, the memory weakens, the ideas tend to become confused, the mind grows sluggish, with a propensity to errors of judgment and direction, and there is a deadening of the senses, particularly of hearing. Men whose employment keeps them from four to eight hours a day in a rail-

road tunnel frequently incur a sort of chronic poisoning, shown by habitual headache, loss of appetite and flesh, weakness, paleness, and an anæmic condition. Often, after a few months, or at most a year or two, they have to be replaced. If a locomotive drawing a heavy freight train, say, should "pin-wheel" long enough on an up-grade in a tunnel without being able to advance, the result might be even fatal to some of the trainmen.

These troubles are caused, mainly, by the vitiation of the air produced by the gas and smoke emitted by the locomotives; and, contributorily, by the heat consequent upon the distance below the earth's surface. The Italian government commission of physiologists in 1899-1900 found, and proved by laboratory experiments on self-sacrificing human volunteers, that what especially vitiates the air is the small quantity of oxide of carbon contained in the locomotive smoke. This causes partial asphyxiation, robbing the blood of its ability to combine with oxygen; which is also the result of the barometric depression on mountain-climbers and balloonists. So that, curiously, it turns out that the trouble affecting these is really the same thing as tunnel-sickness.

The Italian commission found a *cure* for tunnel-sickness in compressed oxygen. "If there were," M. Dastre says, "at the mouth of shafts an air-compressor, we should no longer be liable

to see miners, taken alive from the adits after an explosion, succumb a few moments after being brought to the air." As a means of *prevention* the commission recommended that each train traversing a long tunnel be provided with several steel cylinders filled with compressed air and with compressed oxygen, two on the tender for the engineer and the fireman, and another for the brakeman, these three functionaries running the most risk on trains. By furnishing a current of air, these cylinders would make a respirable and fresh atmosphere around each man. The commission advised, also, that the compressed oxygen be injected into the fire-box, to quicken the combustion and to prevent the production of the oxide of carbon. Instead of this being done, the Italian railroad companies sank powerful ventilators into the tunnel, which work automatically and are not dependent upon the exercise of (not always reliable) human will. The constructors of the Simplon tunnel, utilizing previous experience and investigations, have so far managed the matter of health with unexampled success. The vitiation and heat of the air have been overcome by forcing through the second tunnel (parallel with the first at a distance of about fifty feet) a current of fresh air that was delivered to the workmen by means of a cross-shaft, having first been cooled by passing through a spray of cold water sent in by pipes.

THE EVOLUTION OF RELIGION IN FRANCE.

THE France of to-day, says M. Paul Sabatier in the course of an article which he contributes to the *Contemporary Review* for August, is profoundly different from the France of ten years ago. The Dreyfus case has happened. That was the test of the conscience of the new France. The characteristic trait of the new orientation of France is that "we have all become citizens." "We feel that we are members one of another with such intensity that it would require the language of mysticism or of poetry to express it." "We no longer imagine that to perceive is to attain; personal effort is necessary." M. Sabatier enlarges on the germinal work of the Union for Moral Action, its open discussions, which have brought men of all parties and schools together. Its members combine "the scientific brain and the religious soul."

The French clergy to-day are shaken to the depths by an unexpected rise of sap. They are seeking a solid scientific basis, of which Abbé Loisy is the portent. The anarchist Libertad is

welcomed by a meeting of Catholics to expound his theories. Of the French priests it is true that one single word expresses the whole of their ideas—the word Life. "Life is everything,—it is the end, it is the means." God creates to give life; Christ came to give more life. The Freethinkers indict modern society in the spirit of the ancient prophets and the fathers of the faith.

The ideas which Cardinal Newman sowed forty years ago have sprung up everywhere. By an imperceptible movement which has reached all the churches, religion appears less and less as a revealed metaphysic, more and more as a tie uniting man to man. The Freethinkers do not keep Easter, they do not go to confession; but many priests, neither the least intelligent nor the least virtuous, are asking themselves whether men who have taken the very root of the sayings of Jesus so seriously to heart can be called enemies of God and his Christ.

The present rupture with the Church is the result, not of the unbelief of France, but of the faith of France,—a renewed faith.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

Art Studies.—The *American Illustrated Magazine*, which this September drops the name of *Leslie's Monthly*, a title which it had honorably borne for thirty years, performs a distinct service in the line of art education by initiating in this number the publication of a series of papers by Charles H. Caffin entitled "The Story of American Painting." The purpose of this series is to represent the progress of art in America as one phase of the country's activity, and to show how inseparably connected that phase is with every other expression of national energy. This is a task that we believe has never before been attempted by any American magazine. The first paper is extremely interesting and informing. In the next article, Mr. Caffin will deal with the painters who, at the close of the Revolution, endeavored to express the national consciousness of the country.—In the *Arena* there is an appreciation, with illustrations, of the work of Mr. Frank F. Stone, the Californian sculptor, by the editor, Mr. B. O. Flower.—The ancient bronze chariot in the Metropolitan Museum of New York City is described in the September *Chautauquan* by Harold N. Fowler.—Two important architectural papers appear in the September *Century* by Christian Brinton, one describing the proposed changes in the Capitol at Washington, with illustrations from the plans of the consulting architects, Messrs. Carrère & Hastings, and a brief study of the new Madison Square Presbyterian Church, in New York City.—The same magazine publishes a rare portrait of Paul Jones, the little-known engraving by Moreau, comparing this portrait with the Houdon bust and the Peale painting.—Dr. Archibald Henderson writes in the *Arena* for September on "The Theater of Edmond Rostand," while Prof. Brander Matthews contributes to *Munsey's* a paper on "The Great National Theater of France."

Topics Suggested by the Far-Eastern War.—We have discovered only three contributed articles in the September numbers of the American monthlies which pertain in any direct way to the war between Russia and Japan. In *Scribner's*, Mr. Thomas F. Millard continues his examination of Japan's national strength and weakness, presenting in this number a somewhat gloomy picture of Japan's financial prospects.—In *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*, as that periodical is known since its transfer from Philadelphia to the New York publishing house, Mr. Louis E. Van Norman writes on "Poland in Russia's Hour of Trial." He asserts that the attitude of the Poles in the present war between Russia and Japan has been absolutely correct, and that the Poles have no greater dislike for the war than the Russians themselves have, although their industries are hurt more by it. He describes the recent riots in Warsaw, Łódz, and elsewhere as economic and industrial rather than political. Rus-

sia is to be warned, however, that these disturbances may at any moment become political. Poland, as the great working section of the Russian Empire, has been prostrated by the loss of productive labor, as well as by the stoppage of trade during the continuance of the war with Japan.—In *Munsey's* for September, Mr. R. H. Titherington describes the great peace conference in session during August at Portsmouth, N. H.

Notes of Travel and Exploration.—As a still further concession to the vacation spirit, the September *Outing* continues its series of out-of-door papers with a readable essay on "The Fallacies of 'Roughing It,'" by Robert Dunn. In the same magazine there is an entertaining illustrated sketch of life at the mouth of the Ohio River, by Clifton Johnson.—In the September *Harper's* appears the first part of Dr. Jean Charcot's account of his Antarctic explorations.—"The Great Sioux Festival," an annual institution now about to be transformed into a white man's holiday, is described in *Appleton's Booklovers* by Rex E. Beach.—"On Bright Angel Trail" is the title of an interesting description of Western scenery by William Allen White, in *McClure's Magazine*. Several striking illustrations in color, by Fernand Lundgren, accompany the article.—Mr. William Dean Howells writes, in *Harper's* for September, in his usual entertaining fashion of "Twenty-four Hours at Exeter." The same magazine publishes the second installment of Henry W. Nevins's account of West African plantation life as an introduction of his description of "The New Slave Trade."

Economic and Industrial Discussion.—The "literature of exposure," as it was recently characterized in the *Atlantic Monthly*, continues to figure prominently in the contents of the popular American monthlies. Miss Ida M. Tarbell, in *McClure's*, gives the first installment of her studies of "Kansas and the Standard Oil Company," relating in this issue "What the Standard Oil Company Did to Kansas," and promising for next month an account of what Kansas did to the Standard Oil Company. Another phase of the oil situation in Kansas is presented in *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine* for September by Mr. G. W. Ogden, under the impressive title "How Kansas Was 'Rolled.'" For the benefit of "tenderfeet" among his readers, Mr. Ogden explains that "when a Kansas stockman goes to Kansas City with a bunch of cattle and is definitely estranged from the money resulting from his transactions at the stock yards the people at home say he has been 'rolled.' This is an unenviable distinction in Kansas." Now Mr. Ogden makes the assertion that Kansas herself has been "rolled" by a gang of conspirators masquerading under the guise of independent oil refiners and fleecing the people.—In *Everybody's Magazine*, this month, Mr. Thomas W.

Lawson gives another installment of "Frenzied Finance," dealing particularly with Mr. James R. Keene, who is represented as stealing into the Standard Oil citadel and making off with one of the "System's" most intimate servitors.—In the same number of *Everybody's*, Mr. Charles Edward Russell adds a postscript to his article on "The Greatest Trust in the World," completed in August, in which he replies to the attempts made by certain newspapers to detract from the force of his revelations regarding the so-called "beef trust."—The subject of "tainted money" is a fertile one for the magazine writer as well as for the cartoonist. In the *Arena* for September the Rev. George F. Pentecost, D.D., discusses the question from the point of view of the Christian Church. Dr. Pentecost makes a vigorous protest against any partnership of the Church with dishonest business methods.—A leading article in the current number of the *Yale Review* is a discussion of "Business Ethics in the Universities." While the writer holds that the attempt to induce religious and denominational institutions to refuse to accept money described as "tainted" is fallacious, he admits that the universities as teachers, not only of ethics, but also of civics and economics, have a responsibility in regard to the abuse of power and disregard of the rights of others in business life. The writer advocates the careful examination by all endowed institutions of the business ethics of the various corporations in which they invest, whether as stockholders or as bondholders.—In the September *Atlantic*, President Henry S. Pritchett, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, writes on the question "Shall the University Become a Business Corporation?"—Under the title "Lords of Our Streets," Mr. Henry K. Webster, writing in the *American Illustrated Magazine* (*Leslie's*), sketches the careers of two opposing types of traction magnates, Thomas F. Ryan, and Thomas Lowry, of Minneapolis, the former of whom he characterizes as a man who cares nothing for New York, is not even a citizen of it, although his property interests are there, while the latter is described as a man with true "local sense,"—in short, a Minneapolis man.—In the *World's Work* for September, there are two railroad articles,—"The Story of the Sante Fé," by Rowland Thomas, and "As Many Railroad Methods as Railroad Kings," by Charles M. Keyes.—In the *Atlantic Monthly*, Prof. William Z. Ripley gives a series of papers on President Roosevelt's railroad policy, presenting in the first of these a statement of the elements of the problem.

Biographical Sketches.—Character studies of the following public men appear in the September magazines: "Elihu Root,—The Man of the Hour," by Walter Wellman, in *Success*; "The New Secretary of the Navy," by Day Allen Willey, in *Munsey's*; "Thomas F. Ryan,—Corporation Saver," in the *World's Work*; "George Westinghouse," by Robert Mayhew, in the *American Illustrated Magazine* (formerly *Leslie's*).—In *Everybody's* for September appears the first installment of the life-story of "Ella Rawls Reader, Financier," who is described as the greatest business woman in the world. Mrs. Reader began her career in New York ten years ago addressing envelopes in a newspaper office. Four years later she was at the head of the largest stenographic agency in the metropolis. She organized a ten-million-dollar railroad in Alabama, obtained great contracts in London and India, and managed several important undertakings in South America.

—The story of her life is written for *Everybody's* by Juliet Wilbor Tompkins.—A series of extremely interesting extracts from the journals of Benjamin Henry Latrobe, the first American architect, are appearing in successive issues of *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*.—In the letters and diaries of George Bancroft, edited by M. A. De Wolfe Howe for *Scribner's*, the experiences of the historian as a student at the German universities are graphically set forth.—Alfred Henry Lewis continues his "Story of Paul Jones" in the *Cosmopolitan* for September, while in *Outing* Lynn T. Sprague writes on "John Paul Jones, the Man—An Illustrious Example of the Ingratitude of Republics."—"Ole Bull as a Patriotic Force" is the subject of an interesting paper by Margaret E. Noble in the September *Century*.

Scientific Discoveries.—An illustrated article by Garrett P. Serviss in the September *Cosmopolitan* describes the remarkable laboratory experiments of Professor Loeb, of the University of California, in seeking a process for the artificial creation of life.—In the same magazine the eclipse of the sun set down for August 30, 1905, is described in advance of its actual occurrence by Edgar L. Larkin and W. B. Kaempffert.—The useful work of the plant bureau of the United States Department of Agriculture in applying the results of its scientific discoveries for the benefit of the American farmer is described in *Outing* by René Bache.—In *Harper's* for September, Mr. William J. Long restates his position on the vexed question of animal reason.—"Universal Life" is the subject of an interesting paper by Dr. C. W. Saleeby, in *Harper's*.—"Aërial Navigation" is discussed in the *Metropolitan* by Count Henri de la Vaulx.—Dr. Charles Conrad Abbott contributes one of his delightful essays on birds to the September *Arena*. The paper is chiefly a study of recent ornithological essays.—"Predicting the Weather" is the title of an instructive article by Willis L. Moore in *Munsey's* for September.

Social Betterment.—The *Arena* for September has articles on "Dependent Children and the State," by Rabbi Solomon Schindler; "Popular Education in Rural Districts the Supreme Need of the South," by Agnes V. Kelley, M.D.; and "Direct Popular Legislation: The Chief Objections Examined," by Judge Charles S. Loring.—In the *Chautauquan*, Mr. E. Routzahn presents a "Survey of the Civic Betterment and Civic Progress Programmes."—Martha Baker Dunn writes in the *Atlantic* on "Education."—"The Last War for the Cattle Range" is the subject of a stirring article by Arthur Chapman in *Outing*.—The Young Men's Christian Association in its varied social activities is described in *Munsey's* by Herbert N. Casson.

Foot-Notes to History.—In his series of articles on "The Tenth Decade of the United States," in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. William Garrott Brown treats of "Lincoln's Policy of Mercy."—In the *Metropolitan*, Mr. Thomas Dixon, Jr., author of "The Clansman," tells the story of that mysterious organization of "Reconstruction" times in the South, the Ku-Klux Klan. Mr. Dixon gives much interesting information about this weird order, many of whose officers are still alive.—The Viking ship found at Oseberg is described in the *Century* by S. C. Hammer and Haakon Nyhuus. The pictures accompanying their article give a clear idea of the appearance of this relic of a bygone epoch.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

A Proposed Crusade Against International Enmity.—A suggestive article regarding national animosities, which might be fruitful of much good, appears in the *Deutsche Revue*. The writer, M. von Brandt, remarks that the nineteenth century has justly been termed the era of congresses, and that the twentieth thus far follows close in its wake. As a rule, they are not assemblies of hoary statesmen, convened to settle the intricate questions of the intercourse of nations, but meetings of scientists and of the people,—physicians, temperance agitators, advocates of woman's rights, friends of peace, jurists, and so on; and on the whole, though hasty words, better left unsaid, escape at times, it may be said that these meetings have not only promoted the public interests, but have aroused the conscience of the people as well. We need only recall how essentially the problems of the care of children, sanatoria for pulmonary troubles, international arbitration, and the Red Cross have been advanced and interest in them awakened in the masses. The want of success of the friends of peace furnished undeniable evidence that the great mass is unprepared for their ideals; but practical results may follow from modified aims. There are a great number of societies, based upon varying degrees of Chauvinism, whose concern it is to appeal to the feeling of nationality as well as to the prejudices of the multitude. Now, the gist of the writer's article is that the "intellectuals" of all lands should be appealed to to form a union whose chief end should be to show a common front against the mutual animosity of the various nations, an animosity which the "yellow journals" make it their main business to exploit. How the Red Cross Society was scoffed at and ridiculed, and what glorious results has it in spite of that achieved! Would it not be possible to organize in another field a White Cross Society of kindred spirits against the inciters of war? In England, efforts have lately been made in a social way, with the coöperation of men of eminence, to counteract the mischief wrought by the English yellow press, at least so far as Germany is concerned. We must actively follow the good example and contribute our share also to the great work of having the nations attain to a better knowledge of one another, and thereby to more harmonious relations. "*Tout comprendre est tout pardonner*," says the Frenchman, and he is right; it is often ignorance more than anything else which alienates people and makes them enemies."

"Do Not Play with War-fire."—A "Diplomat," writing in the *Deutsche Revue*, administers a stinging rebuke to those who, either inconsiderately or, worse still, with malice aforethought, sow the seeds of mistrust and hatred in the people of one nation against another. He speaks of the far-reaching, untold havoc which may be wrought by evil instigators of this kind, found, not alone among "yellow" journalists, but among "business-like" literary men and diplomats. The love of excitement in the masses, and the economic struggle among the different nations, yield but too favorable and ever-increasing ground for the development of the evil seed. The writer enlarges specifically upon the attitude which a large number of the English organs of the press have for some years assumed toward Germany. Instead of seeking to adjust any differences existing between the two countries, they do their ut-

most to foment discord and urge the people to war, and it would be hard, if not impossible, to assign any rational ground for this attitude, not to speak of its inexcusableness. But the warning which is here addressed to England should be taken to heart in Germany also, he maintains. Ignorance and indiscretion have furnished, if not, indeed, a cause, at least, alas! a not unjustifiable pretext for English sensitiveness. May the circles which aroused this state of feeling on the other side of the Channel beware of committing further breaches of political tact and good manners, either against England or other powers. It is easy to inflict a wound, but hard for it to heal.

The Revolutionary Situation in Poland.—A writer who signs himself "Melanthius" analyzes in detail (in the *Revue Socialiste*) the revolutionary situation in Poland. He gives an outline of the aims and work accomplished by the various revolutionary organizations, and predicts the downfall of Russian rule. The day of petitions and commissions is past, he tells us. The Social Democratic Polish party, he believes, has a programme which will realize the democratic Polish state of the future.

One Lesson of the Battle of the Sea of Japan.—Commenting on Admiral Togo's victory from a technical naval standpoint, the *Militärisches Wochenblatt* (Berlin) declares that the increase in the size of modern battleships is the next problem confronting naval engineers. The Japanese triumph, says this military organ, has demonstrated beyond a doubt that long-range artillery is to be the deciding factor in modern naval battles, and that larger and heavier ships are, in reality, less exposed to mines and torpedoes than smaller units. The battle in the Tsushima Straits has shown that the heavy artillery of the 15 000-ton Japanese battleships was vastly more powerful than that of the 12,000 or 13,000 ton Russian ironclads. According to this critic, 16,000 tons will be the next standard for battleships, although some recent English constructions are still larger.

Russia and Japanese Finances.—A rather graphic report of the economic and financial situation and resources of Russia at present is published in the *Russ*, of St. Petersburg. In spite of a vast territory and great natural wealth, Russia's vast population often suffers hunger, and, the *Russ* admits, there is very insufficient cultural development. Ninety-eight per cent. of the population able to read and write (which in itself forms only 82 per cent. of the people) reside in Finland, the persecuted province. The consumption of bread throughout the empire is only one-half that in France and one-third that in the United States. Less than 5 per cent. of the total population live on industrial or mining pursuits, while in Germany more than 40 per cent. gain their livelihood in that way. The country suffers from chronic lack of capital, and the national finances are in very bad condition. The government spends on public education only 37,000,000 rubles a year (\$18,500,000), which means only 27 kopecks (18½ American cents) per head. At the same time, the people consume intoxicants (mostly *vodka*) at the rate of 4¼ gallons *per capita* per annum. Following this article in the *Russ* there appeared in the *Vyestnik Finansov* (Financial Messenger), the official organ of the ministry

of finance, an article predicting the early bankruptcy of Japan. The author expresses great sympathy for Japan's creditors, and declares that President Roosevelt's work for peace has been dictated by his anxiety to have the claims of Japan's American creditors settled as soon as possible. The article goes on to declare that a prolonged war would bring heavy losses to the United States, which deserves this punishment because of the unpleasant disposition that the American people have shown toward Russia. After a very careful study of all Japan's financial resources, the *Vyestnik Finansov* comes to the conclusion that the Japanese have a *per capita* annual income of thirty-one yen (approximately twenty dollars). Deducting all taxes and other general obligations, the average Japanese, according to this Russian authority, has an income of ninety-four American cents a month. No wonder, says this Russian journal, that the poor classes of Japan suffer from hunger. The conclusion of the *Vyestnik's* argument is that Russia can wait and win a victory through her resources alone. Some of the other Russian journals, however, undertake to argue with the *Vyestnik* and to show that the wealth in Japan is much more evenly divided than in Russia, and that, at any rate, if Russia cannot win by bayonets she is not likely to win by rubles.

The Uprisings of the Natives in German Southwest Africa.—A farmer, one of the German settlers, who has made his home in German Southwest Africa since 1898, discusses in a late number of the *Deutsche Monatschrift*, exhaustively and with much warmth, the real causes which led to the fierce uprising of the Herreros in 1904, entering also into the general conditions prevailing in the German possession. The savage revolt, which caused such awful havoc, and wherein the Herreros displayed such ferocious hatred against the whites, called forth in the colonial press and literature a flood of surmises as to where the blame for its occurrence ought to be fastened. Public functionaries, the reports of a few missionaries, the testimony of the government, agreed in attributing the blame chiefly to the whites, and of these, to the so-called speculators in land and to the farmers. In Germany, this occasioned astonishment, since no complaints had up to that time been made by the governor respecting the whites, and, as to the Herreros, he had pictured them for years as peaceful citizens. The writer arraigns Governor Leutwein in the most scathing terms, putting on his shoulders the entire responsibility for the troubled state of affairs. The policy which he has pursued has led the natives to abandon all respect for the whites. This writer considers German Southwest Africa a most valuable possession, where cattle-raising, agriculture, and horticulture could be most profitably pursued. He appeals to the home government to come to the aid of the stock farmers by stocking their land with cattle, as they have been impoverished by the ravages of the natives and are at present too poor to prosper without assistance. The country, rightly governed, would not only be profitable to the colonists, but would prove a source of income to Germany. Nowhere, he says, in the world are the political and economic conditions more difficult than in a colony where white immigrants have settled among strongly armed natives. If in such colonies the first settlers be not protected by a kindly disposed and energetic government, then the life of the white civilians is like a con-

tinual dance upon a powder-barrel. If the position of the farmers and traders resident among the Herreros had grown indescribably precarious and dangerous, it became still more so by the so-called policy of economy of the government, which resulted in diminishing the efficiency of the army of defense. In opposition to the earnest protests of numerous officers and officials, the design was formed to gradually diminish the troops and to supply losses of white soldiers by levying natives from all the various tribes. "We have been accused in the Reichstag of having tyrannized over the natives and enriched ourselves at their expense. . . . No, it was not our cruelty, our rapacity, which incited the natives, but our capacity for and love of work, and our increasing prosperity, which unchained their jealousy and cupidity when they saw us abandoned to them without protection."

Results of the Dutch Elections.—The recent national elections in Holland, which resulted in electoral majorities finally causing the overthrow of Dr. Kuyper's ministry, is the subject of considerable editorial comment in the German weekly *Hilfe* (Berlin). The result has considerably surprised even the greatest expectations of the Liberals, says the writer, who have won one of the greatest victories in their history. They now have 45 seats, while the Socialists, who cooperate with them, have 7,—52 in all, to oppose the 48 of the reactionary Calvinistic government forces. The writer in the *Hilfe* believes that the Liberal victory is of the utmost importance for the future development of Holland as a free-trade country. In his opinion, the bill introduced by the Clerical party, providing for protective legislation, will be defeated by the Liberals.

A Tribute to Reclus.—An interesting tribute to the late French geographer, Elisée Reclus, by Robert Doucet, appears in *France de Demain*. Men who hold rigorously to what seems to them true and just are comparatively rare to-day, says this writer, but when they are, in addition, as able and patient as the late M. Reclus they are indeed rarities. Reclus traveled extensively in his early youth, and his presence was always a feature of geographic congresses. His great work, "Universal Geography," in nineteen volumes, required almost twenty years to complete it. Reclus may be said to have made a science of geography. For the abstruse and vague descriptions which had theretofore been in vogue he substituted interesting and accurate narrative of living countries and peoples. His style was always picturesque, colored, and even poetic. If he had any fault, it was that of being too personal, of rather neglecting principles and larger facts for the personalities of the leaders and the main figures in these movements.

Radium and Hydrophobia.—It is known that radium exercises a destructive action on the organic tissues, and that it modifies certain microbes. A professor of Bologna, Tizzoni, has proved that it (radium) absolutely destroys the virus of hydrophobia, described by Henri Parville in the *Annales*. In his first experiments, Professor Tizzoni used two small tubes, alike in every respect, the tubes containing equal quantities of infected marrow (a 1 per cent. emulsion of marrow) in a sterilized test solution. Both tubes were carefully prepared and absolutely identical. One tube was simply exposed to the air; the other tube was exposed to the action of a salt of radium. The subjects for the experi-

ments were rabbits. They were inoculated (with rabie virus) in the eye, under the dura mater, part of the subjects being inoculated from the simple tube and the remainder (of the same number) being inoculated from the tube exposed to the action of radium. The rabbits inoculated from the tube exposed only to the air died after the usual time demanded for the regular march of the disease (hydrophobia), and they died in the regular hydrophobic way, of paralytic hydrophobia. Death ensued seven days—or, at the most, eight days—after the animals were inoculated. When the radium had acted but an hour, or less than an hour, the rabbits died; but the progress of the disease was much slower than in the case of the rabbits inoculated from the tube that had not felt the action of radium, and the symptoms were not the symptoms of paralytic hydrophobia. The subjects wasted rapidly, and died from unquestionable marasmus. In one series of experiments, when rabbits were inoculated with rabie virus and immediately subjected to the action of radium there was very little change in their condition, the only perceptible effect being a slight weakening of the posterior train. The tests were continued during one hour each day. When the test by radium was continued during eight consecutive days, the only change noted was that of weakness of the spine (already noted), and the subjects rapidly regained their normal strength. Rabbits to serve as comparison, and not subjected to the action of radium, died of paralytic hydrophobia. It was proved that the treatment by radium failed when the virus of hydrophobia had made twenty-four hours' progress. Apparently, Tizzoni's experiments have proved that radium is a sure cure for hydrophobia when it is taken at once and followed during eight consecutive days.

Submarine Signals.—There are times of dense fog when all beacons are invisible, and in a roaring tempest the sounds of the most powerful fog-horn are lost. The reverberations of sound, says Henri Parville, in the *Annales*, are so confused by the noise of the sea that it is impossible to determine the situation of ships even when they are close at hand. Attempts have been made to convey sound by bells under the water, but it was proved that while liquids transmit sounds long distances, it is impossible to distinguish the sound carried by the bells from the noises of the ships. The Submarine Signal Company, of New York, has found means of signaling by bells of a very clear, sharp tone not to be confounded, or lost, in any other noise. The microphones used for that purpose are fastened to the keels of ships in reservoirs filled with a liquid denser than the waters of the sea; they are fastened on the inside of the ship above the water-line. The sharp tones of the bells are so intensified by the density of their liquid vehicle that they cover all the noises of the ships and carry as a shriek carries. They are placed both to larboard and to starboard. The signals by these sharp-toned bells are conveyed to the man at the wheel by a species of telephone, which makes it possible for a pilot to hear, not only the sound of bells, but the water as it washes the keels of the distant ships.

Amateurs Hinder Aeronautic Progress.—In the regular scientific department of *Italia Moderna* (Rome), Dr. Evans takes the ground that recent achievements in the "conquest of the air" are not progress, since they have required far more powerful motors to accomplish what Renard and Krebs did in 1884 with an

eight-horse-power motor. Moreover, Dr. Evans considers that the form of the modern airship is wrong, and cites birds and fishes that move rapidly as all having the forward extremity the larger, and of ovoid shape. The air displaced in motion flows along the sides, and in the case of cylindrical balloons simply tends to crush in the sides. In the case of a tapering body, this pressure has a tendency to force it forward and aid motion rather than retard it. Sailors used to say a fast ship should have the head of a cod and the tail of a mackerel, and the principle holds good in airships. Amateurs call themselves aeronauts as soon as they understand the simple mechanism of a balloon and how to read a barometer. Dr. Evans, while admiring their courage in their sport, thinks they waste much force, and if real progress toward air navigation is to be made they must do more serious scientific study.

Dentistry, Ancient and Modern.—In the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) is a curious article by Ernesto Mancini on "Teeth and Dentists in Ancient Times," with a number of illustrations of dental work among the ancients from museum specimens. The first mention of tooth-extracting in literature seems to be by Cicero, who names Æsculapius (the third) as the inventor of purges and the art of extracting teeth, some thirteen hundred years before Christ. Hippocrates, four centuries before Christ, wrote much about the care of the teeth, and a tomb at Tanagra, of about that period, furnished a set of false teeth. The collector of this relic has also found in Greek tombs teeth filled with gold. But before Greece, dental art flourished in Assyria, in Egypt, and in Phœnicia, and from there the art reached the Etruscans. Benzoni asserts that he has found artificial teeth of sycamore wood attached by gold wire to sound teeth of mummies, and also in mummies from Thebes decayed teeth filled with gold so well that the metal adhered perfectly to the ivory. Other authorities deny this or claim that the art, if known, was not practised, on account of religious objections. Various public and private collections have specimens of ancient dental work. The illustrations given are of Phœnician teeth bound together with gold wire, gold teeth in the Etruscan museum, and the Bruschi-Falgari museum, of Corneto, Italy, and a specimen that is practically "bridge-work" three thousand years old, found at Cerveteri, and now in the Castellani private museum. The museum of Pope Julius, at Rome, has a skull with a plate fitting over three sound teeth and having a compartment for a false tooth. In the museum at Florence is perhaps the oldest specimen of dental work in Italy,—a skull with the incisors bound with a gold band, and dating from the fifth century B.C., according to the pottery found in the same Tarquinian tomb. Dentistry declined in Europe after the early centuries of the Christian era, and St. Louis of France is said to have had but a single tooth left at his death, while Charles the Bold was recognized dead on the field of Nancy by the gaps in his set of teeth. The Arabs kept up the best Greek practice, and late in the sixteenth century dental protection became common in Europe. Paré, the physician of Charles IX., was an expert dentist, and the first to transplant living teeth successfully. He filled teeth with cork and lead, reserving gold for royal mouths. Toothbrushes did not come into use until the eighteenth century, and princesses such as Marie Josephine of Saxony in 1747 had their special tooth-polishes as they had their barbers and dancing-

masters. Now one New York factory makes eight million porcelain teeth in a year, and teeth valued at over \$500,000 are annually exported, while sixteen hundred pounds of fine gold go into American teeth every year.

The Physician's Right to Kill.—Discussing an article by Dr. I. Regnault in *La Revue* (Paris), A. Agresti writes, in *Italia Moderna* (Rome), on "The Right of Homicide,"—in other words, the expediency of physicians practising *euthanasia*, hurrying the demise of hopelessly afflicted patients. As he notes, the question was discussed in 1903 by the New York Medical Society. Dr. Regnault, Signor Agresti thinks, enlarges too much the scope of killing, as he would give society the right to dispose of deformed and defective individuals. The Italian writer thinks the world would become ridiculous if every one were reduced to normal,—as Lombroso would have it, "if there were not some deformed that would permit us to appreciate beauty; if there were not some assassin to teach us the value of life, and some genius to tell of its joys and its sorrows. That which counts in society, and tends ever to count more, is the individual." But when the human organism is hopelessly deranged, and death must ensue shortly, there come the right and the duty to prevent too atrocious suffering. Each for one's self would choose the quicker end, but all administer the doses that prolong the life and the suffering. But when shall the decision for euthanasia be made, and by whom,—the patient, the doctor, the family? Who knows when death is certain to come soon? Many difficult questions arise. This writer thinks the physician should be judge, with a consultation, perhaps furnished by the municipality, and not always the same persons. The family should be consulted, not as to when, but as to the willingness and advisability. The patient might be consulted as to the administration of the last sacrament, but often his true state is concealed from him, and his merciful ending might be also. As to the how, Signor Agresti would put it all in the hands of the physician. "He should put the patient into the eternal sleep without saying to any one: I come for this. His action should be sudden and mysterious, like death, and, like death, beneficent."

The British Labor Party.—The first article in the August number of the *Independent Review* is one by Mr. Philip Snowden on the British Labor party and the general election. He begins with the statement that "among the Liberal candidates who have won these great victories on the wave of reaction there is hardly one whose return is a gain to the cause of progress." He then goes on to recount the "phenomenal success" of the Labor Representation Committee, with which are now affiliated one million trade-unionists. "In everything that gives real strength to a political party, the Labor party is," he says, "the strongest and largest political organization in Great Britain to-day." There are fifty-two trade-union and Socialist candidatures indorsed by it. He thinks "its future as the progressive party in British politics is certainly assured." He urges the educational value of its programme amid the clamor of traditional and largely futile war-cries. It will not expect a Liberal government to concede any great measures of reform. But "the attitude of the Labor party to the government would be one of independent, friendly co-operation."

British Military Farms in South Africa.—Mr. E. F. Harvie gives a significant description of the British military farms in South Africa, some seventy in number. Started in December, 1900, to supply the hospitals and troops with provisions, they were perfectly organized, and have proved a great success. The soil yields three crops of potatoes in less than a year, and at the rate of three and one-half tons to the acre. Nine crops of lucerne are gathered between July and February. The dairy farm and poultry-keeping also were successful. Irrigation was introduced. Farming by the British in South Africa is no longer a problematical thing. It has been essayed, under the direction of the military authorities, and it has proved a conspicuous success. The overseers placed on the farms were men who had served through the campaign and had in every case been farmers in England, Scotland, or Ireland.

The Soul of Gothic Architecture.—An interesting paper in the *Edinburgh Review* on Gothic architecture rejects the architect's explanation that it arose from economy of masonry or mere constructional considerations. Roman architecture expresses strength in repose, and reflected the monotony of the centralized administration of Rome, which left no room for local initiative. Gothic architecture possesses the quality of energy, or strength in action, and expressed the exuberant forces of individual initiative and local freedom which marked the Gothic ideal. This ideal took six centuries to realize in the birth of the Western nationalities, and that achievement led to the embodiment of its spirit in architecture.

The Babylonian Genesis of Genesis.—The Rev. Dr. W. St. Clair Tisdall, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* for August on the alleged derivation of the Hebrew from the Babylonian cosmologies, says: "It is not too much to say that, purely on critical grounds, it is impossible to congratulate the higher critics on their discovery of the source of the first few chapters of Genesis in the Babylonian Creation Tablets. It would be a much more plausible theory to maintain that Greek mythology had that origin. Or, again, it would be tempting to suggest that the Indian legend of *Purusha*, the Norse tale of Ymir, and the Chinese myth of Pan-hu were all derived from that of the slaughter of *Tiamat* and the creation of sky and earth out of her remains. These strange legends are certainly in great measure identical with one another, however we may account for the fact."

The Voice of a Hungry Lion.—Mrs. Hinde, who has been hunted by lions in Uganda, gives, in *Blackwood's* for August, a vivid account of the adventures which befall residents in lion-haunted countries. She has a great respect for lions, and she gives the following graphic description of the voice of the king of beasts: "The quality of a lion's voice is different from any other sound in the world. I do not mean his roar, which can, of course, be heard any day at a 'zoo,' but the peculiar mixture of grunt, sigh, and sob a lion makes when he is hungry. Naturally, no lion roars when he goes hunting,—he would be unlikely to kill anything if he did,—but as he trots along, swingingly and almost silently, he makes the unmistakable sound which, though it is not a loud noise, causes the blood of the most phlegmatic to race."

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE PRESIDENT ON HIS PORCH AT OYSTER BAY

(From a new photograph taken for this magazine.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXXII.

NEW YORK, OCTOBER, 1905.

No. 4.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The World
at Peace
Once More.*

When the pages of this magazine were closed for the press last month the issues of war and peace were hanging in the balance, and the eyes of the whole civilized world were turned anxiously toward the conference of the Russian and Japanese envoys at Portsmouth. The prevalent note was one of pessimism and despondency; but our readers will have found that the September REVIEW was not only hopeful in its attitude, but singularly accurate in its statements and its forecasts. On the 29th of August came the startling news that the diplomatic deadlock had been broken, that all main points had been agreed upon, and that a treaty of peace would be concluded within a few days. A week later, —namely, on September 5,—the treaty was actually signed, and the great Russo-Japanese war was at an end. Mr. Van Norman, of the staff of the REVIEW, who spent the concluding days at Portsmouth, makes a clear statement, elsewhere in this number, of the way in which the peace of Portsmouth was brought about, and of the nature and terms of the treaty itself. Thus, certain facts which otherwise would be embodied in this monthly narrative and conspectus of the world's progress are omitted because they will be found more fully given in Mr. Van Norman's article.

*Japan's
Crowning
Success.*

However various and divergent may have been the first impressions of the world's makers of public opinion in the days immediately following the great announcement, it was not long before there was reached a very general agreement that peace had come at the right moment, and upon terms both honorable and satisfactory. Undeniably there was for a time no small degree of disappointment in Japan, and among the friends and supporters of Japan in other countries, and a feeling

that the victor had come far short of the fair reward of his success. But a better understanding of all the circumstances was quite certain to dispel the gloom, and to make it plain that the conclusion of peace on fair terms at the opportune moment was the most complete and most brilliant success in all the long series of Japanese successes. War under any possible condition is a frightful calamity; and it behooves a nation to make peace thankfully when it has gained the objects for which it went forth to battle. The Japanese had fought because they regarded Russia's presence in Manchuria and Korea as menacing to the future safety and development of the Mikado's empire. Their victories had made it certain that Russia would concede, not only all that had been asked by Japan in the negotiations that went before the war, but vastly more. Besides all this, Japan had at a stroke acquired military and naval paramountcy in the far East, and had achieved an acknowledged place among nations of the first rank. Such prestige had never come so quickly.

*An Indemnity
Never
Possible.*

There was nothing left to fight about except the question whether Russia, having conceded so much, would also pay a large money indemnity as an inducement to have the fighting stop. Now that the situation can be viewed calmly and with some perspective, it is evident enough to almost everybody that it would have been a hideous mistake for Japan to have continued the war with the idea that the Russian Government at some future time would enter into another peace conference and yield to the Japanese demands for cash. Russia would never have consented to pay an indemnity, and Japan could never have collected one. If the war had continued for another year, the Japanese might have captured Vladivostok, with the loss of a hundred thousand men, and they

might have taken Harbin after a long siege through the summer of 1906. But they would still have been thousands of miles away from Russia proper, and they would have sacrificed great numbers of men and vast sums of money, with no corresponding advantages whatsoever. As matters stand, the Japanese have been wise enough to make peace at the moment when they are in possession of the maximum gains at the minimum cost. Seldom in all history has a nation appealed to the arbitrament of the sword with such marvelous success as that which now falls to Japan's lot.

*Japan's New
Treaty with
England.*

Having secured for the immediate present all that she could have desired, as respects power and influence in the far East, Japan has had the further good fortune to make the longer future secure by a highly advantageous new treaty concluded with Great Britain. This new alliance goes far beyond that which had existed for several years previous. In effect it guarantees the *status quo* for almost the entire continent of Asia, apart from the Turkish Empire. Japan will have England's offensive and defensive support in her new position in the Yellow and China seas, and on the adjacent coasts, while England on her part can count upon Japan's support to withstand Russian movements of aggression in Persia or Afghanistan, or in case of designs against India. This treaty of alliance will relieve the Japanese from nervous apprehension regarding the future, while it will have a similar effect in lessening British fears affecting his majesty's imperial interests in Asia. The situation thus brought about promises to be one of stable equilibrium for a long time to come. It is highly favorable to neutral nations, inasmuch as it makes for permanent commercial opportunities. It secures beyond all further question the advantages sought by the government of the United States in its long insistence upon the so-called "open door" policy. That is to say, under the terms of Japan's treaty of peace with Russia and her treaty of alliance with England, we are absolutely sure of the retention of all the trading rights in Korea, Manchuria, and China proper that we have ever claimed or exercised. What we have to do now is to learn the best ways to utilize these opportunities, which had become precarious, but are now assured.

*Russia Still
an Asiatic
Power.*

As for the Russians, it was not an easy thing for them to confess failure and to give up Port Arthur and the Liao-Tung peninsula, the southern half of Saghalien, important parts of their railroad system,

and a certain intangible but real predominance in Manchuria and Korea. Nevertheless, it was not the game of diplomacy at Portsmouth that resulted in these losses to Russia, but the relentless facts of a war which had already put these properties and advantages in the possession of Russia's antagonist. Russia had the moral courage to recognize and accept a situation that could only have been made worse by further fighting. She had fallen victim to divided counsels, and had been plunged into a war for which she was not only unprepared, but which she had not anticipated as a risk to be seriously guarded against. With better diplomacy and better statesmanship, Russia could easily have avoided the war, won the proffered friendship and alliance of Japan, and still retained all of her prestige in the far East, supported by her navy and by her great stronghold at Port Arthur. But she trifled with her promises in the matter of evacuating Manchuria and opening it to commerce, and she showed reckless folly in her encroachments upon Korea. For all this she has been severely punished, and she pays a just penalty in losing Port Arthur and a part of the island of Saghalien. But let no one suppose that the great Russian Empire is reduced to the rank of a second-rate power, or that the Russian people have been checked in the smallest measure in their march toward a great destiny.

*A New
Russian
Era.*

Episodes like this war are a part of the discipline of a crude and undeveloped race such as the Russians are. A new era of genuine advancement is already in sight for the one hundred and fifty millions of human beings who acknowledge the Czar as their ruler. In the military sense, Russia's position in the far East has been eclipsed; but it may be found a source of strength rather than of weakness for her to abandon, at present, all idea of armed dominance and to proceed with the agricultural and commercial advancement of Siberia, joining all other nations in peaceful and friendly efforts to develop Manchuria and to open up trade with all parts of China. Russia remains almost where she stood ten years ago as a far-Eastern power in the geographical sense, with the added advantage that she has now her great railway line to Vladivostok completed, and has made substantial beginnings in the planting of towns and the opening up of farm lands over a vast expanse of country. She had previously promised to evacuate Manchuria, and had disavowed designs of conquest against Korea. In a technical sense, therefore, she can claim not to have lost her permanent position on the Pacific coast. But she will not menace Japan.



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HON. GEORGE VON L. MEYER.

(Mr. Meyer, as our ambassador at St. Petersburg, was of great service in the peace negotiations.)

*President
Roosevelt's
Services.*

The conclusion of this war marks the great growth of the influence of the United States as a power in the affairs of the countries that border upon the Pacific Ocean. We have strengthened the ties of friendship that have always bound Japan to us, and we have been so fortunate as in great measure to restore the sentiment of Russian friendship that has been for a long time regarded in both countries as a thing to be valued. President Roosevelt's aid in bringing the work of the peace conference to a happy conclusion was a solid, substantial achievement, that has received the fullest recognition from those who have been best able to appreciate all the facts. This war was a difficult one to end, for the reason that both parties to it were strong, proud, and unexhausted. The Japanese were inspired with courage and hope by a series of unprecedented victories, and by the full belief that they could proceed to capture Vladivostok and defeat the army of Linevich. The Russians, on

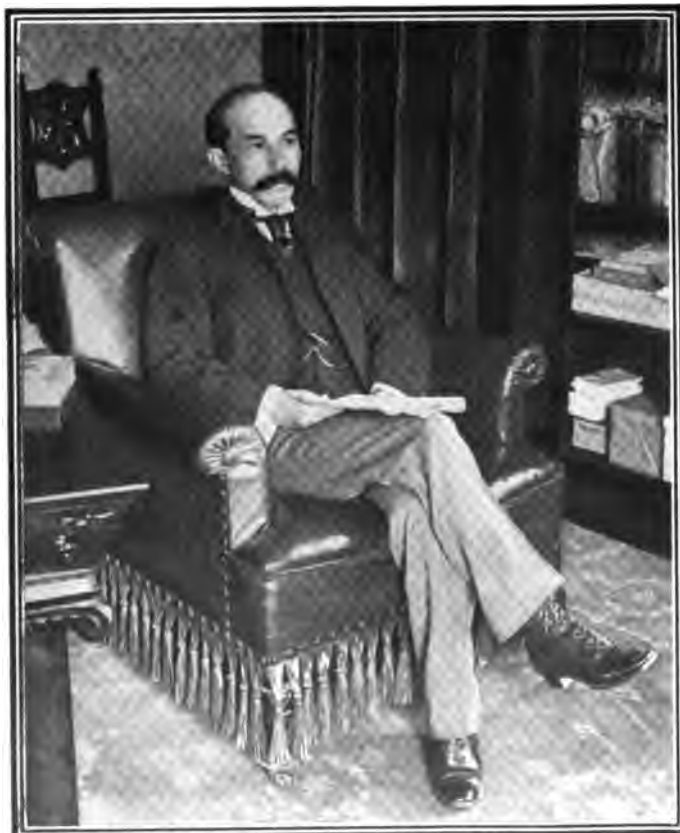
the other hand, felt that the latent resources of their vast empire had as yet scarcely been drawn upon, and it seemed almost impossible to them that they should be set down as vanquished and humiliated before the eyes of an unsympathetic world. Under the circumstances, it required great moral courage on both sides to stop the war upon such terms as could be found mutually acceptable. When the conference had reached the point of deadlock and was about to break up in confessed failure, President Roosevelt was instrumental in securing delay at Portsmouth for the sake of bringing his disinterested opinions to bear directly upon the highest authorities at St. Petersburg and Tokio. He had satisfied himself that the time for peace had fully arrived, and that the way to bring about a settlement was to persuade the Mikado to drop the demand for money indemnity, and to persuade the Czar to yield the whole or a part of the island of Saghalien. Through Mr. Meyer, our ambassador, he was able to present his views

directly to the Russian Emperor, and he had at hand the means of communication with the able and revered sovereign of the Japanese Empire. Mr. Roosevelt knew that he was expressing, not only the judgment of the United States, but also that of Germany, England, France, and other countries. His attitude was regarded as impartial and benevolent, and his suggestions were so definite and logical that they had about them a certain mark of finality.

American Influence at its Zenith. These suggestions were accepted by the Czar and by the Mikado with the approval of the foreign office and ministry at St. Petersburg, and of the Elder Statesmen at Tokio. All this does not detract from the credit due to the envoys, who carried on their negotiations so ably and courteously at Portsmouth. But it has added a bright chapter to the history of the United States, has brought great and permanent fame to President Roosevelt, and has lifted our country into a far higher

position of influence among the nations than it ever occupied before. It was President Roosevelt who at the outset of the war took the lead in securing a limitation of the theater of hostilities, thus protecting China. It was President Roosevelt again whose direct appeal to the Czar secured the appointment of envoys to consider the question of peace. And it was his intervention in the end that adjusted the main differences and fixed the terms of settlement. Unless we are greatly mistaken, this fortunate outcome has brought about a condition of tranquillity that will hold for at least one generation in the far East, and that will afford the best opportunity for the modernizing of China and the expansion of trade and commerce.

Another Hague Congress. It was reported on September 19 that the Czar had issued invitations to a second peace congress at The Hague. Such a gathering of the nations was proposed, to the governments that had participated in the first Hague congress, in circular invitations sent out by the President of the United States last year. The idea was favorably received, and the invitations were generally accepted, with the understanding that the date of the congress would probably not be fixed until the termination of the Russo-Japanese war. The responses were made public by Secretary Hay just before Christmas. The Czar's initiative at this time would be in full harmony with the preliminary correspondence carried on by our government last year. Nothing could well have added more to the arguments in favor of peaceful methods for settling international disputes than the history and the outcome of the recent quarrel between Russia and Japan. Russia had taken the lead in calling the first peace congress, and Russia should have been more than ready to accept arbitration, in case of the failure of diplomatic negotiations over the Eastern situation. Another peace conference can do much to carry forward the work begun at The Hague six years ago. Wars are not yet at an end; but the cause of peace is making marked and rapid headway. It fell to the lot of the American representatives at The Hague to lead the congress away from the futile disarmament idea to the more feasi-



From a stereograph, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

(Whose confidential relations with the President and the Mikado helped to bring the peace negotiations to a successful end.)



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT HIS DESK IN HIS OYSTER BAY HOME.

(Photographed expressly for this magazine.)

ble plan of arbitration treaties and tribunals. In the next Hague conference the American delegation cannot fail to have high prestige and great influence.

The President at Washington Again. President Roosevelt's sojourn at his Oyster Bay home ends with September, and executive work will center again at Washington beginning with October 1. Mr. Root will have taken up his duties as Secretary of State, and Mr. Robert Bacon will have succeeded Mr. Loomis as First Assistant Secretary. Mr. Bacon, who is an old college friend of President Roosevelt's, has until recently

been a partner in the banking firm of Messrs. J. P. Morgan & Co. The President at one time asked him to take the responsible post of assistant treasurer in charge of the Sub-Treasury in New York. He is a man of high character and of the requisite accomplishments. There will be no extra session of Congress, for the reason that the leaders in both houses have been exceedingly reluctant to accept the idea, and the President has not deemed it wise or necessary to press the matter against the wishes of those upon whom he must rely for the support of his views and policies. He will have behind him more than ever the confidence and



MR. ROBERT BACON.

(First Assistant Secretary of State.)

moral backing of the great American public. and he will doubtless have to rely upon this national support in his endeavor, during the coming winter, to secure legislation for the better regulation and control of railroads.

Corporations and the Government. The whole question of the national government in its relation to great corporations doing an interstate business is certain to demand the first attention of Congress in the coming session. And the people will rely upon the President to recommend a suitable policy in his message, and after that to do all in his power to obtain satisfactory legislation. To what extent or in what way the life insurance companies may be brought under federal supervision remains to be seen. But that something must be attempted along the line of national control is now generally conceded. This view has been growing steadily since the first scandalous disclosures in the management of the Equitable. It obtained an overwhelming acceptance last month when the New York legislative committee began to probe the insurance situation in general, with disclosures that were of immediate concern to millions of people in every State and Territory of the Union. So great is the confidence of the country in the courage and wisdom of the President that he will have only to declare his opinions.

Probing the Insurance Business. We publish elsewhere in this number an article by Mr. Walter Wellman, written in response to our request that he state for our readers his frank conclusions, after some weeks spent in studying the methods of the great New York companies. Mr. Wellman's main criticisms will be sharply opposed by a great many insurance men, but it is well to print them, because they are intelligently and honestly made; and to express them thus frankly is to give the best opportunity for refutation or for further discussion. Mr. Wellman is of opinion that the American people are paying a great deal too much for their insurance; that the agency system is wasteful and extravagant; that the central control and management in New York is not sufficiently safeguarded for the protection of policy-holders; and that the savings-bank features of insurance finance are open to the severest criticism, in view of the barrenness of their results.

Insurance Investments. We must be allowed to say frankly on behalf of the insurance companies that it does not appear thus far that they have invested the money of the policy-holders unsafely or injudiciously. Such a company as the New York Life, for example, has been making its investments with great financial skill, for the benefit of all those concerned. Where officers or directors had seemed to be making money for themselves apart from their salaries, they have not, for the most part, gained anything at the expense of the policy-holders, but have merely benefited by the opportunities they enjoyed to get into things on the "ground floor," so to speak, or to handle securities for their own private account at what we may call the wholesale rate as distinguished from the outside marketing price that the ordinary investor has to pay. The way in which so-called "under-writing syndicates" assume responsibility for a large issue of railroad or government bonds was fully explained at great length by the officers of the insurance companies last month under the probing questions of Mr. Hughes, the chief counsel of the legislative committee. It would appear that the insurance companies, by going into partnership with the banking houses, in subscribing for such bond issues, have been able to invest their great accruing sums of cash a little more advantageously than if they bought their securities in the open market. In this investing part of the business, it is not likely to be shown that insurance funds in the main have been unfaithfully or unwisely handled. Where there is so much criticism, it is well to commend whatever is sound.

*The
Cost of
Greatness.*

A great part of the fault of the methods of the insurance world lies in the costliness of getting new business and in the greed for aggrandizement. Beyond a certain point easily ascertained, there can be no advantage to the policy-holders of an insurance company in having the number of policies written greatly multiplied or the volume of the company's business further expanded. Doubtless it adds to the strength and security of a company to do a vast business and to hold immense funds invested in a wide range of securities. But to achieve such magnitude a company may have adopted methods for obtaining new business and rewriting old policies that would make the premium charge fifty per cent. more than it ought to be.

*As to
Political
Contributions.*

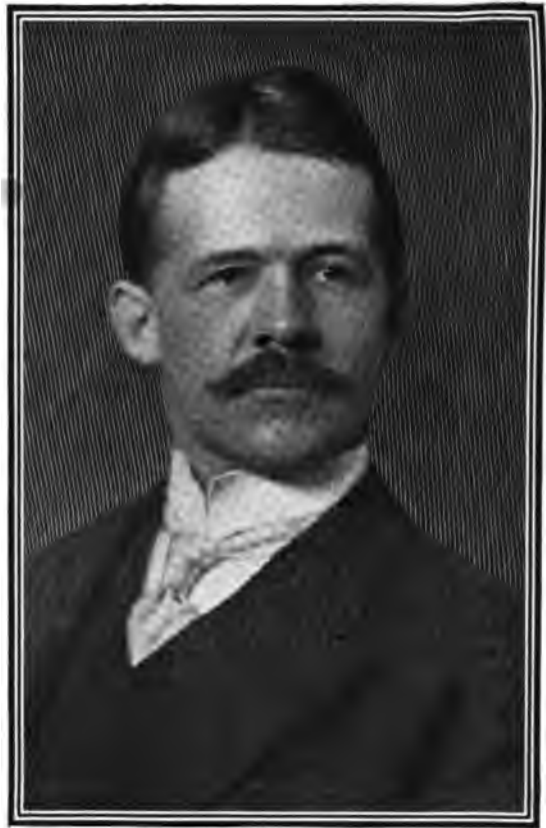
Some things that the investigation has brought to light bear only incidentally upon the insurance question itself. Thus, the matter that attracted the



Photograph by Pach Bros.

MR. JOHN A. M'CALL, PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

widest public attention last month was the disclosure of the fact that the great New York companies had been contributing at least fifty thousand dollars apiece to the Republican campaign funds in recent Presidential elections. They also, it is alleged, have put money into State politics. The standing excuse for these national campaign contributions has been the



Photograph by Pirie Macdonald.

MR. GEORGE W. PERKINS, VICE-PRESIDENT AND FINANCIAL HEAD OF THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

one that did service in the McKinley campaign of 1896. It was then asserted that a victory for free silver would so undermine the assets of the insurance companies as to affect almost ruinously the value of every outstanding policy. It was held, therefore, that the best possible expenditure that insurance companies, as well as other financial institutions, could make, for the benefit of policy-holders and shareholders, was a handsome contribution to the cause of the gold standard as against Bryan and the free-silver heresy. Such an argument is too fallacious to require discussion. Men of all sorts of political convictions pay their money into mutual life insurance companies for the strict and sole purpose of having their lives insured or their money saved and accumulated. They do not pay a penny for the purpose of creating secret political funds to be used by the inner groups of officers at their own private discretion to influence the political life of the country. In their capacity as citizens, the officers of insurance companies and other financial



Photographed for the New York American.

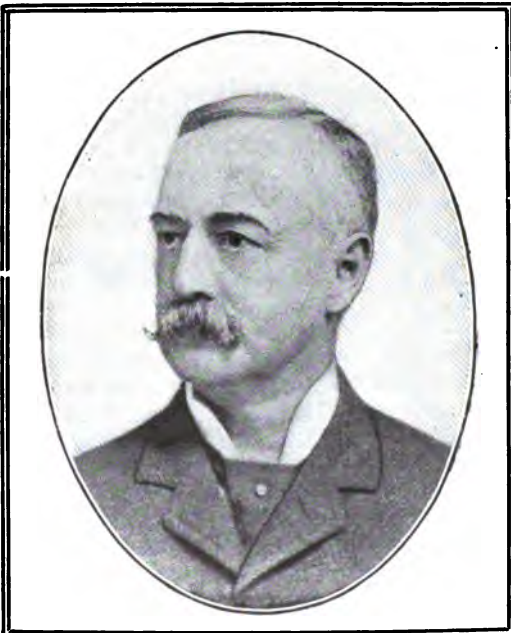
Mr. Charles E. Hughes, chief counsel.

A SESSION OF THE NEW YORK LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEE THAT IS INVESTIGATING THE LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

concerns may support their political convictions as liberally as they like; but they have no right to take other people's money, held by them in trust for distinct business purposes, and throw it into the game of politics.

A Vicious Practice Now Exposed. In so far as contributions to State politics are concerned, the matter has always savored more of blackmail or of corruption than in the case of gifts to the

national campaign funds. State insurance departments can make themselves very disagreeable to insurance companies, and such State departments are almost always controlled by the party leaders or bosses. Thus, it is said, there has grown up a system of contributing to party managers.—often, if not always, to the managers of both parties,—for the sake of maintaining pleasant relations with the State insurance authorities, and for the sake, furthermore, of rendering it more certain that legislatures will not make attacks, or enact harsh or precipitate laws. It is perfectly well known that the whole system of American State politics, not alone in New York and Pennsylvania, but in many other States, has for a good while rested firmly upon the foundation of annual funds collected from corporations and put in the hands of party managers to maintain their organizations, to control legislatures, and to dominate political life at every point and juncture. The largest sums are paid, undoubtedly, by gas companies, street-railway companies, telephone companies, and other corporations holding franchises and exercising quasi-public functions. But many other companies, subject more or less to public regulation and control, have become the victims of this vicious method. It is going to be a matter of great difficulty to break up the system, in so far as it is carried on within State lines. The use of corporation money, however, for national campaigns will undoubtedly have come to an abrupt end in the disclosures of last month. Nobody comes forward to defend it, and everybody admits that it must be stopped. Congress will be expected to deal with it promptly next winter.



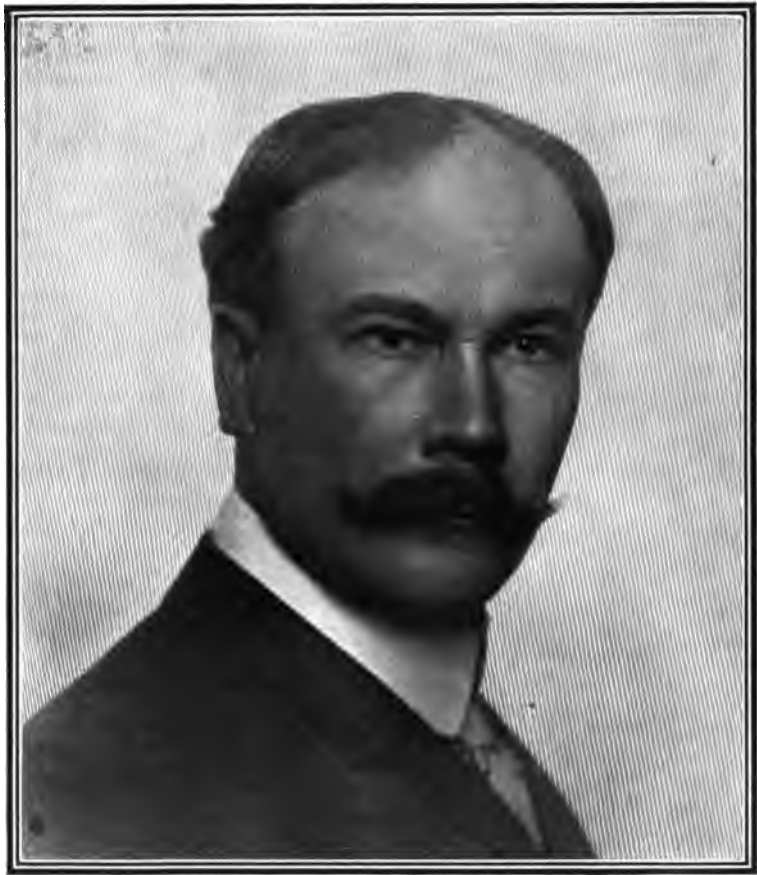
MR. RICHARD A. M'CURDY, PRESIDENT OF THE MUTUAL LIFE.

*Who is
to Be
Blamed?*

It would be wholly futile to attempt to lay the blame upon one party rather than upon another. Thus, the corporations were very active in working against the nomination at St. Louis of a radical of the Bryan wing of the Democratic party, and secured the nomination of Judge Parker. The corporations had for several years been thoroughly hostile to Mr. Roosevelt, and had done what they could to prevent his nomination at Chicago. It was generally expected that they would contribute more last year for the Democratic than for the Republican cause. There was a flaw in the Democratic platform, however, from the standpoint of the money market; and as the campaign finally shaped itself the corporations probably gave a good deal more to the Republican fund than to that which Mr. Belmont and others were collecting on behalf of the Parker campaign. President Roosevelt's hands are entirely clean in all this matter, and he undoubtedly will take the lead in promoting measures to secure the publicity he has already recommended for campaign contributions and expenditures, and in putting an end to the political use of corporation money in Presidential and Congressional campaigns.

*The Canal
Question
Looms Up
Again.*

The subject of the Panama Canal, in many aspects of it, promises to be a very absorbing one during the next six months. Whether or not we are to have new legislation, there will doubtless be some form of Congressional inquiry, and from various quarters there will be influences working for division of counsels and for confusion and delay. The most important question to be decided soon is that of the engineering character of the canal itself. Last month brought together the engineers who had been selected as a consulting board. Besides eminent American experts, the board includes distinguished foreigners named on President Roosevelt's invitation by the governments of England, France, Germany, and Holland. The body includes the chief engi-



MR. PAUL MORTON, PRESIDENT OF THE EQUITABLE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

neers of the Suez Canal, the Manchester Ship Canal, Germany's great Kiel Ship Canal, and other engineers of similar eminence and experience. Before making a report, these gentlemen are to inspect the Panama situation on the ground.

*Locks
or
Sea-Level?*

They visited President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay on September 11, and the President addressed them from the standpoint of American public policy. They are to report upon the relative feasibility of a canal with locks and a canal dug to sea-level. They are to give an opinion upon the question whether it would be possible to build a canal with locks in a comparatively short time and at some future period change it into a canal at sea-level by large further expenditure while continuing the canal in safe use. The President made it plain that the element of time in getting the canal opened is of great consequence to this country. While the report of the consulting board will have no authority and will not be conclusive, it will doubtless have great influence



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Captain Oakes, U.S.A., secretary.	Gen. Henry L. Abbott, U.S.A. (retired). Eugen Tinscauser (Germany). Joseph Ripley (engineer of the Sault Ste. Marie Canal).	M. L. Quellenec (consulting engineer Suez Canal). Adolphe Guerard (France).	Isham Randolph (engineer Chicago Drainage Canal). J. W. Welker (Netherlands).	Frederick B. Stearns (Boston). Alfred Noble (chief engineer Penn. R.R.).	Gen. Geo. W. Davis, U.S.A. (retired).	Prof. William H. Burr (Columbia Uni- versity). William Barclay Parsons (New York).
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THE MEMBERS OF THE ADVISORY BOARD OF ENGINEERS OF THE ISTHMIAN CANAL COMMISSION.

in bringing about a decision of the question. Mr. Joseph B. Bishop, an able and prominent journalist of New York, has been appointed to a position under the chairman of the Panama

Commission which makes him practically the chief of an intelligence bureau as well as the historian of the Panama enterprise. The constant services of such a man as Mr. Bishop will be of value, on the one hand, to the Government, and, on the other hand, to the press and the people of the country.



MR. JOSEPH B. BISHOP.

Our South American Concerns. The enhanced prestige of the United States will not of itself prove a solvent for every international problem and difficulty that our State Department must face, but it will help very appreciably. With the far-Eastern situation cleared up, the President and Mr. Root must give particular attention to South American affairs. It will require a high order of diplomacy, in which there must be tact and intelligence as well as sincerity and frankness, to secure for the United States the good-will to which we are fully entitled in the South American republics. Our relations with Brazil ought to be of the most cordial sort. Brazil, indeed, like Mexico and Japan, should be our close friend. Rio Janeiro is the great center of intelligence and influence in South America, and we should cultivate both political and commercial intimacy with Brazil

as a fixed policy. As for the Argentine and Chile, we should be on as friendly terms with their governments as we are with France, for example. With Venezuela and Colombia, it is necessary that our relations should be of a more influential nature. General Reyes, who was elected to a four years' term as president of Colombia last year, succeeded in having his term extended to ten years by action taken four months ago, and he is now virtually a dictator. His avowed object is to do for Colombia what General Diaz has done for Mexico. He must be persuaded to cultivate intimate relations with the republic of Panama, to accept the friendship of the United States, and to grasp fully the idea that the presence of the United States at the Isthmus gives the best possible guarantee for the prosperity and stability of Colombia. The canal will unite the two coasts of Colombia, which is the only South American state that, like our country and Mexico, fronts upon both oceans.

*Venezuela's
Chronic
Troubles.*

Mr. Root will have to give immediate consideration to the Venezuelan tangle. President Castro has been dealing arbitrarily with the French Cable Company, with the German railway interests, and with the American asphalt properties. We have committed ourselves to the policy of seeing that the principles of justice should govern in the settlement of the claims of various foreigners against the Venezuelan Government. Having gone so far, we must see the business through. It seems that the asphalt interests are being penalized by Castro for having favored or promoted the attempt of General Matos, several years ago, to establish an honest and accountable government. It is, of course, a great pity that General Matos did not succeed, for, as a man of affairs and responsible character, he could have straightened out the diplomatic and financial tangles in which his country was involved, and made a fair attempt to do for Venezuela what Diaz has done for Mexico, what Palma has been doing for Cuba, and what Reyes has undoubtedly hoped and desired to do for Colombia.

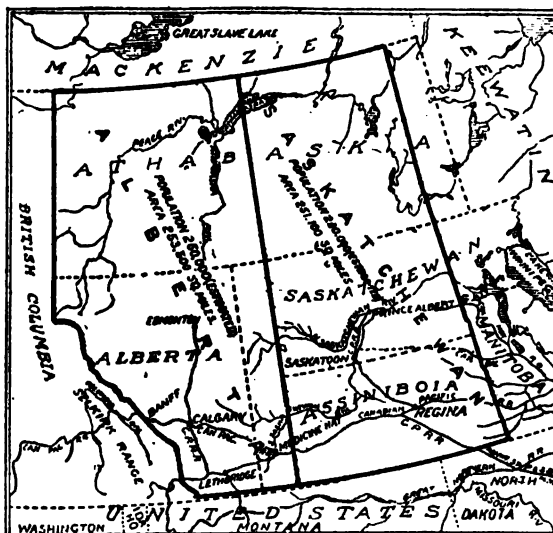
*Our Most
Important
Neighbor.*

It would also seem as if Mr. Root might find important work for American diplomacy in bringing about closer relations between ourselves and the people of the great northern half of this continent. There are many reasons besides those that can be expressed in dollars and cents why the ties between the United States and the Dominion of Canada ought to be close and sympathetic. The most colossal blunder of American statesman-

ship was the failure of this country, years ago, to acquire the great empty territories lying north of the international boundary line and the Great Lakes, and west of what used to be Canada. This vast region did not belong to Canada any more than it belonged to us; and it could have been acquired from Great Britain for a song when we were nagging her about the *Alabama* claims. It is too late now to undo that mistake. Nothing could be further from the truth than the idea that Canada will by some sort of inevitable drift come finally into union with the United States. The drift is all in the other direction. Every year that passes more firmly crystallizes the independent position of the Dominion. There is only one possible means by which the situation can be improved, and that is through the reversal of our tariff policy and the adoption of the principle of reciprocity, or, better still, of commercial union.

*The
Two New
Provinces.*

Meanwhile, the prosperous development of Canada goes on at a rapid rate. This year has brought good crops and a great development of the grain and cattle interests of the Canadian Northwest. What has hitherto been unorganized territory lying between the provinces of Manitoba and British Columbia has now been given a changed status, and there have emerged from the temporary districts known as the Northwest Territories the two new provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. Each is of colossal dimensions, and will become



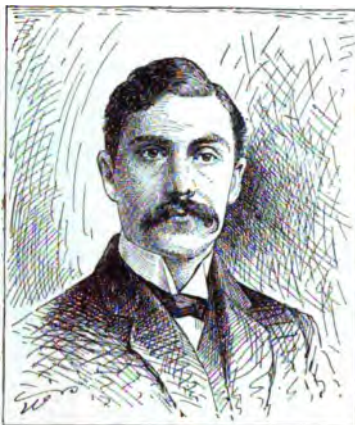
CANADA'S TWO NEW PROVINCES.

(In the map the two new provinces are shown by the black lines; the dotted lines indicate the territories out of which they are formed.)



HON. A. E. FORQUET.

(The new lieutenant-governor of Saskatchewan.)



HON. WALTER SCOTT.

(The first premier of Saskatchewan.)



HON. GEORGE H. V. BULLEYA.

(First lieutenant-governor of the new province of Alberta.)

an important and notable self-governing commonwealth of English-speaking men. Already Manitoba, with its thriving capital of Winnipeg, has reached the stage where it has become one of the well-favored portions of the earth. Alberta and Saskatchewan are of much greater area than Manitoba, and will probably in the near future outstrip the older province in population and wealth. Winnipeg has become a city of colleges and universities as well as of large financial and commercial interests. The thriving towns of the new provinces will have a like development, and with Vancouver and Victoria on the Pacific coast the Dominion will in due time have a series of flourishing cities in its western half that will equal Montreal, Toronto, Ottawa, Quebec, Halifax, and the cities of the older provinces. The Grand Trunk Pacific has broken ground, and will help greatly to develop the wheat lands of these new provinces, while the Canadian Pacific is pushing its system of branch lines, and other railway interests are penetrating what is within a few years to be by far the greatest wheat country in the world.

Our Own Northwest. It is to our own people, pressing into this new country with their skill, energy, and capital, that a great part of this development will be due. The real prosperity of our own Northwest requires such freedom of relationship with the Canadian Northwest that traffic may follow its natural lines. At present our Northwest is doing well, but its future is to be greatly affected by these questions of policy and international relationship. Thus, the question of our Oriental trade is becoming one of great importance, not only to the

citizens of Seattle, Portland, Tacoma, San Francisco, and Los Angeles, but to the agricultural and other producing interests of the whole Pacific coast. It will require statesmanship and diplomacy of a high order at Washington to take such advantage of opportunities for trade and friendly relationship in the Orient as the continued advancement of our Western States requires. The Chinese boycott of American goods was no myth, but a serious reality, and it bears upon questions requiring delicate and studious treatment.

Success of the Portland Fair. The Portland fair has been successful from several standpoints, but especially from the one which its promoters had most at heart. What the Northwestern States beyond the Rockies most desire is more population of the right sort; and this object must be furthered by getting Eastern people acquainted with their opportunities and resources, and by making it easy for those at a distance to come and see. The Portland fair has advertised the Northwest, and it has secured from the railroads low fares and special excursion offers which have supplied the inducement to thousands of people to visit the coast. Instead of serving as a warning to other cities that may have hoped some time to create an exposition, the Portland fair will have had the opposite effect. It has already been demonstrated to the satisfaction of the people of Oregon that the fair has been an excellent investment. In connection with it have been held some great gatherings, notably that of the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress, which was brilliantly presided over by Mr. Theodore

P. Wilcox, of Portland, and which made Governor Francis, of St. Louis, its president for the coming year. Western interests, such as irrigation, forest protection, and many others, will have been greatly aided as a result of the Portland Exposition.

*Virginia's
Jamestown
Fair.*

The next important undertaking of this sort to be held in America will be Virginia's exposition to commemorate the three-hundredth anniversary of the settlement of Jamestown. The death of Gen. Fitzhugh Lee deprived the exposition company of its zealous and able president. The Hon. Henry St. George Tucker, prominent as a lawyer and public man, who was president during the past year of the American Bar Association, succeeds Gen. Fitzhugh Lee as head of the exposition. If certain definite things are undertaken of an original and an appropriate sort, the Jamestown fair can be made successful in due measure.

*New York's
Municipal
Campaign.*

Perhaps the most significant thing about the pending municipal campaign in New York City is the manner in which the municipal-ownership movement has advanced to the point of claiming large recognition. In many regards Mayor McClellan's administration has been a marked improvement over former periods of Tammany rule. But



JUDGE WILLIAM J. GAYNOR.



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

MAYOR GEORGE B. M'CLELLAN.

(From his latest photograph.)

behind it there has been the Tammany control, and behind Tammany are the money and the power of the great franchise-holding corporations. When the attempt was made on the part of the anti-Tammany elements to come together in a fusion movement under the initiative of the Citizens' Union, it was found that the Municipal Ownership League had to be reckoned with as a very important factor, and that the Republican organization was quite as willing to cooperate with the municipal ownership people as with the more conservative element of the Citizens' Union. The Citizens' Union was determined to make District Attorney Jerome the fusion candidate for mayor; but this was not agreeable to the Municipal Ownership League, and Jerome himself was strongly committed to his preference for another term as district attorney. When this magazine was closed for the press the fusion elements seemed about to agree upon Justice Gaynor as their candidate for mayor.



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WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME.

(District attorney of New York, who enjoys the unbounded confidence of the people and is a candidate for reelection.)

His selection was particularly desired by the Municipal Ownership League, and his position in New York might be compared with that of Judge Dunne, chosen last spring as the municipal-ownership mayor of Chicago. Mayor McClellan is the Tammany candidate for a second term, and has great personal strength.

Some State Situations. There are few important State elections to be held this year. Ohio has a gubernatorial election, and Governor Herrick will run for a second term, with the Hon. John M. Pattison, president of the Union Central Life Insurance Company of Cincinnati, as his opponent. Both candidates are men of the highest repute. The Virginia election was, of course, practically settled in the Democratic primaries when ex-Congressman

Claude A. Swanson secured the nomination. Judge Lewis, of Richmond, who heads the Republican ticket, is universally respected, and the State will probably show decided Republican gains. In Pennsylvania it is not gubernatorial year, but other offices are to be filled, and the fight against the Republican machine in Philadelphia has extended itself to the State situation, the struggle being within the ranks of the Republican party. Mayor Weaver's fight against the Philadelphia ring goes on with unabated intensity, and the old Quaker City seems to be stirred to its depths. In Maryland there is an exciting campaign in progress in which the chief issue is the proposed amendment to the constitution restricting the franchise. The last legislature adopted an amendment intended to eliminate the negro vote, and this is to be submitted to the people for ratification in the November election. The Republicans, led by Mr. Bonaparte, Secretary of the Navy, are opposing the amendment. The Democrats, led by Senator Gorman, are supporting it. The amendment is so phrased that it gives to the

local election officers a discretion that would endanger the rights of citizenship. New England politics centers this year in Massachusetts, where principles and measures as well as candidates are always thoroughly discussed by the people of the most advanced and enlightened of all our States. As we go to press it is expected that the Hon. Curtis Guild will be the Republican candidate for governor, and it appears to be undecided whether or not Governor Douglas can be induced to reconsider his positive refusal to be the Democratic candidate. Gen. Nelson A. Miles is prominently named as the Democratic standard-bearer. The political and international interests that made Portsmouth so conspicuous on the map of New England have departed with the summer and the signing of the peace treaty, and the normal régime is resumed.



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THE JAPANESE PEACE COMMISSION AT BARON KANEKO'S COMPLIMENTARY DINNER IN NEW YORK (JULY 23).

(Seated at the table, from left to right, are: Mr. Kotaro Konishi, private secretary to Baron Komura; Mr. Mineichiro Adachi, secretary of foreign office; Baron Jutaro Komura, the senior Japanese plenipotentiary; Baron Kentaro Kaneko; Mr. Kogoro Takahira, the Japanese minister to Washington and junior plenipotentiary; Col. Koichiro Tachibana, the military *attaché*, and Dr. Jokichi Takamine. Standing, from left to right, are Commander Isamu Takeshita, the naval *attaché*; Mr. Tokutaro Sakai, of Baron Kaneko's suite; Mr. S. Uchida, the consul-general at New York; Mr. Aimaru Sato, the chief of Baron Komura's suite and official spokesman; Mr. Masanao Hanihara, third secretary of the Japanese legation at Washington, and Mr. Junichiro Suzuki, of Baron Kaneko's suite.)

*Last Days
at
Portsmouth.*

The real close of the long diplomatic struggle between the envoys of Russia and Japan at Portsmouth came when Japan made her sudden and unexpected concessions in the matter of indemnity and Saghalien. Baron Komura's offer, at the morning session of August 29, to sell to Russia half of the island for six hundred millions, Japan's estimated war expenses, was refused by Mr. Witte. The Japanese envoy then offered to waive the indemnity claim and to compromise on the division of Saghalien. The Russians at once accepted, and then the world received the announcement that peace was a fact. The story of the making of the treaty, in detail, is told on page 418 of this issue. The actual signing was merely a formality, and copies of the treaty left the United States for Tokio and

St. Petersburg a few days after the historic moment in the navy yard building on September 5. The Russian copy reached St. Petersburg on September 20. The Japanese copy was expected to arrive in Tokio before the end of the first week of this month. Ratification may take place within a few days of the arrival of the Japanese copy, and must, according to agreement, be accomplished before October 25.

*The Envoys
and the
American
People.*

Not the least important of the results accomplished by the conference has been the good feeling brought about among the envoys themselves, and the excellent impression made by the representatives of both powers upon the American people. At the close of the ceremony of signing, which was announced to the world over telephone and telegraph wires



THE RUSSIAN PEACE COMMISSION ON THE PIAZZA OF THE HOTEL WENTWORTH, NEWCASTLE, N. H.

(Beginning at the left and reading to the right, are : Mr. George Plançon, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Ivan Korostovetz, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Michel Batchev, of the Russo-Chinese Bank and *attaché* to Mr. Shipov; Minister Pokotilov; Mr. Gregory Wilenkin, financial agent of the Russian embassy at Washington; Mr. Constantine Berg, of the Russo-Chinese-Bank and *attaché* to Mr. Shipov; Mr. Ivan Shipov, special delegate from the Russian minister of finance, director of the treasury department; Prince Nicholas Kondachev, of the Russian foreign office; Gen. Nicholas Yermolov, delegate from the Russian war office; Mr. Constantine Naboukov, of the Russian foreign office; Mr. Siebert; Captain Roussine, military adviser; Captain Rozhestvenski, naval *attaché* and chief engrosser of the treaty for the Russians. The only delegate not present when this photograph was taken was Prof. Theodore Martens.)

and accompanied by bell-ringing and cannon-firing, the Russians went to the Episcopal Church in Portsmouth, where a Te Deum service was held, partly conducted by Bishop Potter, for the American Episcopal Church, and partly by Father Hotovitski, of the Orthodox Church, of New York City,—the first time, we believe, since the very early years of Christian history that the Eastern and Western communions have been united in a single service on an international occasion. Mr. Witte, who has secured for himself a warm place in American remembrance, returns to his own country by all odds the most eminent of Russians, and in all probability the leader of the constitutional Russia which the world hopes may not be long delayed. Baron Rosen remains with us as the Czar's representative at Washington. His astute diplomacy and

friendliness to the United States have already been demonstrated in the part he has played in bringing about the Czar's removal of the discriminating tariff against certain American goods (the ukase was promulgated on September 9) and in the developments which have resulted in President Roosevelt's decision to keep in the background in the matter of a second Hague conference, yielding to the Czar in the matter of inviting the world to the second conference as he did to that first famous gathering six years ago. Baron Komura, upon whom has rested the heavy responsibility of negotiating the peace which has aroused the violent opposition in Japan, and to the terms of which he was himself opposed, soon after his arrival in New York gave way under the strain, and while his case had been diagnosed as one of only mild typhoid,

yet the solicitous interest of the American people had been deeply aroused over his health and the Mikado had sent a personal cablegram inquiring after his welfare. By September 21, he was progressing satisfactorily. Mr. Takahira, who was not a well man when the conference began, also felt the strain under which he had been suffering since the beginning of the war. Late in September the report came that he had obtained leave to return to Japan, from which he has been absent several years, and that he would not return to the diplomatic service.

*An Unpopular
Peace
in Russia.*

While the conclusion of peace between Russia and Japan has been hailed throughout the neutral civilized world as a great blessing, the news of the signing of the treaty at Portsmouth has been received in the Russian and Japanese capitals with much dissatisfaction. In St. Petersburg, the war party and the autocracy have not been consoled by Japan's failure to exact an indemnity. They only remember Russia's loss of prestige in Europe as well as in Asia, her exclusion from the Pacific seaboard, and the cession of what they are pleased to call Russian territory,—the southern half of Saghalien. Some of the press comment is very bitter, and the outcome of the Portsmouth negotiations is termed in one section of the press an inglorious peace. The *Official Gazette*, of the capital, remarks: "We have been overcome, not by Japan, but by our own dishonesty, happy-go-luckiness, and laziness. The dreadful lessons of this war will not be fruitless, and will force us toward better forms of life." The *Novoye Vremya* says: "Japan is dissatisfied with the peace! So are we. . . . This peace is only one phase of our relations with Japan, which are only beginning. We shall rest, and then doubtless go on." The provincial press, however, evinces great satisfaction. The liberal reform element generally welcomes the cessation of hostilities, although many of the more radical advocates of a constitution believe that the autocracy has not yet been sufficiently humbled for the good of Russia, and that it would have been better if the government had been still more nearly crushed by Japan, in order to assure its early surrender to a liberal progressive policy at home.

*How the
Peace Finds
Russia.*

During the few weeks following the announcement of peace, Russia has been quieter than for some months past, chiefly owing to the certainty in foreign relations and the hopeful looking forward to the meeting of the Duma. Peace will be a boon to agricultural Russia, and when the people have



SERGE WITTE, RUSSIA'S STRONG MAN.

(From a photograph taken at Portsmouth early in September.)

found their voice in some sort of national assembly a new era will dawn for the entire Muscovite nation. Two serious outbreaks of social disorder, however, had occurred during the past month,—one in Kishinev, the other in Baku. The Kishinev outbreak was another anti-Jewish demonstration, resulting in some loss of life and destruction of property. The rioting at Baku, in Trans-Caucasia, has been far more serious, and has extended to all the neighboring region, developing into a race conflict between the Mohammedans and the Armenians. Many oil wells and naphtha refineries in the Baku oil region, which is one of the most extensive in the world, were fired, and much property, including extensive British holdings, was destroyed. The oil industry is practically ruined, involving a vast loss to the state, and hundreds of Armenians and Tatars have been killed in the conflicts with the troops. A state of civil war really exists in the Caucasus, chiefly due to the harsh policy of Prince Galitzen, the governor-general, in oppressing the Armenians and in confiscating their churches. This was accomplished with the aid of the Tatars, and thus a war of religion as well as of race was stirred up.

*Elections for
the Coming
Duma.*

By prohibiting the holding of popular meetings for discussion of the election of delegates to the imperial Duma, which the Emperor has decreed for January, the autocracy has succeeded in partially nullifying the liberal effect of the elections. It is true that a commission, under the presidency of Count Solski, was appointed to arrange for public assemblages for the discussion of the election, in the cities, though not in the country. In view of the predominance given to the peasant representation, this is regarded by the Liberals as an attempt to prevent the political education of the lower classes. The peasants will have, altogether, about 2,500 members, the landowners 1,900, and the cities 1,300. Thirty-six members will be returned from Poland. The Emperor's plan, which is now being elaborated by the Solski commission, further contemplates the formation of a council of ministers, to be under the presidency of a premier, a body corresponding to the cabinet in western European governments. Fear on the part of the Liberal element that the promised Duma would never be actually granted is giving place to the conviction that a representative assembly is a certainty in the near future, particularly in view of the fact that the bureaucracy itself is anxious to be rid of some of the responsibility for governmental administration. The higher members of this much-discussed bureaucracy, by the way, number some thirty thousand, and include thirty-seven hundred councilors, the imperial family, the generals of the army, the admirals of the navy, and the members of the Holy Synod.

*Rioting
in Tokio.*

Very bitter resentment was aroused in Tokio when the reports reached the Japanese capital,—even before the treaty had been signed,—that very important concessions had been made to obtain peace. Serious rioting, extending over three days, occurred in Tokio, during which the residences of several unpopular ministers, some public buildings, and several Christian churches were attacked by the excited populace, some of the buildings being torn down, and some set on fire. The office of the *Kokumin*, the government organ and the only newspaper which defended the terms of the treaty, was wrecked. The residence of Viscount Yoshikawa, minister of the interior, was burned, as were also seven Christian churches. The venerable Marquis Ito, who is generally credited with having been responsible for Japan's unexpected concessions in the terms of peace, was stoned in the streets of the capital, and his statue in Kobé was pulled down from its pedestal and dragged through the streets. Dur-



BARON JUTARO KOMURA, JAPAN'S SENIOR PEACE ENVOY.

(From a photograph taken at Portsmouth early in September.)

ing the fracas, stones were thrown at a party of American tourists in Tokio, including the financier, E. H. Harriman, not from any anti-American spirit, but by the lawless element of the Tokio streets. Demonstrations were also made before the houses of Count Katsura, the premier, and Baron Komura, the secretary of foreign affairs and senior peace envoy. During the riots, three persons were killed and about five hundred wounded. The city of Tokio was placed under martial law, five newspapers were suspended, and guards set before the American and British legations. The disturbances originated with the attempt of the police to prevent the holding of a mass-meeting in one of the public parks to protest against the treaty. It is estimated that more than one hundred thousand persons crowded about the gates of the park, and when the police gave way stormy scenes were enacted, many

of the orators denouncing the government, in which they were joined by members of the Diet.

*Resentment
Against the
Elder
Statesmen.*

The proclamation of martial law in the capital created a good impression, since, while the police are not popular in Tokio, the soldiers are. Disorders actually ceased, and with the resignation of Mr. Adachi, chief of the city police, and the statements to the people by the members of the cabinet, the Japanese capital once more resumed its wonted quiet and order. Premier Katsura, calling together informally a number of the members of the Diet, explained the situation and the terms of peace, and his words being reported to the populace did much to allay the excitement. Despite the announcement of Minister of the Navy Yamamoto that the capture of Vladivostok would have required a greater sacrifice of life than the attack on Port Arthur, and that of Marquis Yamagata that Japan needed an end of hostilities, the opposition papers were insistent in their demand for the resignation of the government. In submitting to the Emperor, in accordance with Japanese usage, their official statement explaining the necessity of instituting martial law in the capital, the government ministers asked the imperial judgment as to whether they should remain in office or retire. In reply, the Emperor advised his ministers to retain their posts, afterward, however, accepting the resignation of Viscount Yoshikawa, whose functions will be taken over by Count Kiyoura, the present minister of agriculture and commerce. The attack on Marquis Ito is symptomatic of a popular feeling which has been growing for some years that the so-called Elder Statesmen, Ito, Yamagata, Matsukata, and Inoué, represent a worn-out tradition that they are a relic of old Japan, whose usefulness is over. Marquis Ito's extreme caution is characterized by a popular saying that Ito would knock three times on a new stone bridge before stepping on it. That the advice of this Elder Statesman in persuading the Mikado to make his peace terms less exacting than the popular desire would have it was wise, far-seeing statesmanship is the conviction of the neutral world, and, moreover, it is coming to be the conviction of the more thoughtful Japanese.

*Effect of the
Peace on Jap-
anese Politics.*

The fear lest the chief object for which Japan went to war has not been actually attained, lest Russian aggression has not been effectually checked, lest, in the words of the *Novoye Vremya*, Russia "shall rest, and then doubtless go on,"—this has actuated powerful elements of opposition in Japan to the peace treaty. The contention that

the empire has yielded the fruits of her victories in the field to the pressure of the outside world, at the instigation of a timid, unworthy statesmanship, and that, before many years, she may again have to fight for her national existence, is set forth by Mr. Adachi Kinnosuke on another page (430) of this issue. The riots in Japanese cities, the calling for the resignation of the ministry, and the summoning of Ito, and even Komura, to commit suicide,—these are all indications of the old Japanese national spirit which regarded failure to accomplish an object as demanding the self-inflicted death of the one who had failed. This old Japanese spirit claims that the empire has failed in her object. Despite its brilliant victories, the navy, according to this idea, has failed. Hence, the sinking of Togo's gallant flagship, the *Mikasa* (which went down on September 10 with a loss of 256 killed and over 350 wounded), was not an accident. The *Mikasa* was disgraced, and committed suicide. The Katsura cabinet, which was more or less of a makeshift one at the beginning of the war, has been kept in office by the popular unity, partly due to the strain of the war, but largely to the splendid patriotism of the Japanese people. The new conditions brought about by peace would seem likely to effect a thorough reorganization of parties in Japan, with the downfall of the present ministry and a probable radical change in the institution known as the Privy Council, at present composed of the much-criticised Elder Statesmen.

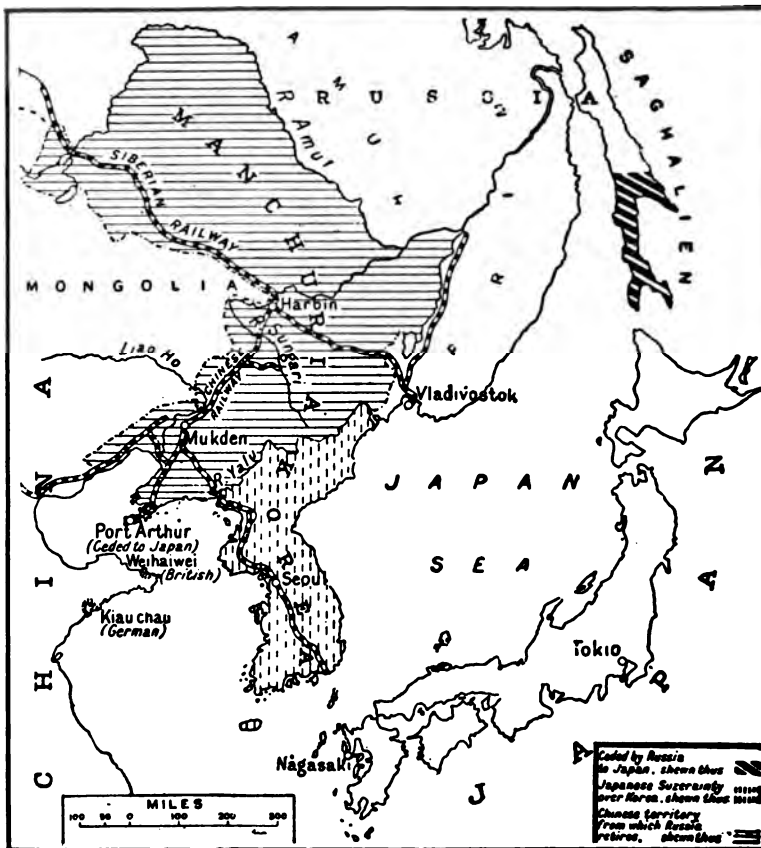
*Japan
After the
Peace.*

"Militant Japan passes and industrial Japan takes its place with the coming of peace." The words are Baron Kaneko's, and in uttering them the special envoy of the Mikado to this country, who was influential, perhaps more than any other Japanese except Marquis Ito, in bringing about the final peace settlement, has summed up the immediate future of his country. Despite her unbroken succession of victories and the practical certainty that she would continue victorious in her military operations had the war gone on, the contest has inevitably been a drain on the island empire. According to financial estimates, she could carry on the fighting for another year without placing other loans, as her people have not yet begun to feel the burden of war. The cessation of hostilities, however, will permit her sons to apply all their vigor and energy to the tasks of commerce and trade. Japan's commercial standing in the world has improved with the progress of the war. Her first foreign loan, at the commencement of the war, was floated at 8½ per cent. interest; her last at 5 per cent. Her trade has never been so prosperous, and the

harvests for two years past have been excellent. As a nation, Japan depends upon her maritime commerce largely, and her victory over Russia has opened to her the whole world east of Suez. The treaty opens Korea and Manchuria to her exploitation, and we may expect to see these regions soon invaded by an army of peace,—artisans, farmers, and laborers. Mr. H. W. Dennison, who framed the treaty for Japan, and whose knowledge of far-Eastern matters entitles him to speak with authority, declares that, even from a financial standpoint, Japan has gained much more than she went to war for, and much more than any indemnity she could possibly have exacted. The three essential points gained have been: the evacuation of Manchuria, the return of Port Arthur to China, and the withdrawal of Russia from Korea, and, of course, the immense gain in prestige. Mr. Dennison estimates the value of the railways transferred by Russia to Japan at \$150,000,000; and that of the Yentai and Fushan coal mines at \$300,000,000. Mr. Yamaza, secretary of the Japanese Bureau of Political Affairs, maintains that the fishing rights along the Siberian coast will be worth at least \$10,000,000 annually.

*Peace and
the Armies
in the Field.*

However indifferent may have been the reception of the peace terms in the Russian capital (and Mr. Stead's article on another page of this issue records the remarkable lack of interest on the part of the Russian masses), the conclusion of peace was very welcome to the Russian soldiers in the field, and to the great majority of the Japanese also. A large portion of General Linevich's army celebrated by toasting President Roosevelt. According to the treaty, an armistice was concluded on the signing, the terms of which were arranged by General Oranovski for the Russians and General Fukushima for the Japanese, which was effective from September 13. According to the terms of this armistice, a neutral zone has been established across which



JAPAN'S NEW FIELD OF INFLUENCE AND OPPORTUNITY IN THE FAR EAST.

neither side will advance. The gradual withdrawal of troops is to take place at the convenience of the commanding generals, but the evacuation must be complete within eighteen months from the signing of the treaty. While the world does not know just how large are the armies which the conclusion of peace has prevented from engaging in another terrific contest, it is certain that more than a million men are still under arms in Manchuria and Korea. A code word had been agreed upon which, had the peace terms failed, would have been flashed to General Linevich as the signal to hurl himself upon Marshal Oyama's forces. The Russian commander himself and many of his officers were disappointed at the conclusion of peace, as they wished their unbeaten commander to have an opportunity to meet the hitherto victorious enemy. It was Linevich's half-million men under arms which was Russia's chief reason for claiming that, though she had suffered reverses, she was not a vanquished nation. A naval armistice was concluded later by Rear-Admiral Jessen for Russia and Vice-Admiral Kamimura for Japan.

*The War
in
Retrospect.*

From the attack on the Russian Port Arthur ships, February 8, 1904, to the defeat of Admiral Rozhdestvenski's Baltic fleet by Admiral Togo, May 27, 28, and 29, last, the war has been, during its twenty months, a complete, uninterrupted Japanese victory. Japan has lost no engagement of any consequence either at sea or on land, while Russia leaves the field with her navy almost annihilated and without one single land victory worth mentioning to her credit. The best figures obtainable indicate that Russia sent between eight and nine hundred thousand men to Manchuria, of which 375,000 have been killed or incapacitated. The Japanese forces were approximately as large, though possibly a little less, and Japan's losses in men killed, wounded, and in hospitals are 250,000. The severe Japanese losses sustained during the siege of Port Arthur were almost neutralized by the superb medical and sanitary organization of the Mikado's armies, in which the best attainments of Western nations have been far surpassed. The approximate cost of the war to Russia was a thousand million dollars (these are the figures—which include the property destroyed—given by the *Official Gazette*, of St. Petersburg), while the Japanese losses were about one-half that amount. According to official figures, the Russian naval losses—17 battleships, 12 cruisers, and many torpedo boats and destroyers—footed up \$113,000,000. On the other hand, despite her loss of nine battleships, cruisers, and destroyers (approximately \$20,000,000), Japan emerges from the contest with a gain of \$30,000,000 in fighting ships. In the great battles of the Yalu, Nanshan, Telissu, Liao-Yang, Sha-ho, and Mukden, on the land, and the Port Arthur and Sea of Japan engagements on the sea, Japan lost but two generals, while Russia lost six generals and four admirals. Beyond all this there is the immense moral and political value of the prestige in both Europe and Asia, which has been quietly but absolutely transferred from Russia to Japan. The Land of the Rising Sun is now the first nation of the far East, and Russia's Manchurian venture is ended for generations,—if not forever.

*The
Awakening
of China.*

Evidences have not been wanting during the progress of the war between Russia and Japan of a real awakening to modern conditions of progress in China. The peace settlement itself will be of immense benefit to the empire, which, according to acute observers of Eastern conditions, will itself some day become the power in the Orient. Following closely upon the news that China had bought back the Canton-Hankow railroad from

the American syndicate controlled by J. P. Morgan & Co. despite all the efforts of the American and Belgian holders to prevent it, came the announcement by Sir Chentung Liang-Cheng, the Chinese minister at Washington, that the Peking government is evolving a vast plan for the gradual emancipation of China from foreign tutelage in industry and commerce and for the emulation of Japan's example in adopting educational reforms to pave the way for Western civilization. Thousands of Chinese students are in Japanese schools learning the arts of peace. Thousands of Chinamen are being trained by Japanese and German instructors in the military art. One of the concrete indications of the fact that the Peking government is really awakening is the intention announced by the Chinese ambassador to construct, under Chinese auspices, a great trunk railway, traversing the central and most fertile provinces of the empire, from Canton to Peking. This line will go through the three important provinces of Kwangtung, Hunan, and Hepeh, and the Canton-Hankow concession will form its southern branch. The release of Manchuria from Russia's exclusive control will give to the Chinese the opportunity which they are best adapted to embrace,—that of commercial progress.

*British
Imperial
Politics.*

After visiting the French fleet at Brest and receiving the return call at Portsmouth, the British Channel fleet took its long-expected and much-discussed trip to the Baltic. Along the coast of Holland, at Danish and Scandinavian ports, and even in German waters, the cruise was almost an ovation. There was some anti-British grumbling in some of the German press against the coming of the fleet into the Baltic as a British insult to the German navy, but the Kaiser himself sent a squadron to welcome the British ships at Swinemünde, and the two navies fraternized cordially. British imperial politics during the past month had been further marked by two important occurrences. These were the renewal of the alliance with Japan (or, rather, the announcement of it) and the developments in the situation in India. Three days before the adjournment of Parliament (August 11), the new treaty was signed between England and Japan, the provisions of which, however, were not given out until the conclusion of the peace conference at Portsmouth. The old alliance was purely a defensive one. The new one provides for common action for both defensive and offensive purposes. The terms have not yet been made public, but are really a cementing of British-Japanese relations so closely that the future of the continent of Asia for a generation



LORD MINTO, THE NEW VICEROY OF INDIA.

at least seems assured. Lord Curzon's resignation as viceroy of India came about as the direct result of the refusal of the British cabinet to appoint his nominee as military member of the viceroy's advisory council. It really, however, marks the end of the conflict of two strong minds—Curzon and Kitchener—and two irreconcilable principles—those of civil and military control of the army in India. The new viceroy, Gilbert John Elliot, Earl of Minto, has had a long experience in imperial politics. He has been governor-general of Canada. He is known to be in sympathy with Lord Kitchener's plan for the defense of India. A discussion of the present social and political conditions in Great Britain's Asiatic possessions and the future which is before India, by the eminent authority, Sir Henry Cotton, is found on page 453 of the REVIEW this month.

*A Forecast
of the Coming
Parliament.*

British internal politics have seemed to wait on the fate of the Balfour ministry, which still hangs in the balance. In a recent interview with a Canadian newspaper on the political situation in England, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, the ex-chancellor of the exchequer, predicted that there will be no general election this year. He believes that Mr. Balfour will meet Parliament next February, as usual, that he will fail to carry through his bill for the redistribution of seats in England and Ireland, and that on this measure he will appeal to the constituencies and be overwhelmingly defeated. Sir Michael expects to see from thirty-five to forty Labor members on the government benches in the new House of Commons. This admission, with no apprehensive comments, from so typical a representative of the Tory squirearchy as Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, is particularly significant. It is worth while, in view of the recent pessimistic reports about British trade, to read the figures of British commerce for 1905 issued by the Board of Trade. These show that the imports and exports for the year ending with that month, for the United Kingdom, were the largest on record. Since January last, the increase in imports has been more than \$46,000,000, and in exports nearly \$89,000,000.

*Affairs
in Central
Europe.*

Slowly but surely, the effect of the far-Eastern war is becoming evident in central Europe. The peoples of Germany, Austria, France, and Italy are awakening to the fact that, while Russia's defeat by Japan has necessitated a radical reshaping of political groups on the Continent, the conclusion of peace, permitting Russia to make use in Europe of General Linevich's vast Manchurian army, has modified the new conditions and tended toward restoring a state of stable equilibrium. It was Russia's temporary effacement by Japan which, beyond a doubt, encouraged Germany to attempt France's discomfiture in the Morocco affair, the outcome of which was the solidifying of the Anglo-French agreement. It is now the release of Russia from her misadventure in Manchuria which modifies Germany's foreign policy, compelling her to take thought for the future of her possessions in China in the face of a victorious Japan, and inevitably necessitating a modified tone toward France all along the lines of German relations with the republic. Despite frequent hitches, the Morocco problem bids fair to reach an early and peaceful settlement. The developments of the past month have been Germany's official denial of the charge that she had forced the Moorish Sultan to yield her a port and the agreement between the two powers



THE CONFERENCE AT KARLSTAD, SWEDEN, SETTLING THE SCANDINAVIAN CRISIS.

(Reading from left to right, standing: Mr. K. Staaff [Swedish], a Swedish secretary; Mr. N. Hammarskjöld [Swedish], a Swedish secretary; Mr. Lövland [Norwegian]; Mr. Vogt [Norwegian], a Norwegian secretary. Sitting: Count Wachtmeister [Swedish foreign secretary], Mr. Lundberg [Swedish premier], Mr. Michelsen [Norwegian premier], Mr. Berner [Norwegian].)

to hold the international conference at Algeciras, in Spain, instead of at Madrid or Tangier. Germany is having no easy task in adjusting her tariff relations with Russia and the United States. Meanwhile, a cholera epidemic of no small proportions, resulting in sixty-five deaths, has been agitating the eastern and southern provinces of the empire, extending from Hamburg into Russia and Austria. Southern Italy has suffered from a series of severe earthquake shocks, a number of villages in Calabria having been entirely destroyed and many lives lost. King Victor Emmanuel has been tireless in his personal efforts to aid the sufferers. Austria has been celebrating the seventy-fifth birthday of her aged Emperor, Francis Joseph, who retains the respect and affection of his many-tongued subjects. The Hungarian situation, however, is still unsettled, the Fejervary cabinet having, as was expected, been forced to resign early in September.

Norway and Sweden in Conference. The joint commission of Sweden and Norway to negotiate the points in dispute between the two nations and arrange for the peaceable dissolution of the union met at Karlstad on August 31. The Swedish delegates were: Premier Christian Lundberg; Count A. F. Wachtmeister, minister of foreign affairs; Mr. Hammarskjöld, minister of education and ecclesiastical affairs; and Mr. Staaf, cabinet member without portfolio. Norway was represented by Premier Michelsen, Foreign Minister Lövland, President of the Storting Berner, and Mr. Vogt, formerly minister

of the interior. Sweden's demands that the fortifications along the border be dismantled were vigorously opposed by Norway, and for several days the feeling was very pessimistic. By the end of September, however, the negotiations had proceeded far enough for the world to feel confident that the peace and friendship between the two brother peoples would not be broken.

The Presidential Campaign in Cuba.

Cuban politics has been rather exciting since the nominating convention of September 9, at which President Palma was unanimously re-chosen by the Moderate party for reelection, Mendes Capote receiving the nomination for vice-president. The platform declares for a reciprocity treaty with the United States, but no direct mention is made of the Platt amendment, as the Moderate party considers that matter settled. The trade treaty with Great Britain, which was signed last May and is now awaiting ratification, has received considerable adverse criticism on the ground that Cuban commercial interests with the United States are too great to permit her granting for ten years such special privileges to British shipping and citizens as are provided for in the treaty. A number of commercial associations have declared emphatically against ratification. In general, Cuba is prospering, and public works and other matters are going on apace. Late in August, President Palma signed the bill providing for the payment of \$28,500,000 to the Cuban veterans of the war with Spain. This is in addition to the large sum already provided for that purpose.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From August 21 to September 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

August 21.—The naval court of inquiry on the *Bennington* explosion finds that the vessel's boilers were not defective and suggests a court-martial for Ensign Charles T. Wade, the only survivor of those whom the court holds responsible for the accident....A separate Statehood convention assembles at Muskogee, Indian Territory.

August 22.—Edwin H. Conger, ambassador to Mexico, resigns from the diplomatic service....At the Democratic primaries held in Virginia, United States Senator Martin defeats Gov. A. J. Montague for the Senatorship and Claude A. Swanson is nominated for governor.

August 26.—The federal grand jury at Portland, Ore., indicts Claude F. Thayer, the son of ex-Governor Thayer, and others for participation in the land frauds.

August 28.—Edwin S. Holmes, Jr., indicted in the government cotton report scandal, surrenders and gives \$10,000 bail at Washington.

August 29.—Secretary Taft's party of Congressmen at Manila give a hearing to agitators for the immediate independence of the Philippines.

August 30.—Secretary Bonaparte disapproves the report of the naval court of inquiry on the *Bennington* disaster and orders a court-martial for Commander Young, who was in command of the gunboat.

August 31.—President Roosevelt fixes the pay of expert advisers to the Panama Canal Commission at \$5,000 and \$15 per diem and other expenses.

September 1.—The foreign and American engineers constituting the advisory board of the Panama Canal Commission organize in Washington.

September 2.—Secretary Bonaparte announces the detail of the court-martial to try Commander Young and Ensign Wade for the *Bennington* explosion.

September 3.—District Attorney Jerome declares positively that he will not be a candidate for mayor of New York City.

September 4.—President Roosevelt appoints Robert Bacon, of New York, Assistant Secretary of State to succeed Francis B. Loomis....It is announced that the United States Civil Service Commission will establish agencies in New York, New Orleans, and Chicago for the employment of labor for the Panama Canal.



HON. CLAUDE A. SWANSON.
(Democratic candidate for governor of Virginia.)

September 5.—President Roosevelt demands the resignation of Frank W. Palmer, Public Printer, because of trouble in the Government Printing Office.... The trials of packers in Chicago for violation of the anti-trust laws are postponed.

September 6.—The New York legislative insurance committee begins its public investigation of insurance methods in New York City.

September 8.—Public Printer Palmer having declined to resign, he is summarily dismissed from the government service by President Roosevelt.

September 10.—The report of the Keep Commission on the government printing scandals is published.

September 14.—The State auditor of Indiana is superseded in office, on the order of Governor Hanly, because of "betrayal of public trust."

September 16.—President Roosevelt's suggestions to the Panama Canal engineers calling for speed in construction are made public in Washington....The political fight in Philadelphia against Mayor Weaver is begun.

September 18.—A clerk in the public health service in Washington confesses to embezzling \$20,000 of the funds of the service.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

August 21.—A general strike begins in Poland, as a manifestation of discontent with the treatment of the Polish population in the proposed constitution.

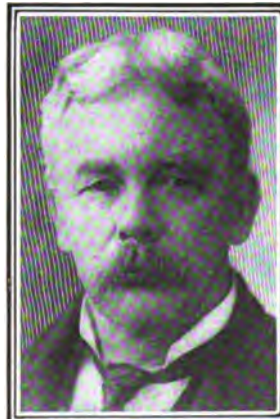
August 22.—Reports from various quarters in Russia indicate public dissatisfaction with the details of

the scheme for a national assembly.... The Norwegian Storting, in secret session, by a vote of 104 to 11, passes a resolution requesting the Swedish state authorities to cooperate with it in the dissolution of the union....A conference is held at Ischl, under the presidency of Emperor Francis Joseph, to consider the present Hungarian political crisis.

August 24.—The government of Warsaw is placed under martial law....A new ministry is formed in Western Australia by Mr. C. H. Rason....

At a Swedish cabinet council, it is decided to accede to the Norwegian request for the cooperation of Sweden in dissolving the union.

August 25.—Lord Kitchener protests against Lord Curzon's telegram concerning his proposals.



"CORPORAL" JAMES TANNER.
(Commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.)

August 28.—At a meeting of professors at the Odessa University, it is decided to abstain from the university work until the Russian people are given civil rights and the universities are granted full academic autonomy.

August 29.—The Chinese Government cancels the rights and concessions of the Canton-Hankow railway, paying an indemnity of \$6,750,000 to the American-China Development Company.... A Chinese government official ordered to settle the boycott troubles fines Chinese merchants for selling American goods.

August 30.—The Bulgarian ministry is reconstructed under Petkoff.

August 31.—The Prussian cabinet takes preventive measures against the spread of cholera.

September 1.—The British imperial army council decides to give Canada fortifications in Nova Scotia free, and supplies, ammunition, and small arms at cost.

September 5.—The executive committee of the Zemstvo Congress at Moscow votes to take an active part in the national assembly elections.

September 6.—Further anti-Jewish outrages are reported from Kishinev.... The entire Baku region, in Russia, is under control of the rioters.

September 10.—The Czar of Russia issues a ukase placing the government of the universities in the hands of the professors.

September 11.—The legal execution of a Socialist leader excites a general strike in Warsaw.... The Hungarian proposal for universal suffrage is rejected by Emperor Francis Joseph.

September 14.—As a result of the dispersal of the meeting of Finnish representatives at Helsingfors, threats are made to kill the governor-general of Finland.... Emperor Francis Joseph accepts the resignation of the Hungarian cabinet.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

August 22.—France demands of Morocco an indemnity for the arrest of a Franco-Algerian citizen.

August 24.—The French council of ministers decides on a military demonstration against Morocco unless the Franco-Algerian citizen is promptly released.

August 25.—London announces the signing of a new Anglo-Japanese treaty of alliance.

August 26.—The Sultan of Morocco refuses to recognize control by France over Franco-Algerian citizens and to release the imprisoned merchant; France prepares to enforce her demand.

August 28.—The French Government orders two cruisers held in readiness to sail for Morocco.

August 29.—The peace plenipotentiaries of Russia



HON. HENRY ST. GEORGE TUCKER.
(Retiring president of the American Bar Association and new head of the Jamestown Fair.)



From the London Graphic.

THE HISTORIC MEETING THAT EXCITED ALL EUROPE.

(An interesting photograph of Czar Nicholas and Kaiser Wilhelm in conversation at Bjorkoe.)

and Japan reach an agreement on all points, Japan waiving indemnity, the possession of the interned warships, and the limitation of Russian naval power in the far East, while Saghalien is to be divided between Russia and Japan (see page 418).

August 30.—The Sultan of Morocco releases the Franco-Algerian merchant under a threat of military demonstration, but offers neither an apology nor an indemnity to France.

August 31.—Delegates from Norway and Sweden open the conference at Karlstad, Sweden, to arrange the terms for the dissolution of the union of the two countries.

September 1.—The Russo-Japanese peace plenipotentiaries agree on an armistice to become operative on the signing of the treaty.

September 2.—France presents her ultimatum to Morocco on the question of the release of the Franco-Algerian prisoner.

September 5.—The Russo-Japanese plenipotentiaries sign the treaty of peace at the Portsmouth navy yard.... President Castro,



HON. GEORGE R. PECK.
(New president of the American Bar Association.)

of Venezuela, receives United States Minister Russell and Special Agent Calhoun, appointed to investigate the relations between the United States and Venezuela.... The general manager of the French Cable Company protests against the Venezuelan decree closing the company's offices.

September 6.—Much popular disappointment over the peace terms with Russia is manifested in Tokio and other parts of Japan.

September 11.—Turkey refuses to accept the contention of the United States in the case of an Armenian naturalized in the United States and under sentence of death at Stamboul.

September 12.—Relations between Roumania and Greece are severely strained, the Greek minister having left Roumania and orders having been sent to the Roumanian minister to leave Greece.

September 15.—Representatives of General Linevich and Marshal Oyama meet and sign an armistice providing a neutral zone of four kilometers between the Russian and Japanese armies.

September 18.—An official announcement in regard to the deliberations of the commissioners of Sweden and Norway at Karlstad indicates that all fears of war between the two countries are passed.

September 18.—It is reported from St. Petersburg that the Czar of Russia intends to invite the powers to a second peace conference at The Hague.... Russia makes a strong protest to the Porte regarding fortifications which Turkey is building on the Bosphorus.... Points of dispute between Norway and Sweden are intrusted to a sub-committee of delegates at Karlstad.

September 19.—The French minister to Venezuela lodges a protest against that government's action in the case of the French Cable Company.... Turkey yields



MR. SALVATORE CORTESI.

(The Rome correspondent of the American Associated Press, an Italian journalist who represented at Portsmouth several influential Italian dailies.)

the first step in regard to the rights of American citizens in that country.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

August 23.—The American Bar Association holds its annual meeting at Narragansett Pier, R. I.... A. Roy Knabenshue makes a successful voyage in his airship over New York City.

August 25.—President Roosevelt spends some time under water on the submarine boat *Plunger*.... The mining towns of Berwind and Tabasco, Colo., are swept by floods following a cloudburst; 18 lives are believed to have been lost.... A Japanese transport which comes into collision with a British steamer in the Sea of Japan is sunk and 160 Japanese on board are drowned.

August 26.—A new scientific process for manufacturing diamonds is reported as discovered by Dr. C. V. Burton, of Cambridge, England.

August 28.—The American steamship *Peconic*, loaded with coal, sinks off the Florida



WRECK OF AN ELEVATED TRAIN IN NEW YORK ON SEPTEMBER 11, 1905.

coast, and 28 of her crew are drowned.... The Interparliamentary Congress opens at Brussels.... The members of the British Association for the Advancement of Science arrive at Johannesburg.

August 20.—The largest steamship in the world is launched at Stettin in the presence of Emperor William of Germany.

August 30.—Three earthquake shocks are felt in New Hampshire.... The eclipse of the sun is invisible at American observatories because of clouds, but shows a magnificent corona in Egypt, Algeria, Tunis, and other observation points.... Cholera becomes epidemic in Germany near the Russian border.

August 31.—The United States battleship *Vermont* is launched at Quincy, Mass.... The Depew Improvement Company pays the Equitable Life Assurance Society the principal and interest of a loan made in 1893.... Cholera in Germany spreads to Hamburg.

September 3.—Los Angeles, Cal., is visited by a heavy earthquake without material damage.

September 7.—The Southern Cotton Growers' Association fixes the minimum price of cotton at 11 cents.

September 8.—An earthquake in Calabria, Italy, destroys 18 villages and causes the loss of 400 lives.... Corporal James Tanner is elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.

September 10.—Plans are announced in London to raise \$80,000,000 to carry out the Irish Land Act.... The Japanese battleship *Mikasa*, Admiral Togo's flagship, is sunk by the explosion of a magazine and more than 200 lives are lost.

September 11.—An elevated railroad car is thrown from the track to the street by a misplaced switch in New York City; 12 passengers are killed and more than 40 injured.

September 12.—The bridge of the Cape to Cairo Railway across the Zambesi River is formally opened in the presence of members of the British Association.

OBITUARY.

August 21.—Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge, editor of *St. Nicholas* and writer of children's stories, 67.... Rev. Jacob Luther Grimm, former chaplain-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 63.... Admiral Sir Arthur Cochrane, K.C.B., 81.... M. Jules Oppert, of Paris, 80.

August 22.—Alfred Waterhouse, R.A., a well-known English architect, 75.... Dr. D. B. Monro, provost of Oriel, Oxford, 68.... William Rininger, M.D., investigator of the symptoms and cure of consumption.

August 23.—Dr. James H. Salisbury, an investigator in the field of microscopy, 82.... Walter H. Whitten, a pioneer manufacturer of turbine water-wheels, 78.

August 24.—Ephraim A. Jacob, legal writer, 60.

August 26.—Eduardo Yero, Cuban secretary of public instruction.

August 27.—Mrs. Katherine Bailey Foot, contributor to American magazines, 63.... Rev. Amos Sheffield Chesebrough, D.D., one of the oldest Congregational clergymen in Connecticut, 92.

August 28.—Ellis A. Apgar, for twenty years State superintendent of public instruction in New Jersey, 70.

August 29.—Frederick H. Rindge, philanthropist, 47.... Octave A. Bullion, Confederate veteran and large cotton-gin operator.... Rev. C. E. Tisdall, D.D., chancellor of Christ Church Cathedral, Dublin.

August 31.—Francisco Tamagno, Italian tenor, 56.... Ex-Lieutenant Governor Mueller, of Ohio, 83.

September 1.—Joseph O. Smith, former secretary of state of Maine, 66.

September 4.—Col. Finlay Anderson, a well-known New York journalist, 67.... Edward E. Edwards, a well-known newspaper worker of Boston, 67.... Maj.-Gen. Robert McCulloch, of the Confederate army, 85.

September 5.—Hezekiah Butterworth, author and journalist, 66.... Gen. Thomas T. Crittenden, veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 77.

September 6.—Former Justice Judson S. Landon, of the New York Supreme Court, 75.

September 7.—Lieut.-Gen. A. von Boguslawski, a well-known military writer, 71.... Dr. Thomas Menees, of Tennessee, member of the Confederate Congress, 82.

September 8.—Cardinal Raphael Pierotti, 69.... Henry Slade, the Spiritualistic medium, 80.

September 12.—Gen. Lawrence Pike Graham, U.S.A. (retired), a veteran of the Seminole, Mexican, and Civil wars, 90.

September 13.—René Goblet, former president of the French council of ministers, 77.... Brig.-Gen. George S. Weeks, U.S.A. (retired), 71.

September 14.—Mayor Patrick A. Collins, of Boston, 61.

September 15.—Count de Brazza, the French explorer, 53.



THE LATE MAYOR PATRICK A. COLLINS, OF BOSTON.

September 16.—Julian Magnus, the well-known theatrical manager, 55.... L. T. Carver, the Maine State librarian, 64.

September 17.—Brig.-Gen. Daniel W. Benham, U.S.A. (retired), 68.

September 18.—George MacDonald, the Scotch novelist, 81.... Gen. Isaac J. Wistar, of Philadelphia, philanthropist and scientist, 78.

September 19.—Dr. Thomas J. Barnardo, of London, founder and director of philanthropic institutions, 60.

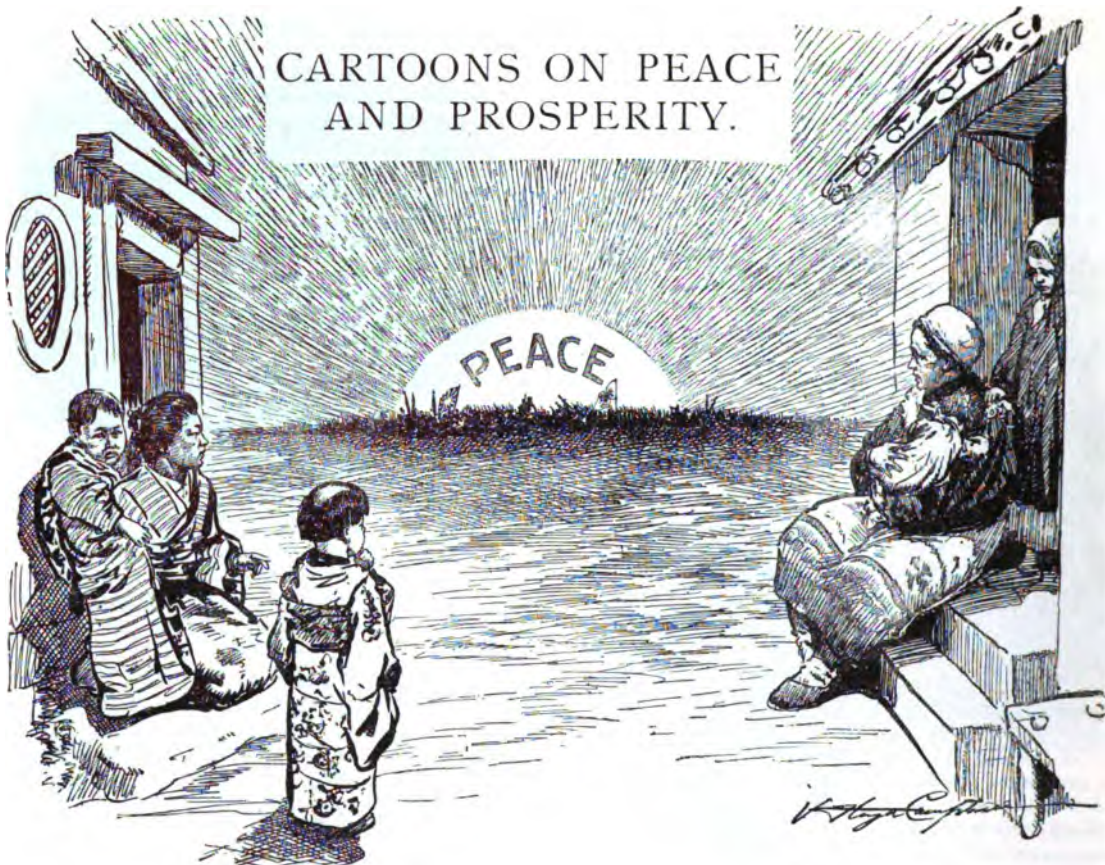
September 20.—Adolf Hedin, "Father of the Swedish Riksdag".... Frederic Lawrence Knowles, a Boston poet, 36.... Rev. Henry R. Lockwood, D.D., of Syracuse, N. Y., 62.



THE LATE MRS. MARY MAPES DODGE.

(Editor of *St. Nicholas*.)

CARTOONS ON PEACE AND PROSPERITY.



THE REAL BENEFICIARIES OF PEACE.—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE FLIGHT OF THE EAGLE.
(From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).)



THE RUSSIAN ARMY: "Hurrah for Rooseveltvitch!"—
(On getting news of peace, the Russian soldiers in Man-
churia drank to the health of President Roosevelt.)
(From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).)



THE "BIG STICK" IN A NEW RÔLE.

UNCLE SAM (looking at the olive branches wreathing the Roosevelt club): "Well, I guess a little strenuousness is worth while in peace as well as in war."

From the Press (Philadelphia).



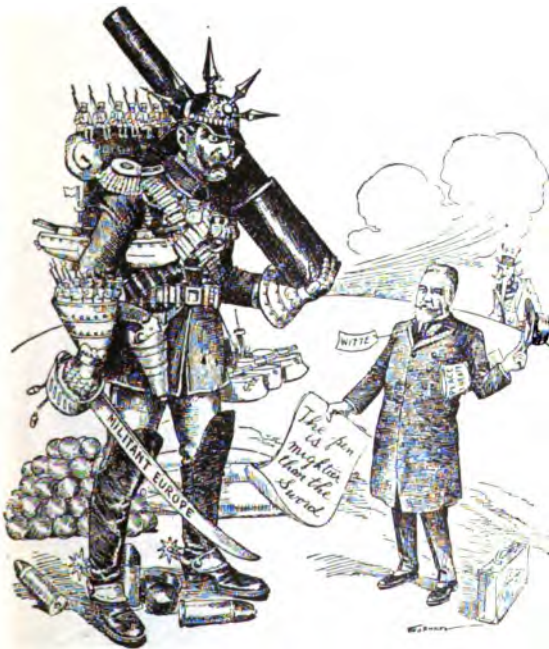
CONGRATULATIONS.

From the North American (Philadelphia).



THE LATEST ECLIPSE.

From the World (New York).



THE MESSENGER FROM AMERICA.

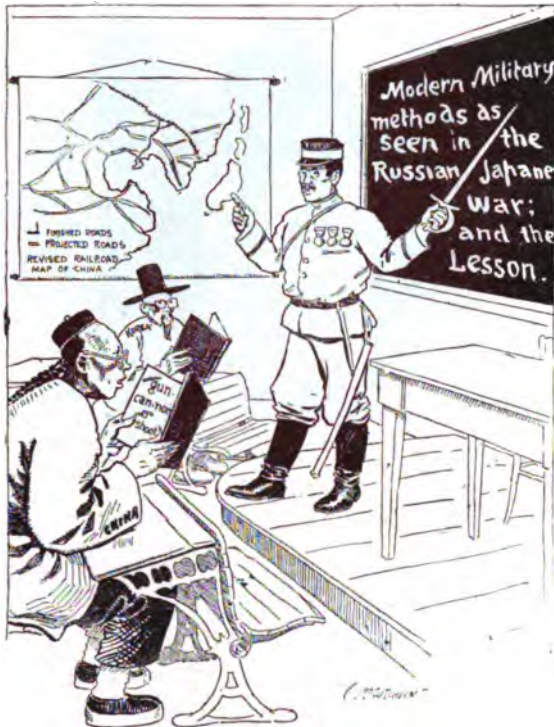
WITTE (fresh from contact with a free press among a free people): "The most profound impression I carry back to Europe is that the pen indeed is mightier than the sword."

From the Press (Philadelphia.)



THE DEBT THAT CAN NEVER BE REPAYED.

From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland).



SCHOOL IS ABOUT TO OPEN IN THE FAR EAST.

Japan as the new teacher of modern military methods.
From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



DISTANCE LENDS ENCHANTMENT TO THE NEWS.

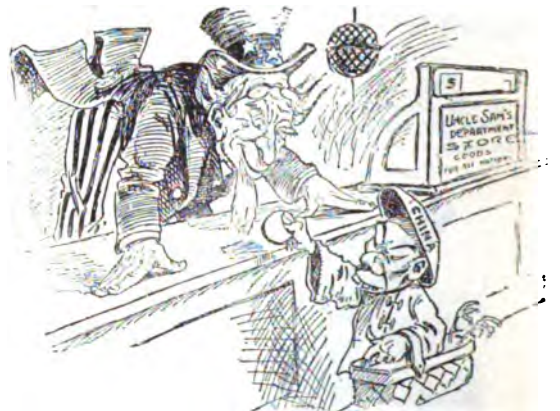
JAPAN: "The Russians must be brutes."
U. S. A.: "Those Japs are just savages, after all."
RUSSIA: "Those Americans are horribly cruel."

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



THE MAN OF THE HOUR.

The Cuban people congratulate President Roosevelt on his success as a peacemaker.—From *La Discusion* (Havana).



UNCLE SAM (to China): "Why, I thought you had boycotted this store!"

(The Chinese Government has ordered 500,000 barrels of flour from Minneapolis mills.)

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



UNCLE SAM IS FLYING HIGH THESE DAYS.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE FARMER: "Don't look much like hard times, eh, mother?"—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



TO MAKE HIM SAFE.

UNCLE SAM (the agent, to life insurance president): "Say, what you need, old man, is to take out a policy with me."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



MR. W. J. BRYAN SAILS FOR EUROPE IN QUEST OF A REMEDY FOR UNCLE SAM'S CONDITION.
From the *Post* (Washington).



Photograph by Conners, Portsmouth.

THE RUSSIAN PEACE ENVOYS AT PORTSMOUTH, WITH THEIR STAFF AND THE NEWSPAPER CORRESPONDENTS.

THE MAKING OF A MODERN TREATY OF PEACE.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

FOR nearly two years, the world has been hearing how Russia and Japan make war. It has been a thrilling story of tremendous significance. But even more thrilling and much more significant is the story of how, at the invitation of the American President, they have at last made peace. Those who were privileged to be in the historic old American town of Portsmouth during the closing hours of the conference felt that the gathering had begun a new era in international relations, an era in which Hague tribunals and peace treaties will be more plentiful than international wars and hatreds.

Twenty-one and one-half centuries ago, an Asiatic people, the Carthaginians, vanquished the Romans, then leaders of the European world. The terms of the treaty were delivered orally on the field of battle, while the discomfited Romans passed beneath the yoke and their officers were taken prisoners and exposed to the most humiliating indignities, giving up their armor, their personal property, and even their cloaks. In the year of grace 1905 another Asiatic people, the victorious Japanese, and their vanquished European opponents made peace in a council chamber in the United States of America, ten thousand miles from the field of action. The envoys frater-

nized, and parted almost as friends. There were no brutal exactions, and the whole world agrees that the Orient has proved herself even greater in peace than she had been in war. The generous and wise policy of Japan has not only begun an era of good feeling with her former enemy, with no Alsace-Lorraine to rankle in the Russian heart, but it has also raised the whole code of international ethics. In the future, no Occidental nation will dare to be less civilized in making war or less magnanimous in making peace than Oriental Japan.

The American people and Theodore Roosevelt should be grateful to the Russo-Japanese war for one thing at least. It has furnished us as a nation, and our President as a chief magistrate, an opportunity to demonstrate, beyond the shadow of a doubt, that we are an intensely peace-loving nation, and that the man with the "big stick," the man who has been accused of ostentatious bluster,—who, we have been told, was fairly aching to embroil us with the rest of the world,—is really a peacemaker. It is probable that Theodore Roosevelt will be known in history, not for his charge up San Juan Hill, but for his brave and high-principled efforts in bringing about the peace between Russia and Japan. He

was preëminently the peacemaker of Portsmouth, but in his three appeals to the Czar and two to the Mikado there can be found no attempt to defeat justice. He waited until he could advise without injustice or offense. There is a peace of injustice,—a temporary, timid peace,—but the real peace is that for which men are willing to fight if need be. A peace which ignores the legitimate rights and the unjustified wrongs of a situation, which would set at naught in the council chamber the bloody sacrifices and heroism of the field of battle, can never be just or permanent.

The popular conception of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary meeting and bargaining over terms of peace at the conclusion of a war is really a misconception. It is on the field of battle that the terms of a peace treaty which is at all just and lasting are made. Diplomacy never yet fully settled an international problem. The brain, the physical manhood, and the national self-respect are, after all, the final deciding factors. However the envoys at Portsmouth might debate, Russia's proprietorship, interest, and leasehold in Port Arthur and the Liao-Tung peninsula went to Japan during the bloody campaign, from the time that Oku's men charged up the Nanshan to the hours when Nogi's veterans took the Russian works at 203-Metre Hill. The control of Manchuria passed from Russia, not in the coun-

cil chamber at Portsmouth, but during those dramatic hours of intense world-significance when Kuropátkin's legions were scattered to the winds at Liao-Yang, at Sha-ho, and at Mukden. Korea became Japanese by right of the brain of Admiral Togo and the sacrifice of his men in those marvelous naval actions from Chemulpho to Tsushima. The best part of Saghalien is again Japanese, not because the Portsmouth treaty says so, but because of the dash and efficiency of Admiral Kataoka's gunboats. Indemnity, guarantees of future lines of conduct, surrender of interned warships,—these were proper subjects for negotiation, for arbitration. But Japan's paramouncy in the Orient is an accomplished fact, not because the treaty conceded her so much, nor because the Anglo-Japanese pact gives her the support of England's naval might, but because, from that fateful day on the Yalu River to the closing hours of that other May day one year later when Rozhstvenski's armada went adrift on the rocks of Liancourt, the sons of Nippon had demonstrated their right, by body, brain, and spirit, to stand among the great powers of the earth.

THE MAKING OF THE TREATY.

It seems strange, but it is certainly significant of the eminent position occupied by the United States in world-affairs, that the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan should have been de-



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THE JAPANESE ENVOYS AT PORTSMOUTH, WITH THEIR STAFF AND THE NEWSPAPER CORRESPONDENTS.

liberated and signed in an American city and written in the French and English languages. The copy of the treaty of Portsmouth which Professor Martens has taken for the inspection of his Majesty the Russian Czar is written in French and English. The copy which will be handed to his Majesty the Mikado is engrossed in English and French. All other copies of the instrument, even the texts in Japanese and Russian, are, officially, translations. In case of a disagreement as to interpretation, the French text is to be the authority. Thus does the traditional language of diplomacy maintain its preëminence, hard pressed, however, by our all-conquering English.

There were moments of great tension during the deliberations, and to the waiting world it more than once seemed as though the sessions of the conference between the Russian and the Japanese envoys were very long-drawn-out. But, in the light of the vast interests involved, of the immense forces, ambitions, and human stakes bound up in the results, the discussions over the conference table at Portsmouth were swift,—even dramatically so. The actual story of the deliberations between the four envoys and their secretaries is not a long one. Months before, the neutral world began to discuss Japan's probable terms of peace and the extent to which Russia would concede her defeat. When the two empires agreed, in response to President Roosevelt's invitation, to send peace commissioners to Portsmouth, the world wondered whether Mr. Witte and Baron Rosen, Baron Komura and Mr. Takahira, were actually clothed with full powers to conclude a peace. Officially, they were so clothed with power. When the deadlock came over certain of the terms, however, it was evident that the negotiations had been taken out of the hands of the envoys, and that the parley was between St. Petersburg and Tokio, with Washington,—or, rather, Oyster Bay,—as mouthpiece for both. Baron Komura laid before Mr. Witte twelve articles embodying the terms upon which Japan offered peace. It is now an open secret that there was a thirteenth term, suppressed, it is claimed in some quarters, at the instigation of the American President, as being unjust and exorbitant.

The method of procedure was methodical and business-like. After reading the entire list of the Japanese demands, Mr. Witte agreed to a majority of them for his country, but positively declined to consider those which required the cession of territory or the payment of money. The terms were then taken up one by one, and at the end of each session the day's proceedings, embodied in a protocol, were agreed upon and

signed officially by all of the four envoys. Great care was taken in the preparation of these protocols, and, in substance, they formed the basis of the treaty. Where no agreement was possible, an article was temporarily passed by, the disagreement being recorded in the protocol of the day's proceedings. The proceedings were conducted in any language preferred by the envoys, but were translated into French for the Russians and into English for the Japanese. The sessions of the conference were, of course, secret, those present at the deliberations being only the envoys and the three secretaries of each commission. While the formal deliberations were held in the Navy Stores Building, on the government island,—which, by the way, is in Maine,—and under guard of United States marines, much of the business of the treaty-making was done in the rooms of the Hotel Wentworth, at Newcastle, N. H., where the envoys and their suites were quartered; and it was at the Wentworth, of course, that the newspaper correspondents, by the methods known to their craft, obtained the reports of the proceedings and the substance of the peace terms, which, in the words of one of the chief envoys themselves, "while not absolutely accurate, are wonderfully near being exact." It is an open secret that what we now know of the terms came almost exclusively from Russian sources. When the actual wording is known, if any corrections are to be made they will probably make Japan's case look better.

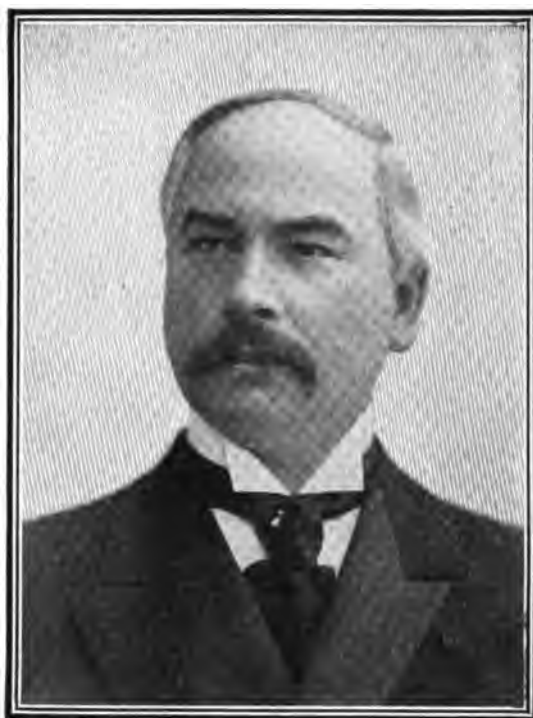
A prominent member of the Japanese staff, whose remarks were submitted to and not contradicted by an equally high authority on the other side, declared that, while the exact details of the proceedings could not be made public, there was no objection to stating that the "broad characteristics and tendencies underlying the endeavors of either side" during the debate might be summarized as follows:

The Japanese purpose, as discerned in the twelve original proposals, was fourfold,—(1) to restore the political conditions which the treaty of Shimonoseki was intended to establish; (2) to remove or counteract the disturbing political, economic, and military factors which have come into existence since then; (3) to do away with the influence of the aggressive policy of Muraviev and Alexiev in China; and (4) to release China and Korea from the spell of Russian ascendancy and restore to the Western world political and commercial rights long withheld.

The Russian argument aimed,—(1) to prove that Russia had intended all along to restore what was not her own, but that she resented the attempt of Japan to humiliate her by compulsion; (2) she declined to permit the wording of

the treaty clauses to convey the impression that Japan was dictating, while Russia was obeying; (3) instead of permitting Japan to take for herself the honor of championing China and Korea, Russia herself took their part, insisting that their international status should be fairly reckoned with, and endeavoring to revive rights of theirs which she declared Japan had violated; and (4) in declining to dispute the substance of a demand she insisted on such wording of a proposal that she should not be construed as signing away rights other than her own, or as concurring at a policy of absorption in the future which she was unable to indorse.

When the protocols had all finally been prepared, the phrasing of the treaty itself was intrusted to the two international law experts,—Prof. Theodore Martens, for Russia, and Mr. Henry W. Dennison, for Japan. The actual wording of the treaty was done chiefly in Professor Martens' room at the Hotel Wentworth. The engrossing of the document is the work of several of the secretaries (chiefly Mr. Rozhestvenski, second secretary of the Russian legation at Peking, for Russia, and Mr. Atchiai, for Japan). While the services of the expert engrosser of the United States Government were declined, the parchment used was furnished by our State Department. The completed treaty, as well as all the protocols, of course, bears the signature of the four envoys, and as there were four copies,—



PROFESSOR THEODORE MARTENS, OF ST. PETERSBURG.
(The Russian international law expert who framed the Czar's copy of the treaty.)



MR. HENRY W. DENNISON.

(The American legal adviser of the Japanese foreign office who framed Japan's official copy of the treaty.)

one in French and English for the Russians, and one in English and French for the Japanese,—each envoy signed his name four times.

DRAMATIC MOMENTS IN THE DEBATE.

There were two tense periods in the deliberations. The first was when, after days of discussion, Komura met Witte's final word for Russia with the magnanimous offer of the Mikado to waive indemnity and yield to Russia half of Saghalien. The days had been full of intense excitement and strain. Failure appeared inevitable. Both sides were unyielding. Then came the mysterious visits of Baron Kaneko and Baron Rosen to Oyster Bay, followed by the directions from Tokio to waive the indemnity. It was the wish of the Mikado, the Japanese said.

The orders from Tokio were that Russia's last word to President Roosevelt—"no indemnity and half of Saghalien"—was to be put forward as a Japanese proposal. What took place at this dramatic moment will never be known. The newspaper press has speculated over it, and printed more or less vivid imaginative accounts. According to the Russian and Japanese secretaries, neither side betrayed any emotion. Once outside the council chamber, the impressionable

Witte gave vent to his feelings, but the stoical Japanese face retained its Indian-like fixedness.

The other dramatic moment was at the actual signing of the document itself. It was 3:47 on the afternoon of Tuesday, September 5. Besides the principals, there were present at the signing: Assistant Secretary of State Herbert H. D. Peirce, who represented the President; Admiral Mead, commanding the navy yard; Captain Winslow, of the *Mayflower*; Governor MacLane, of New Hampshire; and the mayor of Portsmouth. When the four plenipotentiaries had signed their names to the French and English copies, the really impressive part of the ceremony, according to those who were favored in being present, came. No word had been spoken for ten minutes. When his signature had been fixed, Russia's senior envoy, without a word, threw his pen aside, reached across the table, and grasped Baron Komura's hand. All his confrères followed, tightly clasping one another's hands across the conference table, but without speaking. Then Baron Rosen, the junior Russian envoy, arose from his seat, and said, in French, on behalf of himself and his senior:

As plenipotentiaries of Russia we fulfill a most agreeable duty in acknowledging that in negotiations with our hitherto adversaries, and from this hour our friends, we have been dealing with true and thorough gentlemen, to whom we are happy to express our high esteem and personal regard. We earnestly hope that henceforth friendly relations between both empires will be firmly established, and we trust that his excellency Baron Komura, as minister of foreign affairs and one of the leading statesmen of his country, will apply to the strengthening of these relations the wide experience and wise statesmanship which he so conspicuously displayed during these negotiations which have been so auspiciously concluded.

Baron Komura's reply, which was in English, indicated that he shared the views of Baron Rosen entirely. It would, he declared, always be pleasant for him to recall that throughout the long and serious negotiations which they have now left behind them he and his colleague had invariably received from the Russian plenipotentiaries the highest courtesy and consideration, and finally he begged to assure their excellencies the Russian plenipotentiaries that it would be his duty as well as his great pleasure to do everything in his power to make the treaty "in fact what it professes to be in words,—a treaty of peace and amity."

TERMS OF THE TREATY.

The treaty (as we know its substance from conference reports which have not been contradicted) starts out in orthodox fashion, declaring

that perpetual peace and friendship now exist between Russia and Japan, their respective sovereigns, and their respective peoples. Further, each side makes certain stipulations and concessions which settle the status of the far East for perhaps a century to come. Russia acknowledges and recognizes Japan's predominant interest and influence in Korea, agrees to withdraw all her special rights from the peninsula, and each nation binds itself not to erect fortifications along the frontier, nor to make any tariff or other trade or commercial regulations injurious to the interests of the other. Russia agrees to give up her lease of the Liao-Tung peninsula, Port Arthur, Dalny, and the Elliot and Blonde islands to Japan,—the lease which she obtained from China at the close of the Chino-Japanese War. Both nations agree to evacuate Manchuria simultaneously within eighteen months after the signing of the treaty. Russia restores Manchuria to China, without reservation, and promises not to encroach on that province in the future, under any pretense, in any way, shape, or manner. In agreeing to evacuate Manchuria, Japan, for her part, agrees with Russia not to exact any special commercial privileges. Russia gives up to Japan, without any pecuniary reimbursement, the Chinese Eastern Railway from Kwang-Cheng-Tse to Port Arthur and Dalny, and, with China's consent, leases to the island empire that section of the railroad from Kwang-Cheng-Tse northward to Harbin, including the branch from Kwang-Cheng-Tse eastward to Kirin.

In her turn, Japan gives China certain rights reserved at the original cession when Russia built the railroad, embracing certain rights of eventual purchase and share in administration, including the regulation of Russian and Japanese railroad guards, which are not to exceed in number fifteen soldiers per kilometer. Russia further agrees to retrocede to Japan the southern half of the island of Saghalien, which belonged to the island empire prior to 1875, the fiftieth degree north latitude being the dividing line, but the actual boundary to be determined by a special mixed limitographic commission, composed of a Russian, a Japanese, a Frenchman, and an American. Certain stipulations as to fortification on the island of Saghalien and the mainland are also agreed upon. Russia further concedes to Japan equal fishing rights along the Siberian coast from the Tumen River to the Bering Straits, and in the mouth of the Amur River. Russia and Japan agree to reimburse each other for the transportation and maintenance of war prisoners, according to the rulings of the Hague tribunal. The treaty further pro-

vides for a commercial agreement between Russia and Japan, on a basis of according to each the most favored nation treatment, for the regulation of Japanese consuls in Siberia, and for the regulation of the status of private property and the rights of Russian subjects in the ceded territories. It was agreed that the treaty shall be ratified within fifty days from the date of signing, the ratification to be effected through the French embassy in Tokio and the American embassy in St. Petersburg.

With the assurances that after the ratification of the treaty by the two emperors the exact terms would be made public, the newspaper correspondents,—and, through them, the entire world,—were forced to be content. The fifty days within which ratification must be accomplished will end with the 25th of October. Ratification could take place within a few days after the arrival of the Japanese copy of the treaty at Tokio, which is set for the 5th of the current month. It is possible, however, that it will be November 1 before the exact terms are made public,—if they ever are given to the world.

Were there any secret clauses in this peace pact of such tremendous world-significance? All the envoys and their suites have emphatically declared that there were not. From hints dropped by at least two of the plenipotentiaries, however, and several of the *attachés*, and on the authority of several writers familiar with the inner secrets of the European chancelleries, there is a growing conviction that the two empires have come to an understanding upon several matters the exact terms of which may never be known. The words spoken by Baron Komura and Baron Rosen at the final session of the conference at Portsmouth were impressive and significant beyond the mere empty formalities of *post-bellum* courtesy. Upon leaving New York, with the Russian copy of the treaty, Professor Martens all but admitted a secret clause. Did Witte and Komura actually conclude an alliance as a complementary agreement to the treaty of peace? Or, did the Czar and the Mikado, unknown to their envoys (as a persistent, though unconfirmed, report from Japanese legations in Europe would have us believe), agree to the suggestion reported to have been made by Kaiser Wilhelm that the Czar, not the empire, should secretly pay to Japan five hundred millions of indemnity and give her a free hand in China, in return for "saving Russia's face?" This may never be known. It is a fact, however, that almost simultaneously with the publication of this rumor and the hint of Martens that there was a secret treaty (it may be to relieve the Mikado from an embarrassing situation at home)



MR. ALEXANDRE BRIANCHANINOV.

(The Russian Liberal, member of several zemstvo congresses, who represented the St. Petersburg Slovo.)

the rioting against the peace terms in Tokio practically ceased.

THE PERSONALITIES OF THE ENVOYS.

One of the most impressive moments of the peace envoys' stay at Portsmouth was the meeting of the Russians and the Japanese at the reception the evening before the signing of the treaty. The Japanese envoys had invited the guests of the hotel to a festive occasion. Would the Russians come, it was wondered. And come they did. Headed by Witte himself, the entire suite presented themselves, and cordially grasped the hands of their hosts, the once despised "little, yellow, bumptious race." It was gratifying,—even thrilling,—to see the Russian and Japanese envoys and newspaper men hobnobbing and toasting the American President.

There will be no disputing of the fine, gratifying impression made upon the American people by the large and attractive personality of Serge Witte. A man of moods, a truly Slav character, emotional as a child, vigorous and fearless as an untaught barbarian, yet schooled in the diplomacy which is the most subtle known to history, talkative, confidential, impressive, this big, burly, blonde Russian is typical of the best that is in his race. There is the Muscovite impatience, swagger, and bluff, but also the winning manner, breadth of vision,

and responsiveness which make the Russian "intellectual" irresistible. To see him with his more than six feet and two-hundred-pound bulk standing beside the five-foot, almost feminine, stature of Baron Komura, the spectator could well imagine before him the maps of Russia and Japan. It seemed impossible to the visitor at Portsmouth to penetrate behind the courteous taciturnity of the Japanese baron. Komura, Japanese foreign minister, one of the fine examples of the Oriental mind, is a philosopher,—a lover of Emerson. One is amazed to hear him quote from memory the English and American sages. There is a certain stoic calmness, self-possession, mathematical precision, and relentless logic about the Japanese which mystifies, yet attracts. It seemed impossible to break in upon his reserve, and his smile, though kindly, was inscrutable.

In certain indefinable but powerful ways, the visitor at Portsmouth was convinced that the quality of the Japanese mentality admirably stood the test of comparison with that of the Russians. The Asiatics, however, were newer hands at the diplomatic game. They were evidently not so sure of themselves among the subtleties and intricacies of international law as were their opponents. The Russians, it cannot be denied, played their game of international finesse splendidly, and, under the leadership of Martens, more than once quoted precedents to the technical discomfiture of their opponents.

The Japanese evidently had a wholesome respect for the statecraft of the Russians, and the latter soon learned to recognize the high caliber of the men from Nippon. "Their minds," said one of the Russian envoys, "are large enough to make them real statesmen and gentlemen."

A GREAT PRESS TRIUMPH.

Witte's tribute to the American press, in a rather remarkable speech made after the agreement had been arrived at, was deserved by all the newspaper men who were present. The modern journal was really a revelation to the diplomats,—who are not partial to revelations of any kind. Every possible precaution and artifice hitherto found effective by statesmen to conceal results was taken, and yet daily in the journals of the world there appeared enough of the facts to elicit from the envoys or their secretaries admiring tributes. Constantly they were heard saying: "How do you do it? We are certain no one tells you. We cannot understand how you get at the facts." The original intention was to publish some time next year a sort of blue book, containing as much of the final minutes of the conference as it would be wise for the public to know. In the meantime, it was decided to issue forty or fifty word bulletins, referring by number to the articles under discussion. United States marines guarded every point of entrance to the conference building, and even passes to enter the courtyard were rarities.

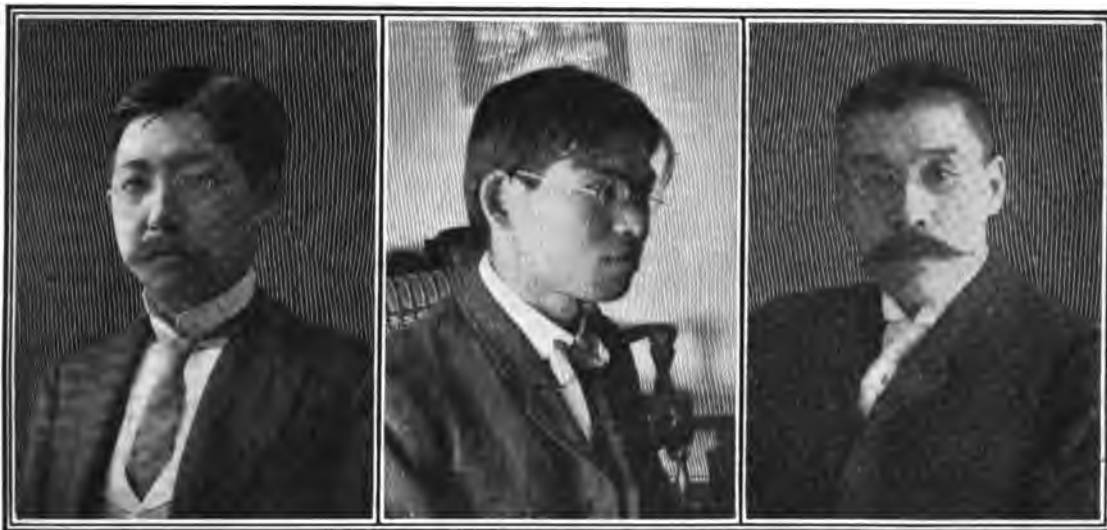


Dr. E. J. Dillon, of the *London Daily Telegraph*.

Dr. George Ernest Morrison, of the *London Times*.

Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace, of the *London Times*.

THREE EMINENT ENGLISH JOURNALISTS AT PORTSMOUTH.



Mr. Yasukiro Ishikawa, of the
Hochi Shimbun, of Tokio.

Mr. K. Kawakami, of the *Asahi*
and the *Yorodzu*, of Tokio.

Mr. Masotomi Fukutomi, representing
the *Asahi*, of Osaka.

REPRESENTATIVES OF THREE JAPANESE DAILIES AT THE PEACE CONFERENCE.

Nevertheless, the world had its story each day, and so nearly accurate in detail that there have been but few corrections. Journalists who could discuss the far-Eastern situation with the knowledge and authority of a prime minister or a secretary of state, writers who knew Russia and Japan and the United States like senators and historians, came after the news,—and they got it. There were one hundred and twenty-three “specials” at Portsmouth, Africa being the only continent not represented. The great London *Times* had three of its best men present,—Dr. Morrison, its Peking correspondent; Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace, its representative from St. Petersburg; and George W. Smalley, its correspondent in New York. Dr. E. J. Dillon, correspondent of the *Daily Telegraph* at St. Petersburg; Salvatore Cortesi, representing many Italian dailies and the Associated Press at Rome; Jules Hademan, of the *Matin*, of Paris; E. von Gotthberg, of the Berlin *Lokal Anzeiger*, and Otto Kahn, of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*; Camillo Claffarra, of the *Prensa*, of Buenos Ayres; Alexandre Brianchaninov, of the *Slovo*, and Boris Suvorin, of the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg; Rihei Onishi, of the *Jiji Shimpō*; Yasukiro Ishikawa, of the *Hochi Shimbun*; Yoshizumi Hamada, of the *Kokumin Shimbun*; K. K. Kawakami, of the *Asahi*, of Tokio, and Masotomi Fukutomi, of the *Osaka Asahi*,—these were some of the most eminent newspaper men from abroad.

Upon one thing all the envoys and their secretaries, and all the inhabitants of Portsmouth, were agreed,—the principals were there to make peace. The onlookers hoped and prayed for peace. It may be safely said that there was no war party at Portsmouth. Both Serge Witte and Jutaro Komura were constant, sincere, and untiring in their efforts to bring about an agreement which would be lasting and honorable to both peoples. If the final outcome has not actually partaken of these qualities of permanence and honor, the fault can never be laid at the door of any of the envoys or their associates. In St. Petersburg, it will be claimed that the result was a diplomatic triumph for Russia; in Tokio, they will probably say that it was Japan's magnanimity. Throughout the United States and the neutral world, there is a growing impression that the happy outcome was chiefly the result of the efforts of the peacemaker with the “big stick.” As in all many-sided questions, the truth lies midway between the two extremes. The treaty is, to an extent, a diplomatic triumph for Russia, but it is not another Shimonoseki for Japan. It is magnanimity on the part of Nippon, but it is also shrewd, wise statesmanship. The result is indeed a tribute to the courage of the peace-loving American President, but it is also a splendid demonstration of the power of the neutral world in its desire for peace and humanity.

HOW ST. PETERSBURG RECEIVED THE NEWS OF PEACE.

BY W. T. STEAD.

[While Dr. E. J. Dillon, the famous correspondent who usually writes for us from St. Petersburg, was in this country with Mr. Witte and the Russian party (see Dr. Dillon's article in the REVIEW last month on Witte's career), Mr. William T. Stead went from London to St. Petersburg in time to be at the Russian capital when the peace news was received. His opportunities for studying the Russian situation last month were of the most favorable sort, and the present article from his pen is fresh from St. Petersburg.—THE EDITOR.]

WHEN I woke up this morning and saw the street decorated with flags I thought that peace was being officially celebrated in this city. The Gostennor Door was decorated with a display of three flags in each window, as per regulation. The white, blue, and red flag flapped lazily from the tram-cars and fluttered feebly from the flagstuffs on the government buildings. At the street-corners, small knots of men were reading the small placard on which, under the ægis of the double-headed eagle, is printed the Czar's telegram to General Linevich announcing the conclusion of peace. Nowhere was there any demonstration of emotion, one way or the other. This belated display of bunting,—the merest apology for decoration,—seemed to me the irreducible minimum of official recognition that peace had been made. In this it would certainly have corresponded to the mood of the people. But on making inquiries I found that the flags were out, not for the peace, but for the Shah of Persia, who visits St. Petersburg this day. For the peace, there is not even one flag.

THE TEMPER OF THE RUSSIAN CROWD.

I went, last night, to the People's Palace, the spacious pleasure garden run on strictly temperance principles provided for the people of St. Petersburg on the other side of the Neva. There was an immense crowd. There was not a vacant seat, not even standing-room, for one in the theater; all the seats around the band-stands were occupied, and the grounds were black with the multitude. There were plenty of soldiers among those who were amusing themselves. Gendarmes and policemen were conspicuous by their absence. There must have been ten thousand people in and about the grounds, and there was an absolute absence of any outward visible emblem of authority. The price of admission is low—only five cents—and the crowd was exactly the same kind of crowd that you would expect to find in any similar pleasure resort in London or New York,—a good-humored motley company

of men and women, and young people of both sexes, who were solely intent upon having a good time. I was in and out and about the crowd for a couple of hours that Sunday night, accompanied by a friend to whom Russian is almost as a mother tongue. Nowhere was there visible and audible any sign of dissatisfaction or of delight. Opportunity was not lacking. In the great central hall the most conspicuous object was a large-scale colored map of the seat of war flanked by the latest telegrams from all parts of the world bearing upon the peace. The crowd looked up at the map. Some of them read the telegrams and then went off to the restaurants in the garden where red-frocked, white-capped waitresses flew hither and thither supplying their needs. No one whistled or groaned or uttered a word. Nor did their faces display any emotion beyond that of a very slight interest of curiosity.

But we were soon to have a much more crucial test of the temper of the crowd. About nine o'clock, the programme announced, there would be an open-air display of stereopticon pictures of the war. Here in the semi-darkness,—for the electric arc lamps are not too numerous and too much light would have spoiled the effect of the pictures,—stood a crowd of four or five thousand Russians. No circumstances could be more favorable for the free display of whatever feeling swayed the crowd. A lecturer with stentorian voice explained each picture as it was thrown upon the screen. The crowd applauded freely, and was as often silent. The first picture shown was the most popular. It was the portrait of Admiral Makaroff, who lost his life when his flagship was blown up at the very beginning of the war. He was instantly recognized and loudly cheered. There was considerable cheering for Verestchagin, the painter, who perished with Makaroff. When the portrait of General Linevich was shown there was a faint, half-subdued murmur of applause. It was followed by the portrait of General Kuropátkin. There was not a single cheer. A boy near me whistled.

But no other sound broke the silence. The crowd looked at their general with icy stillness. The hero of so many masterly retreats excited no enthusiasm, evoked no gratitude. Then followed some pictures of incidents of the war which were followed with keen interest, but which elicited little remark. The lecturer made one observation, in the course of his explanations, which possessed a certain tragic-comic pathos of its own. After describing the heroism of the Russian soldiers,—which, indeed, cannot be too highly praised,—he assured his hearers that “if the Japanese had not been in such a hurry to make peace General Linevich and his men would have given them a tremendous thrashing.” The crowd received this gloss upon the peace negotiations with stolid indifference. Possibly this may come to be accepted as the popular legend. It is near enough the belief of many well-informed persons to have a chance of general currency.

THE LACK OF ENTHUSIASM.

There are only two views about peace among the Russians who read the papers,—a very small minority of the nation. There are those who approve of the peace, but who hate it as a dire but inevitable necessity. There are the others who hate it, and who say that it was not necessary, and that Russia has been tricked and jostled into a humiliating peace to please the Jews and the Japanese, who have found in the American President their most obliging instrument. Under such circumstances, it is impossible to expect any popular demonstration of enthusiasm. In St. Petersburg we in vain try to raise our spirits by dwelling upon the diplomatic victory of Mr. Witte. “So they think that Witte has achieved a victory, do they?” said a Russian lady of distinguished family.

It seems to me very vulgar to attach so much importance to mere money. We have lost everything,—Port Arthur, Korea, the railway, half of Saghalien, all our navy, our prestige, our moral dignity before the world, and you think that we ought to be consoled because we have not also to pay some money! We are not all Jews, but you would almost think so to see what is said in London and in New York. To us, money is nothing; nothing at all in comparison with honor. It was a stupidity, this war,—nay, a crime,—but we have come out of it even more foolishly than we allowed ourselves to be dragged into it. Better have fought on two, three, or four years than to consent to such a humiliation.

Another Russian who plays an important and useful part in the politics of the empire to whom I tendered my congratulations took another point of view, but one equally unsatisfactory to Russian *amour propre*. He said:

Alas! the Japanese have won all the honors, both of war and of peace. Now I see that the Japanese are a really great and noble nation. They have not only defeated our armies and destroyed our navy, but in giving up their demand for the indemnity in order to secure peace they have gained a moral victory as great as any of their victories in the war. I admire the magnanimity and the courage of the Mikado. Oh, yes, this last is the most famous of all their victories. Alike in peace and in war the Japanese have beaten us.

RUSSIAN EXPLANATION OF JAPAN'S COURSE.

There is therefore no enthusiasm for the peace. But neither is there, on the other hand, any disposition to resent the decision taken by the Emperor. The war is over, and there is a sigh of relief even from those who protest most energetically that they are in favor of continuing the war to the bitter end. Many explanations are given to account for the extraordinary and utterly unexpected renunciation by the Japanese. One report, which I heard to-day, was that the British Government, having signed the new treaty with Japan, had compelled its ally to desist from persisting in carrying on the war. Another story has it that it is all the fault of the financiers, who were alarmed lest their Japanese investments were in danger. But the best informed lay all the blame,—which ought rather to be regarded as the highest praise,—upon President Roosevelt. The sudden apparition of America, not merely as a great power, but as the greatest of the great powers, has disconcerted the old-world diplomatists not a little. Those who have got the Jew on the brain assure me confidently that the President is himself a Jew, his real name being Rosenfelt, and that he has been acting entirely at the bidding of the cosmopolitan race whose scepter is finance. Others who are nearer headquarters see in his action the reflex of the alarm with which the advent of Japan as the dominant naval power of the Pacific naturally inspires the people of the United States.

A Russian ambassador said to me, before the conference met at Portsmouth:

The affair of the indemnity is far more the affair of the Americans and the British than of the Russians. For us it would be cheaper to pay the indemnity than to continue the war. Nor does it matter to us that the Japanese would use the indemnity to build a new gigantic fleet which would make them the mistress of the Pacific. We are out of it. The war has at least taught us one thing, and that is that a weaker fleet is a hostage in the hand of the power that has the stronger fleet. Not for twenty years can we even dream of contesting with Japan the empire of the Pacific. But with the Americans and the British it is a very different thing. They cannot contemplate with equanimity the creation of a Japanese navy so strong as to make Japan

the dominant naval power on the sea which they had regarded as their own domain.

What, then, is more obvious to those who take this view than that the President was acting in the interest of the English-speaking powers in compelling Japan to abandon her claim for money which if it had been paid would have been spent in enabling Japan to annex the Philippines and compel the Australians to allow the Japanese to colonize Queensland?

ADMIRATION OF THE JAPANESE.

The longer heads among the Russian statesmen see in the action of Japan the shrewd policy which led Prince Bismarck, after the Seven Weeks' War, to make peace with Russia on terms which render possible at no distant date the establishment of an *entente cordiale*, if not an actual alliance, between the late foes. Japan offered Russia the alliance through Marquis Ito before she made the alliance with England. The offer was rejected, from a misapprehension of the fighting strength of Japan. It would not be rejected if the offer were renewed. If the Marquis Ito had been sent to Portsmouth the opinion is confidently expressed that Mr. Witte would have arranged with him a Russo-Japanese alliance. Certainly, there is no bitter feeling against Japan. At the *Narodi Dom* there was not the slightest manifestation of animosity to be seen in the great crowd when the portraits of the Mikado and his family were thrown upon the screen. There is even a frank admiration expressed at the skill and courage of the Japanese. Our soldiers were as good as theirs, but their generals were better and there were more of them. "They have beaten us because we deserved to be beaten. We had now the first chance during the war of meeting them on equal terms. But we have forborne taking advantage of our improved position and they have given up the indemnity. Now, therefore, let us be good friends." So say many Russians. Of the feeling which has always prevailed in Russia against the Turks, and latterly against the English and the Germans, there is no trace in the Russian sentiment concerning the Japanese.

THE WORK OF AMBASSADOR MEYER.

If the first honor of securing the end of the war belongs to President Roosevelt, and the second place to the Mikado, the next place belongs to the Czar and to Mr. Meyer, the American ambassador at St. Petersburg. If the difficult and delicate negotiations necessary before the conference and in its final stages had been in other hands than those of a monarch as intelligent, as cool and self-possessed, as Nicho-

las II., or to an ambassador less skillful, less resolute, and less diplomatic than Mr. Meyer, the war would still be raging. Fortunately, Nicholas II. acted as his own foreign minister, and, not less fortunately, Mr. Meyer had been transferred to St. Petersburg from Rome in time for him to feel his feet before the crisis had to be dealt with. In dealing with the Russian foreign office there were delays and difficulties. The Emperor no sooner was apprised of President Roosevelt's appeal than he brushed all obstacles to one side and received Mr. Meyer on the Emperor's birthday,—a thing which horrified officialdom declared to be absolutely impossible and unprecedented. The Emperor made his own precedents, and the conference was the result.

He saw the ambassador at once, discussed the matter with him fully, assented to the proposal, and from that moment until peace was signed their personal relations were able to stand the strain of all opposition.

A REVELATION OF THE CZAR'S PERSONALITY.

For years past I have stood almost alone in maintaining that the Czar was a man of great intelligence, of keen appreciation, and intensely conscientious. It is true that I had reasons for forming a judgment, as I have had the honor to meet the Emperor on three occasions in private, and that is an advantage which most of those who abuse him have not enjoyed. Count Tolstoi, I see in his latest outpouring, actually declares that he knows that Nicholas II. is a most commonplace man, standing lower than the average level, coarsely superstitious and unenlightened. But Count Tolstoi has never met the Emperor. He knows nothing about him, except from hearsay. If he had met him he would have been the first to admit that he had calumniated his sovereign. The late Mr. F. W. Holls, who was received by the Emperor after the Hague Conference, told me that he was astounded to find the Czar so intelligent and cultured a man. Count Heyden, who formed one of the deputation that recently waited upon the Emperor with the very plain-spoken addresses from the *zemstvos* and the *marechals de noblesse*, has made no secret of his surprise on meeting the Czar to find him so intelligent, so quick, so sympathetic, and so willing to hear plain truths. An English military man who dined at Peterhof last week told me that in spite of all I had told him the conversation of Nicholas II. was to him a positive revelation. "I had no idea that he was such a man." A similar revelation awaited the American ambassador when he first met the Emperor at close quarters. He found himself face to

face with a sovereign who was, in the first place, a thorough gentleman, and therefore a man of his word, who spoke simply, clearly, and frankly as man to man. In the second place, instead of finding the weak, nervous, irritable creature broken down by threats of assassination, menace of revolution, and the terrible disasters of war, he found a man in perfect health, whose composure was absolute, who faced the situation like a statesman, with calm, clear common sense. And in the third place, he found a monarch who revered his conscience as his king, and who without phrases or protestations was evidently only afraid of one thing,—of doing anything that he felt was false to his duty or dishonorable to his country.

THE ARGUMENT OVER SAGHALIEN.

It is therefore no wonder that when Mr. Meyer came into close personal touch with such a sovereign that all the efforts of the enemies of peace came to naught. What the Czar said at the first interview remained his word to the last. From the beginning, he never wavered. He desired peace. He would make sacrifices for peace. But he would not buy peace by paying blackmail, nor would he surrender one verst of Russian land. To that he remained faithful to the end.

The conviction that he could not, without violating his sacred duty to the nation whose throne he occupies, surrender an inch of Russian territory would have proved an insuperable obstacle to peace if it had not been surmounted by the ingenuity and resource of the American ambassador. It is not too much to say that the peace of the world hung in the balance during the two hours in which the Emperor and the ambassador discussed, face to face, alone, the question of the cession of the southern half of the island of Saghalien. The Emperor had solemnly and publicly declared that he would cede no Russian territory. The Japanese, it was known, regarded the cession of southern Saghalien as a *sine qua non*. The question of how this gulf between the two was to be bridged seemed for some time insoluble.

How the solution was discovered and by what arguments the Czar was finally convinced that southern Saghalien could be ceded without infringing his public pledge will remain a secret known only to the ambassador and the President. But it is probable that the ambassador pointed out to the Emperor that southern Saghalien formed no integral part of the Russian Empire. It stood in the same category as Dalny and Port Arthur, a possession quite recently acquired,

which had never acquired the same long-established status of other regular Russian provinces. It had been claimed by the Japanese from of old. They had reluctantly recognized Russia's title to it in 1895. They had now won it back by right of conquest. Port Arthur and Dalny had been renounced. Why not admit the application of the same principle to southern Saghalien? It was not a case of cession, but rather one of retrocession.

Another argument was obviously supplied by the force of things. Saghalien, being an island, was always at the mercy of the power that commanded the sea. Russia, so long as Japan had the superior navy, could only hold Saghalien on sufferance. Nor less obvious was the absurdity of waging a tremendous war, with all its measureless possibilities of danger, for one end of an almost uninhabited island which was of no military or strategic value. The plea that it commanded the straits was easily parried by the suggestion that its coasts should not be fortified.

THE CZAR'S ESTEEM OF THE AMERICAN AMBASSADOR.

By some such arguments as these, we may depend upon it, the consent of the Emperor was won to the one article in the treaty of peace which rankles in the Russian heart. Whether this speculation be correct or not, the fact is indisputable. The consent was won, and, as the result proved, peace was secured. The most gratifying thing about the whole business is that when all was over the good relations between the sovereign and the ambassador, instead of having been impaired by the strain, became more cordial than ever. The Emperor assured a friend of mine of the very high esteem in which he had learned to hold Mr. Meyer, and that his esteem was accompanied by a real personal liking. Official testimony to the fact is no doubt ample enough, but this simple expression of affectionate regard, uttered over the dinner-table, weighs with me much more than all the felicitations of the chancelleries.

Such a result is in the highest degree satisfactory, not only to Mr. Meyer personally, although it falls to the lot of few ambassadors to achieve so great a success, but also to the American nation, which he so worthily represents. It bodes well for the future relations between the Russian Empire and the American republic that at the beginning of a new era of prosperity and peace such excellent personal relations should have been established between the ambassador and the sovereign to whom he is accredited.

JAPAN'S ELDER STATESMEN AND THE PEACE.

BY ADACHI KINNOBUKE.

[The following article presents a view of the peace of Portsmouth and of Japanese responsibility for that peace which is undoubtedly held by thousands of patriotic Japanese to-day.—THE EDITOR.]

AFTER eighteen months of war, at the conference at Portsmouth, Nippon has been disgraced by a defeat more serious, more far-reaching in consequences, than the disgrace of ten years ago. At the close of the Chino-Nippon War, a few hundred men in our army and navy put on record with their own blood their protest against the dishonorable peace. They committed *seppuku*. The army and navy of Nippon are like the swords they carry,—they cut splendidly, but they do not, to accommodate your convenience, become suddenly dull when you wish to toy with them. The nation, however, then showed no sign of protest. The humiliation was not quite vital enough. There were other things to absorb the people's attention. But now, when we have the news of the killings on the streets of Tokio, let us see what happens to-day. On August 28, the *Jiji Shimpō*, which usually echoes the opinions of the thinking half of the nation, said, in a leading editorial :

Mouths and tongues are of use no longer. Our envoys should break off the pourparlers, shake their sleeves, and begin their homeward journey. . . . There was a time when we believed in the success of the conference, and the reasons for our faith were two. One was the exceeding moderateness of our demands,—much more moderate than most of us had dreamed,—so moderate that there was no little disappointment throughout our country, so moderate that we could not fancy our enemy rejecting it. The second reason was the fact that the persistent manner in which the Russian envoy, all along his way from Europe, had kept saying that a dishonorable peace would not be accepted by him or by Russia, thus betraying his evident expectation of a large demand on the part of Nippon. We naturally supposed that the Russians were quite as surprised at the modesty of our demands as were we of Nippon. We supposed, also, that they would lose no time in concluding peace upon our terms.

Other journals throughout the island empire, differing in policy and political creed in a thousand ways from the *Jiji*, were of the same opinion. When the ridiculous disaster of our diplomacy at Portsmouth was made known there was only one newspaper in the whole realm of Nippon that enjoyed the distinction of looking upon the situation as other than a defeat. The *Kokumin* thought it a rather happy and satisfactory ending, but the *Kokumin* is the organ of the government; to it is denied the freedom and privilege of having a mind of its own,—all of which goes to show pretty pointedly what the

people of Nippon think on the subject. What the censored dispatch from Tokio to the Western press is pleased to call a "riot" in Tokio, Kobé, Osaka, Yokohama, and a number of other cities is a vastly different affair from the street disorders of the civilized West. The people of Nippon do not take the trouble to bother the police and their government just for the fun of the thing or for the accommodation of the yellow journals. Rioting is very rare in Nippon. When it does happen, it means something very serious. Fifty years ago, it meant the restoration to power of the present imperial house.

The story of the defeat at Portsmouth, heart-rending as it is to loyal Nippon, is also the story of the passing of the Elder Statesmen from the council chamber of our state, and in this it is a story of comfort.

What is the significance of the destruction, in Kobé, of the statue of Marquis Ito Hirobumi?

One wonders that this Marquis Ito, statesman known much better abroad than at home, failed to see, ten years ago, when he won all the plaudits of the West (always remarkable for its ignorance of the East) and none at home, that he was one of the men of Yesterday, that with us a new day called for a race of men of itself. If the report of the meddling by the Elder Statesmen with the peace negotiations at Portsmouth be correct, he certainly did not see. But, you will say, if Marquis Ito and the rest of the Elder Statesmen are figures of Yesterday, how comes it that his Majesty the Emperor so frequently acts upon the advice of these statesmen. Is not your Emperor the greatest of the great in your country? To that we answer: With all his sacredness and wisdom, it must be admitted that his Majesty the Emperor of Nippon is still human.

In his younger days, when he ascended the throne, he came to know a number of young men. He has never,—gracious monarch that he is,—forgotten for a moment with what devotion they served the imperial cause, with what Titanic efforts they brought back the throne of the imperial house to power. The real giant builders of his throne are no more. There remain with him, however, men who had known the great dead, who had served him and their country in a humbler capacity. These are the Elder Statesmen of to-day. Moreover, the Em-



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

MARQUIS ITO HIROBUMI.

peror was a mere youth when he ascended the august throne of his father. The Elder Statesmen of to-day were not very much older than he. The Emperor waxed in years, in power, and in wisdom. So did the New Nippon, and so did the men whom we to-day know as the Elder Statesmen. They grew together. As the years came and went, in the going they took away most of the builders of New Nippon one by one. Then the men who were in the humbler services rose to power. And so it came to pass that in the last twenty years his majesty came into almost constant touch with Ito, Yamagata, Matsukata, and Inoué. The state was still passing through a formative era. There were many troublous days, and, naturally, the trials of state suffered together brought all these men into closer touch. There sprang up between his majesty and these statesmen a tie that is much stronger than that of blood. His majesty found

it always pleasant, and often profitable, to consult them, and he many times acted upon their views and upon the facts which they marshaled before his august eyes. In their day, they served their imperial master and their country most admirably. Is it strange or unnatural that his majesty should confide in them to-day? We who have an undying, unswerving, faith in the greatness of his majesty, who believe implicitly in his sovereign wisdom,—we, too, remember that he is only human, after all. No being other than a god can be expected to arrive at a good and correct judgment upon an affair so tangled as the final adjustment of the peace of the far East,—if he have only incorrect and incomplete data. To us, his people, he has given so many examples of the loftiness of his vision and his judgment that there is no room left to question either. When his cabinet and privy council are made up of men thoroughly compe-

tent to furnish his majesty with ample and complete data, history has yet to record a single instance in which the faith of his people has been disappointed. With us, the Emperor is always above criticism, above reproach. It all depends upon the correctness and fullness of the data presented to his majesty. But the cabinet and the councilors have very often been at fault.

Ten years ago, the name of Marquis Ito was very much before the world in connection with the Chino-Nippon War. In some quarters, outside of Nippon, it has come to be the habit of talking about this war as though it had been the personal property of Marquis Ito. The army and the navy did wonders, but their work was discounted somewhat because they fought against Chinamen. At Shimonoseki there was a bit of admirable diplomatic work accomplished. The fact that our foreign office was then under the guidance of Count Mutsu is not remembered in the West. The Occident has ears for the name of Marquis Ito only. When the defeat of our diplomacy involved us with dishonor the West credited the accomplishment to Marquis Ito. The West was correct. The amazing thing was that this same West could find in this humiliation a vast deal of wisdom. As if the triple alliance of that day could have carried out its threat. As if these three wise powers,—very wise to their own self-interests,—could afford to play into the hands of Great Britain to the appalling extent of risking a war in far-Eastern waters!

Neither Ito nor Inoué, neither Matsukata nor Yamagata, can claim the distinction of being the maker of the New Nippon. That honor belongs to three great men, chiefly,—Saigo, Kido, and Okubo, and partially to Prince Iwakura and Prince Sanjo. The Elder Statesmen who survive were their clerks and assistants. Those were the days of great things. These men knew the giants—the master creators; they worked under their guidance, and succeeded in weaving for themselves a halo out of the reflections of the greater lights. The Elder Statesmen, who have accomplished many good and profitable works for their country, are gifted men of ability—nothing more.

The schoolbooks of the West would have us believe that Marquis Ito is the author of the constitution of Nippon. The West believes this, and Marquis Ito appears to have convinced himself that this is the truth. Perhaps, however, the following information, threadbare to the eye and ear of Nippon, may be news to Americans:

It was in the early days of the year 1868, the birth-year of the New Nippon. The great Okubo memorialized the throne. He hailed the com-

ing of the new day for the land, and prayed the imperial master of Nippon that from that day on the people might be permitted to enjoy a more intimate association with the sacred personality and the gracious wisdom of the sovereign and with the affairs of state. On the fourteenth day of March of that year, not many days after the memorial of Okubo had been presented, his majesty stood in the historic palace of Nijo, in the city of Kioto, and declared, under oath, to the assembled multitude:

1. Public meetings shall be organized and administrative affairs shall be decided by general deliberation.
2. Governors and governed shall devote themselves to the good of the nation.
3. All the civil and military officials shall endeavor to encourage individual industries in all classes, and to call forth their active characteristics.
4. The unwise defective customs hitherto prevailing shall be corrected.
5. Useful knowledge shall be introduced from the outside world, and thus the foundations of the empire shall be amplified.

The Emperor who spoke these oracular sentences was an Oriental despot of sixteen years of age, literally a son of Heaven in the eyes of his people. Behind him were the great figures of Okubo, Kido, Saigo, and Goto. As to Ito and Inoué, we do not know where they were. The work of Count Itagaki, the apostle of popular rights and individual liberty, has shaped the model for the constitution of Nippon, but the Five Sacred Oaths have passed into history and are really the foundations upon which many scholars, secretaries, and clerks have built the constitution of the present Nippon. Marquis Ito was the author of this immortal work in the same way that Boswell was the author of the famous "Life of Dr. Johnson."

To stand on the crater of a volcano of which the fires were the passions and dreams of a nation passing from death into a new-born life, a nation blinded by the very light, dazed and groping its way like a man struck by noon in a midnight hour, to read in the future through the blaze of light, and to map out wisely the future of a people,—that is the work of a seer. This was the work of Okubo. It was quite different from the work of Ito. The compass had been set, and the chart all mapped out, and then Marquis Ito was able to stand at the helm of the ship of state.

It is a good and gracious thing to grow old in a good and great work. Too often, however, is To-day burdened with the dead of Yesterday. Those who belong to Yesterday do not always remember that they are dead. There is the pity of it. But when the virtue of Yesterday turns out to be the curse of To-day,—this is the story of the Elder Statesmen of Nippon.



SIR CASPAR PURDON CLARKE, THE NEW DIRECTOR OF THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.

A NEW ERA FOR THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART.*

BY CHARLES DE KAY.

[About the middle of October, Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, formerly director of the South Kensington Art Museum, London, assumes the directorship of the Metropolitan Museum of Art. This will mean a new *régime* for New York's famous art collection, as Mr. De Kay clearly shows in the following pages.—THE EDITOR.]

THE evolution of a great museum is in itself a thing to watch with interest, merely for the spectacle, as the objects it contains increase, as gallery is added to gallery, wing to central edifice, and as through the constant necessity of rearranging exhibits a more orderly and comprehensive sequence is impressed on the whole. This, too, quite apart from the purpose of a museum in its function as an aid to education. It makes wide sections of the public acquainted with the arts of other lands and vanished civilizations teaches artisans the forms and methods employed by modern, old, and ancient men to produce a given effect, suggests to artists

new combinations of old ideas, and communicates to inventive minds the spark that may set them in creative motion. Certain marbles on the Parthenon at Athens brought by Lord Elgin to London which at last, after a campaign of destruction, found a permanent home in the British Museum furnished the late George Frederick Watts with the keynote of his composition in painting and of his style in sculpture. The works of Michael Angelo preserved in Florence and Rome have influenced profoundly many sculptors and painters, such as Meunier in Brussels and Auguste Rodin in Paris. Portraits by Velasquez and Ter Borch have started Manet and Whistler along their artistic careers, the one by his distinction and simplicity in the use of color, the other by his marvelous technical skill,

*The illustrations with this article are from photographs by Charles Ballard, the official photographer at the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

When Prince Albert laid at South Kensington the foundation of what is now the Victoria and Albert Institute, who would have imagined that the close of the century would find London endowed with the grand art palace which has done so much to raise craftsmen's standards in the British Empire? South Kensington Museum, as it is still called in the vernacular, contains more of the art of India than India itself, gives one an oversight of Italian renaissance as scarcely an Italian museum can offer, presents the arts of Asia, Africa, and Europe in sequence of centuries, and supplies an endless variety of objects to the artisans and art students who flock to London for education. Compared with the South Kensington the best equipped of American museums is only a beginning. The emigration of the chief director of that museum to New York marks a determination to place the Metropolitan at the head of a truly national plan for the encouragement of the study of art in its broadest sense.

The Metropolitan is only on the threshold of its career. Those who may have expected complete efficiency from this museum in the short term of its existence must have believed in miracles, and certainly were not aware of the difficulties under which its board of trustees labored to make ends meet. Unlike the South Kensington it began in private initiative; and although a site and a building were provided by the city, the larger the edifice became, and the more extended and valuable the collections grew, the heavier weighed the expenses for conducting the museum. Observe that the word mu-

seum has taken on the meaning of a place where works of art are preserved for inspection—a kind of art cemetery. London had the British, the Soane, and the Royal Architectural museums, as well as the National Gallery of Paintings, when the South Kensington was started, while New York had none of these institutions when the Metropolitan was founded. In the endeavor to supply the absence of these diversified museums the Metropolitan necessarily scattered its energy, and at one time, for a term of years, attempted to maintain an art school; all this without an endowment, relying on the slender income from entrance fees on the days when the public was not admitted free of charge, the annual dues of associate members, and the generosity of the trustees when confronted by the inevitable deficit. That the collections grew notwithstanding was due to the generosity of donors. But now the income from the princely bequest of Mr. Rogers enables the museum to purchase on its own account, and no longer leaves its enlargement to the uncertainty of donations.

All this does not solve, however, the problem of running expenses and of salaries for competent curators of the different sections into which the collections naturally fall, the wages of guards and employees, and the costs which the mere maintenance of edifice and collections entail. What the Metropolitan needs is another Rogers to bequeath a huge sum the income of which shall be applied to the costs of maintenance. Could this be secured, the museum might assume at once that lead among institutions of the kind which is proper to so large a community.



CENTRAL PORTION OF THE MUSEUM BUILDING, AROUND WHICH THE LARGE RECTANGLE OF STONE IS CLOSING.
(On the left is "Cleopatra's Needle," brought by Commander Gorringe from Egypt.)

The Metropolitan has been fortunate in its presidents. Messrs. John Taylor Johnston, Henry G. Marquand, and Frederick W. Rhinelander were no figure-heads. Each was a lover of art and a collector, and each gave as much care and time to the management of the museum as to his own private affairs. Messrs. Johnston and Marquand were business men, and although the late Mr. Rhinelander had little training in affairs, his devotion to the business of the museum was incessant. He worked early and late, and perhaps it was his excessive conscientiousness, urging him on to more labor than his health could bear, that shortened his life; at least, it was the opinion of those who saw much of him that he was undertaking more of the drudgery of routine work as president than was safe. It is scarcely necessary to remind readers of the splendid gifts to the museum made by President Marquand—the gallery of old masters which bears his name, the great terra-cotta bas-relief by one of the Della Robbias, and many other exhibits of great value are witnesses to the lively interest he took in the collections, and as monuments to his generosity and public spirit.

Not less fortunate is the museum in the new president, Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, who as a collector of rare porcelains, tapestries, bronzes, and paintings by the great masters of the past recalls the amateurs of the age of Augustus. Long ago the museum received from Mr. Morgan most valuable gifts of Oriental porcelains and ancient gold-work. Trained by his long residence abroad in the difficult art of selecting the fine from the mass of base art with which Europe abounds, and accustomed to the tricks by which falsifiers try to delude purchasers,—a sufferer now and then, as all collectors must be, from the wiles of the fabricator of antiques,—Mr. Morgan steps into the presidency of the Metropolitan prepared as few men are to exercise the



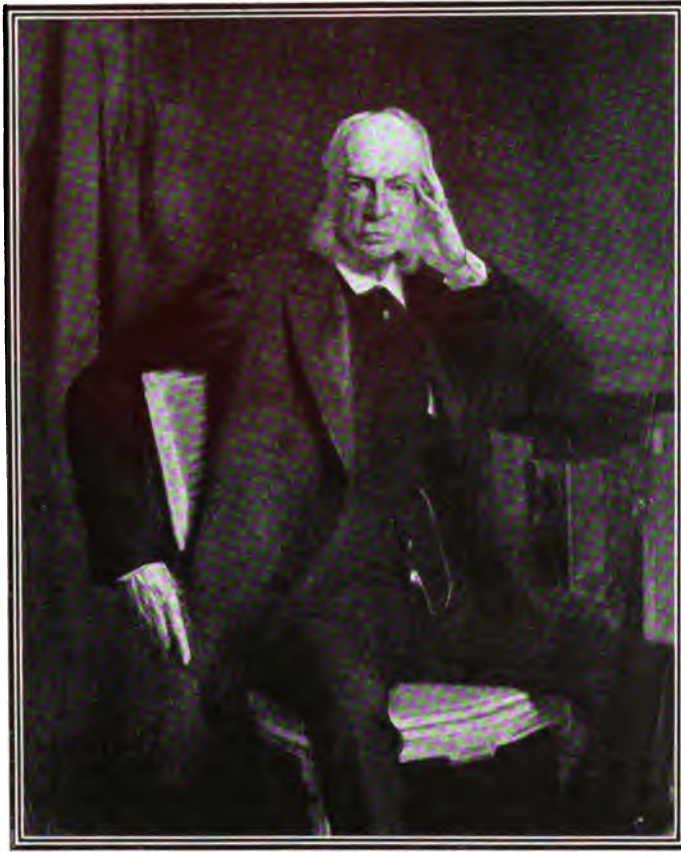
JOHN TAYLOR JOHNSTON, FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE MUSEUM.

(From the oil painting by Bonnat.)

office with the knowledge acquired during a life spent in collecting, and equipped, besides, with the natural taste of a connoisseur.

It is he who has selected the new director of the Metropolitan in the person of Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, the late general manager of the museum at South Kensington, with whose attainments and merits he has been long familiar. With the presidency of Mr. Morgan and the advent of the new director the Metropolitan has begun another era, which is likely to differ as greatly from the period recently completed as New York of the coming century differs from New York of the last.

Sir Purdon Clarke being the choice of the new president, it is to be expected that he will have a freer hand than the late Mr. di Cesnola; and since he has grown up with the South Kensington Museum and seen it develop into a mighty



HENRY G. MARQUAND, BY JOHN S. SARGENT.

(Presented to the Metropolitan Museum of Art by a number of gentlemen.
It now hangs in the Marquand Room.)

force for the betterment of British arts and crafts, he can scarcely fail to apply what he has learned of the needs and proper functions of a museum to his new charge. The personality of a man in a place of such responsibility is naturally of great importance, for the work of a director is very complex, and by no means demands executive ability alone, nor expert knowledge in various branches of the arts, but includes certain personal qualities which assist very materially the director in his contact with the trustees and subordinates in the museum, and with the great social world round about. Indeed, one can imagine a collection so large that its management requires an executive head too busy to do more than attend to the running of the museum, one who has to leave the expert's work to the curators of the several departments, and for his part attend to the business side alone.

Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke was not born in Ireland for nothing; he has the social gift that

commonly marks, whatever his original stock or descent, the man who happens to have the "ould sod" under him when first he stands upon his feet. He possesses the vein of humor that saves an official from the immovable mask of the Philistine and permits mere civilians to have their own opinions, even as to a work of art, without making them feel that they have trespassed on official ground. In certain branches of art he is regarded as an expert,—as for example architecture, to the study of which he devoted the early years of his life; objects of the Italian renaissance, and modern and ancient Oriental art works, which he has studied in India as well as in all the public and private collections of Europe and America.

His long voyages in search of objects to fill the gaps in the remarkable collections of the South Kensington have prepared him in the best way to understand the difference between one object actually of a given period and another made at a much later date in slavish imitation of the old. Such distinctions are of importance to museums, because many who consult the exhibits are in search of authentic documents or are following out some comparative study, establishing some theory or combating some error, and need, before everything

else, the closest approach to exactness that is possible. It is not beauty that forms the controlling influence in the acquisition of exhibits for a museum,—history and science are of greater importance. Unfortunately, the tendency in all museums is to forget, under the rightful claims of science and history, that beauty also has a right to be heard. This is one of the dangers that buyers for museums run. Not having beauty always before them as the first consideration, they gradually become dulled on that side and lose too much their delicacy of perception as regards pure charm and loveliness. The fact is that they are expected to cater to everybody's taste.

The student of the history of art, the archaeologist and ethnologist, find many hideous things attractive, owing to all sorts of considerations foreign to the æsthetic sense, but these leave the worshiper of beauty, who has no such thoughts, more than indifferent; he is pained,

and his senses are outraged, by the spectacle. It is then that we are likely to hear that familiar exclamation, "And they call this a museum of art!"

One may say of Sir Purdon Clarke that his life as purveyor of exhibits to the South Kensington has not made of him a scientific Philistine, has not extinguished in him the sense of what is beautiful by too great stress laid on what is useful to a well-equipped museum. Be it a freshness of spirit inborn, or the liveliness of mind which is won by travels conducted with a purpose, he belongs to the receptive persons whose minds have not fallen into a rut. From sheer weariness, some people, artists as well as laymen, take their refuge in dogmas of art as others do in those of religion and fence in their feelings against any impression outside of certain categories of thought. The new director of the Metropolitan has escaped this pitfall. He has the open mind and resilience of spirit that fit him to undertake a fresh venture under conditions entirely different from those to which he has been accustomed. He has the polish of the man of the world, and the wisdom not to allow himself to be irritated by the thousand and one hap-

penings which occur to a person in charge of a public or semi-public office. Such a man the Metropolitan needs. It is almost incredible what propositions the director of a great museum receives from persons who misunderstand completely the functions of such an institute.

The Metropolitan differs in many respects from the museums under governmental control in Europe. The site in Central Park and the building itself belong to the city, but the exhibits are the property of a private corporation. This state of affairs secures the museum from dangerous attentions on the part of politicians who might otherwise dictate to the management and stuff the museum with officials at their own sweet will, without regard to their fitness for the positions. On the other hand, the museum has no direct connection with the system of public education in the State; neither has it relations with art museums, galleries, and schools in other cities of the Union. A friendly connection exists with Columbia University by way of lectures on art given at the museum by professors of the university; but these are only tentative. Therefore, such a position as the South Kensington holds with respect to art schools and museums in other parts of England and Scotland, Wales, and Ireland can scarcely be imagined for the Metropolitan Museum.

The South Kensington is essentially a working museum under the British Government. It lends exhibits to provincial centers and establishes prizes for art students who come up to London from many provincial art schools. It took up a burden which the Royal Academy and its art school could not carry through, if the academicians had been willing to attempt it, and its place in the general scheme of education is fixed. As compared with the South Kensington, our museum finds itself in a totally different position toward the museums, art galleries, and art schools of this country. In time, perhaps, reciprocal relations might be established with certain large cities like Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Buf-



GEORGE H. STORY, N.A.

(Curator of paintings and acting director in the absence of Sir Purdon Clarke.)



PORTRAIT OF A GENTLEMAN BY REMBRANDT VAN RYN.
(Gift of the late Henry G. Marquand.)

falo, and St. Louis, which have the necessary buildings for exhibitions, and the art schools whose pupils might value honors given by the Metropolitan. Something in this nature is already carried on in a small way by the New York School of Art, which offers scholarships to selected pupils in art schools of other cities, enabling the winners to spend one or more winters at the New York school without charge for instruction. It is possible that by some general system and by working along these lines the Metropolitan might carry its influence and extend the usefulness of its collections to art students far beyond the borders of the State.

One difficulty in carrying out even partially a scheme like that in England is the question of distance between New York and most of those centers where interest in art is sufficiently strong to form schools and support galleries; another is the spirit of State pride, which will oppose anything that looks like recognizing New York as the general art center. In France and England there never has been any question of the primacy of Paris and London in such matters, and very naturally, since Paris and London are not only the greatest and wealthiest cities of the two countries, but the seats of national government. Colonial jealousies frustrated the plan

of making New York the capital of the Union, and State jealousy works relentlessly and with ever-fresh vim to diminish in all possible ways the "surquedry" of New York. Boston, Chicago, and Philadelphia regard with haggard eyes the tendency of their art students and artists to gather in New York. They are straining every nerve to so establish their own museums and schools as to keep their artists and students at home, just as New York herself is gradually building up a combination of schools, museums, clubs, and art neighborhoods which constantly tends to lessen the necessity of prolonged residence in Europe. In this campaign against the exile of American artists the Metropolitan has already played its part, and under the auspices of its new managers is certain to double its efficiency.

A museum which contains such paintings as the Duke of Richmond with greyhound by Anthony van Dyck, the old lady and the Hille Bobbe of Haarlem by Frans Hals, the portrait of Henry G. Marquand by Sargent, the landscapes by Martin and Inness, the elderly man by Rembrandt, and the Dutch interior by Vermeer van Delft offers examples of portraiture that painters can study and study again. In ancient art the museum possesses a great prize in the



PORTRAIT BY FRANS HALS OF HILLE BOBBE OF HAARLEM.
(A famous sorceress and odd character frequently painted by Hals.)

bronze biga found near Monteleone di Spoleto in the old Etruscan country, the like of which cannot be found in Rome, Florence, or Perugia. To this category belongs a wonderful bronze tripod covered with figures in relief, now on its way to New York, which, like the biga, shows the influence of Greek myth and legend on the art of the Etruscans. The ancient glass, the Egyptian and Cypriote antiquities, the Bishop collection of Chinese jades, the Crosby collection of musical instruments, are so complete that no one but a specialist need seek further. In sculpture the Willard casts cover a large section of the statuary preserved in European museums. Of American painting and sculpture there is a fair beginning, which the trustees hope to see



BRONZE-INCROUTE GALA CHARIOT OF ETRUSCAN MAKE WITH RELIEFS REFERRING TO THETIS, ACHILLES, AND MEMNON.

(Found near Monteleone di Spoleto, in Umbria, and put together in New York by Di Cesnola and Balliard.)

enlarged by gifts from collectors of native art. The nucleus is here for a very distinguished museum of the fine and applied arts, which requires, not only enlargement, but complete rearrangement, so that a student can find in the shortest possible time the object which he is seeking, whether it be prehistoric art, the handwork of Indians of the East or the West, ancient



LIFE-SIZE PORTRAIT OF THE DUKE OF RICHMOND AND HIS FAVORITE GREYHOUND BY SIR ANTHONY VAN DYCK.

(Gift to the museum by the late Henry G. Marquand.)

classic art, or whether it be that of extinct nations like the Babylonians, the Egyptians and Etruscans, or Roman, Romanesque, medieval, or Renaissance art.

That the present collections are not arranged to the best effect is due in large part to the embarrassment caused by the claim of donors to have their gifts kept together. To insure this the late Mr. Heber Bishop furnished with a specific decoration the interior of a gallery, with the understanding that his collection of jades and no other should occupy that room. The question confronts the director how to place objects in historical sequence and according to origin in different parts of the world when they are scattered through different collections presented to the museum with a proviso attached. If any one can solve these knots, it will be a man like Sir Purdon, who has suavity and diplomatic



"THE HARP OF THE WINDS."

(Landscape on the Seine by Homer D. Martin. Gift to the museum by a number of amateurs.)

finesse, and the silver tongue of the Irishman. His task will be considerably lightened when the new wing is completed on Fifth Avenue north of the present east façade. Eventually, a southern extension will be built, making the front on Fifth Avenue about one thousand feet long. The brick-and-stone edifice which housed all the collections up to the time the east wing was opened will be a central body at last, surrounded on four sides by a parallelogram of gray stone. The new wing will afford a chance to bring out many objects not shown before and fill the gaps of collections by fresh purchases, and at the same time get the whole mass of exhibits into some sequence according to race and period, epoch and ethnic origin.

No doubt at present the influence and practical usefulness of the museum are not what they could be after a judicious handling of its resources and property. The experience of the art school annex may have discouraged the trustees at the time, though it is fair to say that the

situation now is much more favorable than it was then. Neither space nor income was so propitious as now. Perhaps the lesson it taught was to have the art school elsewhere than under the roof of the museum proper, because it is very difficult to carry it on in close connection with a public building visited daily by thousands of people. A museum has to be watched by detectives and guards, closed and opened at regular hours, and managed like clockwork. A school of art is necessarily a realm apart, in which an entirely different spirit reigns. The two do not work well together. Indeed, the Royal Academy in London and the National Academy in New York have not been very fortunate with their several art schools, though each grew from an art school as a nucleus. It will be difficult for the new director to solve the question of the home school, let alone the connections to be made with others out of town, provided he proposes to introduce here something like the system at South Kensington.

WHAT THE NEW PRESIDENT IS PLANNING FOR THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

BY PRESIDENT EDMUND J. JAMES.

[Dr. Edmund J. James, one of the most advanced administrators of educational work in this country, has given up the presidency of Northwestern University, at Evanston, Ill., to become president of the Illinois State University, at Urbana-Champaign. Since Dr. James is a man of original and creative mind in his field, we have asked him to tell the readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS what he means to do at Urbana and what he thinks ought to be the place and function of the University of Illinois. The article presented herewith supplies the answer. Dr. James is to be installed this month, with exercises lasting from the 17th to the 19th.—THE EDITOR.]

I LOOK to see the University of Illinois do some things which no existing university does, and I hope it will lead the way along certain paths which I am sure our higher institutions of learning will surely travel.

In the first place, I hope to see it grow at the top and lop off at the bottom until it becomes a true university. I trust it will ere long leave much to the high school and the college, which it is now doing, and press forward to what I conceive to be the true work of the university on its educational side,—namely, the very highest and most careful training of the youth of our community for all the various callings for which a long scientific training based on adequate preparatory work is valuable or necessary. Such work few institutions in this country are doing at present,—and none of them adequately. In this I hope Illinois will do its part.

But the institution will go further in two or three directions, at any rate.

It will, in the first place, become a great civil-service academy, preparing men and women especially for the work of government in locality, State, and nation. Our civil-service laws passed in so many States, and gradually becoming more and more efficient, mean, not only that politics in the colloquial sense must be cut out of our public administration, but that those who seek positions in our public service shall be qualified in general and trained in particular for such posts. Special training of a scientific character will, then, be more and more required for important positions in the administration of city, county, State, and nation. And this training the University of Illinois will give, turning out men and women qualified for the civil service, as West Point and Annapolis turn out men qualified for the military and the naval service.

TO SERVE THE STATE.

Again, the University of Illinois will become more and more the scientific arm of the State

government, as the governor and his assistants are the executive arm and the judges and courts of justice are the judicial arm. Every State is to-day undertaking functions for the proper performance of which careful and long-continued scientific investigations are necessary,—investigations requiring the existence of large and well-equipped laboratories, with permanent staffs of scientific men. All such work should be entrusted to the university, and in proportion as it does this work will it develop more and more into a great scientific department of the State administration. A remarkable beginning in this direction has already been made at Illinois, as may be seen from the list of scientific departments associated with the university as given below.

Still further, the University of Illinois will, or at any rate should, undertake another task,—namely, certain of the functions of a State department, or ministry of education. We have in Illinois, as in most other American States, a State superintendent of public education, whose duties, however, are rather narrowly administrative, looking chiefly to the enforcement of legal regulations governing the action of school authorities. We have no public official interested,—as is the ministry of education in the German states, for example,—in the function of fostering the interest of education in general, lower as well as higher, whose duty it is to take stock of the educational needs of the community and present these needs to the attention of the government and the community. Such a function the university may, in certain directions, very properly undertake. Through its school of education, organizing the knowledge and skill of all other departments of the university for this end, it may bring to bear its expert knowledge on the great problems of education in such a way as to lead and inspire the community in this department of public policy. The State university, whatever other universities may do or not



PRESIDENT EDMUND J. JAMES, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

do, ought not to be content with training the teachers for the schools as they exist,—that is part of its work as a State civil-service academy,—it should all the time be investigating the question, What kind of schools do we need, and how should they be organized and integrated so as to make a complete and harmonious system?

These are some of the things I expect from the State university in general, and from the University of Illinois in particular.

FOR TRAINING MATURE MEN AND WOMEN.

It is evident enough, from the above, that I regard the university as an institution to train men and women, and not boys and girls. The latter is the work of high school and college, and will be remanded to them as soon as the American people has developed its education as it has developed its agriculture and its industry.

To accomplish all these things the university must,—and this ought to go without the saying,—train men and women of high moral character, idealistic aims, and untiring energy. It must naturally develop and train the scholar,

the original investigator. Its laboratories must be centers of research; its halls the fountains of purity, truth, honesty, and all things good and beautiful and true.

If I have said nothing of these things in what goes before, it is not that I do not value them, but rather because I regard them as so fundamental that they do not need mention. Without them, all else would be in vain. Without them as foundations, the superstructure would ultimately fall in ruins, no matter how high it should be reared or how massive the walls.

BEGINNINGS OF THE INSTITUTION.

The University of Illinois owes its foundation to the initiative of the federal government of the United States.

The celebrated Morrill Land Grant Act of July 2, 1862, provided that to each State in the Union should be granted thirty thousand acres of land for each Senator and Representative to which the State was entitled in the federal Congress for the establishment and support "of at least one college whose leading object should

be (without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics) to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life."

This grant of lands has turned out to be one of the most magnificent endowments of higher education ever made either by the State or the Church or private individuals. It has had, in addition, the most far-reaching effects, direct and indirect, in stimulating further grants by State and nation.

At least one institution corresponding to the above description has been established in each State as the result of this grant, to whose funds the State governments have in almost every instance added an endowment far exceeding that of the federal government.

In some cases the new college was annexed to or incorporated in some existing institution. In others it was made an entirely independent institution, limited to instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts. In still others it became the nucleus of a great State university, with all the departments belonging to an institution properly claiming such a time-honored name. This was the case in the State of Illinois.

The proceeds of the sale of these original lands constitute an endowment fund providing for the university about \$33,000 a year. By later acts, the federal government has added a yearly contribution of \$15,000 for the further endowment of these land-grant colleges, and an additional \$25,000 per year for the establishment and maintenance of an agricultural experiment station. All these funds, amounting to \$73,000 per year, go to the University of Illinois.

WHAT THE STATE HAS DONE.

The State government has added largely to these sums for the support of the College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts and the Experiment Station. The last Legislature, for example, appropriated for the support of these departments fully \$450,000, or six times as much as the federal government. Besides these sums, the State has made large appropriations for the establishment and support of other departments which were not specifically mentioned in the act of 1862.

In a word, the State of Illinois has not only applied conscientiously to the purposes indicated in the original act all the funds which Congress appropriated therefor, but it has added six times

as much for these same purposes, and has, in addition, provided for the other departments necessary to convert the College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts into a full-fledged university capable of answering to the multiform needs of a great commonwealth. The small contribution of the federal government has thus led to the expenditure of ten times as much by the State itself for higher education. Where has a similar grant ever produced larger returns for education in the history of any time or country?

The University of Illinois has become the largest of the institutions which owe their existence immediately to the federal grant of 1862. Opened for work on March 2, 1868, with fewer than fifty students, its growth for the first twenty years was very slow, as the State at first declined to give largely in addition to the federal grant. As late as 1890 its faculty numbered only 35, and the student body 418. Since that time, partly by the addition of new colleges and partly by the increase in attendance in the old departments, the number of students has grown to 3,725, and of the faculty to over 350.

PRESENT RANGE OF DEPARTMENTS.

To the original colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts (engineering, architecture, etc.) have been added a college of literature and arts, of science, of law, of medicine, of dentistry, and schools of music, of library science, of pharmacy, and of education.

In the College of Literature and Arts and the graduate school connected with it are included all the subjects of instruction of the modern university not embraced in the other schools and colleges except those offered in a theological seminary.

Associated with the university are, besides the agricultural experiment station, a State engineering experiment station (the first of the kind in the country), the State geological survey, the State laboratory of natural history, the State entomologist's office, and the State water survey.

Such is the university now. What is to be its future? The head of a great administrative enterprise should never forget the answer which Lincoln once made to a committee who urged him to take certain action, and one of whom said: "Why, Mr. Lincoln, it is very easy. All you have to do is to say so and it is done." "Ah, no, my friends," was the reply. "You do not understand. I have very little influence with this administration." So a university president can do but few of the things he would like to do. And perhaps it is just as well.



THE OPENING OF THE UINTAH RESERVATION.
(Drawing Lot No. 1 at Provo, Utah, August 17, 1905.)

THE UINTAH LAND OPENING.

THE Uintah Indian Reservation, recently opened to settlement, embraces the valley of the Duchesne River and its tributaries in northeastern Utah, and was created by executive order, dated October 3, 1861. By act of Congress, dated May 5, 1864, the superintendent of Indian affairs for the Territory of Utah was authorized and required to collect and settle upon this reservation all or so many of the Indians of Utah Territory as might be induced to inhabit the same. It proved to be a very difficult matter to get the Ute Indians to occupy the reservation. They were a powerful and warlike tribe, divided into numerous bands, and ranged over a vast extent of country in northwestern Colorado and northeastern Utah. In 1873, there were known to be seven tribes of the Utes of Utah by official construction located upon this reservation, but in fact roaming over other parts of the country most of the time, occasionally assembling to receive such supplies as were furnished them by the Government. At the present time but three tribes are recognized, being the Uintahs, White Rivers, and Uncompaghres.

These Indians now reside upon the reservation. According to the allotments made to them, they number 1,451 persons.

The area embraced within the boundaries of the reservation is 2,460,285 acres. Of this area, 1,010,000 acres, consisting of timbered mountains, mostly lying upon the northern and western sides of the reservation, was added to the Uintah Forest Reserve; about 61,000 acres was withdrawn for reservoir sites; about 103,000 acres was allotted to the Indians for agricultural purposes; 276,000 acres was reserved for Indian grazing lands and timber reserve; 2,020 acres was disposed of by act of Congress as mining claims; the Fort Duchesne military reserve occupies 3,860 acres, and the remainder, approximately 1,000,000 acres, which it is estimated would make 5,772 homestead claims, was opened to settlement on August 28, 1905.

Within recent years, public attention has been directed to this reserve through the discovery within its boundaries of large deposits of asphalt of the most valuable kinds, some of which are not found elsewhere. The principal one of these

substances, and the one which has made this locality famous, is called, in the geological reports, Uintaite. It is more generally known by its trade name of Gilsonite, given to it in honor of an early prospector of this locality named S. H. Gilson. In the geological reports, Gilsonite is described as being a black, tarry-looking substance with most brilliant luster, normally of absolutely homogeneous texture, and exceedingly brittle. It is employed generally in the manufacture of black, low-grade brush and dipping varnishes, and for ironwork, for insulated electric wires, and for coating poles, ties, and piling, and is a substitute for vulcanized rubber in the manufacture of certain articles. It was also generally believed that there were deposits of the precious metals within this Indian reservation, and the fact that prospecting had been prohibited within its boundaries had a tendency to magnify the reports in circulation relative to the mineral riches of the mountains.

On account of the known richness of the reservation in Gilsonite, elaterite, and other asphalt substances, taken in connection with the rumors of gold and silver mines that the reservation was alleged to contain, it was regarded as a certainty that if these lands were simply thrown open to entry without any regulations there would be a rush similar to those which took place at the opening of the first Oklahoma lands, with the hardship, violence, and bloodshed which attended those openings. In order that the lands might be entered in a peaceful

and orderly manner, Congress authorized the President to prescribe by proclamation the manner in which they should be settled upon, occupied, and entered by persons entitled to make entry thereof. In pursuance of this authority, the President, by proclamation, dated July 14, 1905, directed that the unallotted, unreserved portions of said reservation should be open to entry under the homestead and town-site laws on and after the twenty-eighth day of August, 1905. The proclamation also prescribed that there should be a registration at Vernal, Price, and Provo, in the State of Utah, and at Grand Junction, in the State of Colorado, for the purpose of ascertaining what persons desired to enter and settle upon and acquire title to any of these lands under the homestead law. It was also directed that the order in which, during the first sixty days following the opening, registered applicants would be permitted to make homestead entry of these lands should be determined by a drawing to be publicly held at Provo, Utah, commencing at 9 o'clock A.M., Thursday, August 17, 1905, and continuing for such period as might be necessary to complete the same.

In accordance with this proclamation, registration was conducted at the places and during the period prescribed in the proclamation, with the result that there were registered 37,702 applicants. A little more than one-half of this number were from Utah. Colorado furnished the next largest number, while all of the adjoining States and Territories, and a majority of



APPLICANTS FOR LAND STANDING IN LINE TO BE REGISTERED AT PROVO, UTAH.



THE WAGONS OF SOME WHO CAME TO REGISTER FOR THE UTAH LAND.

the States in the Union, were represented. All classes of people were represented in the registration, but the agricultural class,—those actually desirous of obtaining homes upon government land,—very largely predominated.

As each applicant was registered he signed his name on a card containing a description sufficient for his identification, which card was inclosed in a small plain envelope and sealed up. At the conclusion of the registration, all of these cards were brought together at Provo, and upon the day fixed for the drawing were placed in a box which could be revolved, and which was situated upon a platform in a public square, where all could see the drawing.

The actual drawing of the envelopes was done by schoolboys, and the man whose name was contained in the first envelope drawn had the

privilege of making the first entry of land, thus having the choice of any one-hundred-and-sixty-acre tract of the land opened to entry, the succeeding ones making entry in the order in which their names were drawn. One hundred and eleven entries may be made each working day during the sixty-day period prescribed by the proclamation, after which the remainder becomes public land. The registration and drawing were successfully concluded, and the entries, begun upon August 28, are progressing in a quiet and orderly manner.

This plan of opening Indian lands to settlement and entry was first used in 1901 in opening the Kiowa, Comanche, and Apache lands in Oklahoma, and has proved so satisfactory that it is followed by the Government in all cases of a similar nature.



TENTS OCCUPIED BY TRANSIENTS DURING THE REGISTRATION AT PROVO.

MEXICAN WATER-POWER DEVELOPMENT.

BY THOMAS COMMERFORD MARTIN.

THE American who has not traveled in Mexico is hardly likely to think of that country as richer in water-power possibilities than Switzerland, but the fact is that the hydraulic resources of our southern sister republic are commensurate with her treasures of gold and silver. And curiously enough, like the ranges that tower upward into Mont Blanc, the Jungfrau and the Matterhorn, the lofty mountains and plateaus of Mexico are so destitute of coal and wood as to render other means of obtaining motive power

extremely valuable. In the United States, the most striking hydro-electric development has occurred in California, where a similar scarcity of fuel always exists, and it is not surprising, therefore, to find Mexico a leader also in these essentially modern triumphs of skillful and bold engineering. The last five years have witnessed a wonderful outburst of activity in hydro-electricity in Mexico, with the result that she offers to-day some of the most remarkable examples of such work in the world. One of the most famous

plants is that utilizing the falls of Juanacatalan, while another is to be found at Guanajuato, the scene of recent disasters from flood, a center of mining activity for hundreds of years, and a century ago one of the five largest cities of the whole new world. With this revivification of rich old mining fields, the creation of new, and the birth of great manufacturing industries, Mexico has come to look upon her slender but lofty waterfalls as among her most cherished possessions, and is to-day welcoming fervently American capital, engineers, and machinery for their thorough exploitation.

Thus, it happens that Mexico can boast the longest electric-power transmission in the world from one big plant,—namely, that utilizing the splendid double-decked Necaxa Falls, whose glistening silver spray, by means of the electrical engineer's alchemy, becomes gold indeed at distant El Oro, or the city of Mexico,—a total line transmission of 171 miles. The Mexican Light & Power Company, an energetic corporation whose present field of operation is the great central Mexican plateau, is develop-



TEMPORARY PLANT INSTALLED AT NECAXA TO SUPPLY CURRENT AND COMPRESSED AIR TO BE USED IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE LARGE PERMANENT POWER PLANT IN THE SAME VICINITY.



A VIEW OF THE NECAXA FALLS, SHOWING THE TEMPORARY PLANT AND CABLEWAY.



A SECTION OF THE PIPE LINES.

ing and conserving the energy of the Tenango and Necaxa rivers, which, at a point 100 miles northeast of the city of Mexico, break out of the mountains at a height of three-quarters of a mile above the sea, and flow, finally, into the Gulf of Mexico. These twin rivers drain a territory of 227 square miles, and, owing to the extraordinary geologic nature of the region, encounter a wonderful succession of waterfalls, or precipitous plunges, with a total drop of more than half a mile—3,000 feet—in a distance of three miles. It is needless to say that with such a "head" even a modest quantity of water can keep some of the largest electrical generators spinning; and by creating reservoir capacity these mills of the heavens can be kept grinding out their grist of current all the year around at a steady output. The plan adopted for utilization has been bold, simple, Napoleonic. The Tenango River has been consolidated with the Necaxa, and their joint flow has been dammed up

into a reserve fund in an artificial lake at Necaxa. Thence the water goes through two "lofty tumbling" acts on the Necaxa River, and passing downward gets a total drop of 1,470 feet in a mile before it smashes headlong into the first power plant. Here, however, all its potential is not given up, as immediately below is another giddy drop of 1,100 feet, at the foot of which it must again set other dynamos humming before it is allowed to flow unvexed to the mangroves that fringe the Gulf. The two plants are to have a final capacity of no less than 80,000 horse-power, or enough to light up 1,000,000 incandescent lamps in the capital of Diaz.

A great deal of shrewd planning and clever engineering are needed for such a grandiose enterprise. The dam for the Necaxa lake, built of earth, will be 177 feet high, 600 feet long, 54 feet wide at its crest, and 950 feet wide at the base; it required 2,000,000 cubic yards of material, obtained chiefly by blasting and hydraulic sluicing. From the three-square-mile lake thus created up in the air runs a tunnel 1,550 feet long to two vertical pipes that finally reach a receiver, from which in turn six huge delivery seamless steel tubes drop to the powerhouse itself. In this initial power-house are six main water-wheels directly connected to the electrical generators, with a maximum capacity of 50,000 horse-power. Each impulse water-wheel has around its rim 24 large buckets, or scooped paddles, and the water falling on these imparts motion to the revolving field generators

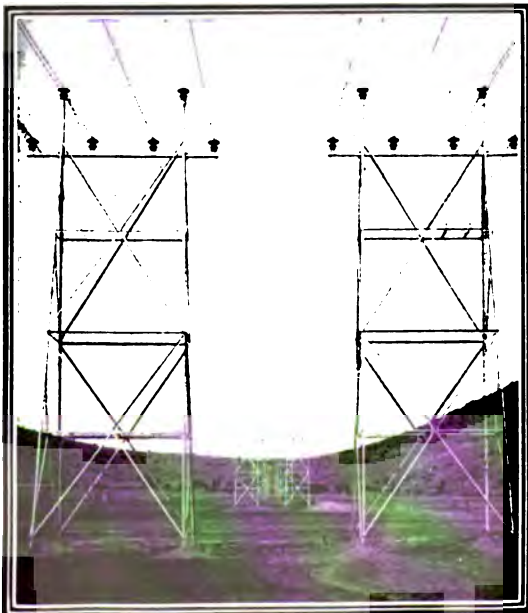


THE INTAKE PIPES AT THE HEADWORKS.



ONE OF THE SIX GIGANTIC WATER-WHEELS.
(Showing rim surrounded by twenty-four buckets, or
scooped paddles.)

that furnish three-phase alternating current at a pressure of 4,000 volts. This current then goes to "step-up" transformers, which, like spring-boards, raise its pressure to 40,000, 50,000, or 60,000 volts for the long-distance transmission



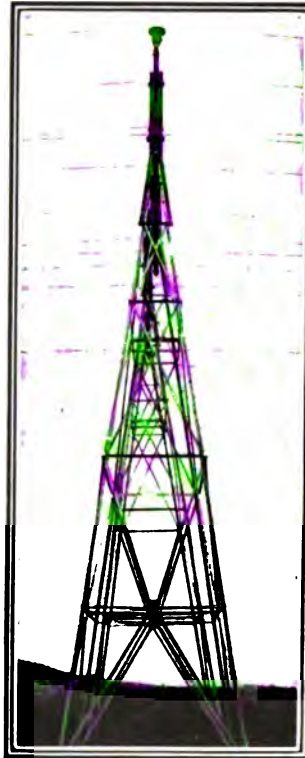
THE LOFTY STEEL TOWERS THAT SUPPORT THE STRANDED
COPPER CONDUCTORS.

circuits. Part of the electrical machinery is from Germany, part from Schenectady, while the water-wheels were imported from Switzerland. The power-house is a massive building of steel and masonry 235 feet long, 88 feet wide, and 60 feet high. All the apparatus for it, after transportation for thousands of miles, had to be

swung down over cliffs and inclined cableways some 1,500 feet before it got pocketed forever in the cañon where it must now work as long as it lives, an imprisoned giant devouring waterfalls.

The transmission circuits for such a plant as this must be as enduring as the power plant itself. Wooden poles would not suffice in lands of the white ant, the festooning creeper, and the tropic storm, so that here we find two lofty steel tower lines and four separate circuits right into the city of Mexico, and two circuits thence to El Oro.

The towers are of the kind associated in the popular



SIDE-VIEW OF A TRANSPOSITION
TOWER.

mind in America with windmills, and stand 50 feet high on 500-foot spans, or higher when spans are strung as long as 1,200 feet. The stranded copper conductors, about twice the diameter of lead pencils, are supported on massive insulators that resemble mushrooms at the end of short walking-sticks. There are 534 miles of circuit and 1,602 miles of aerial cable, so that the pole line is conspicuous as it bestrides 171 miles of landscape. At full load, the loss of current between Necaxa and the city of Mexico is only 8 per cent., and from that point to El Oro only 5 per cent. more.

Arrived at both the city of Mexico and the El Oro gold fields, the high-potential line current is received at large sub-stations, stepped down in pressure, and so manipulated as to be safely available for public use.

PRESIDENT DIAZ ON TRANSCONTINENTAL TRADE.

BY HENRY STEAD.

I WAS not long in Mexico before I discovered that, for all practical purposes, Diaz was Mexico and Mexico was Diaz. President in name only, absolute dictator in reality. General Diaz was first elected in 1876. With a break of four years (1880-84), he has ruled in peace ever since. An election takes place every four years, but hardly any one goes to the polls, and a unanimous vote in favor of Diaz is recorded.

On every hand one is confronted with evidences of the cleverness and resource of this man, who holds Mexico in the hollow of his hand. There is confidence throughout the whole financial world in the integrity of Mexico. Money is pouring in to develop the wonderful resources of the country, and all because Diaz is there. When he first came to power, robbery and corruption were rife. Now a held-up train is unknown, and any one can travel without fear throughout the length and breadth of the land. Not the least of his achievements was the formation of the *Rurales*. These are the country police, well mounted, well-built men, well organized. Formerly they were bandits who kept the country in terror. Diaz offered them two alternatives,—amnesty and enrollment in a corps of the army, with higher pay than any cavalryman receives anywhere else in the world, or, that for every person robbed any bandit caught should promptly be shot. The amnesty was accepted.

A STRONG AND PEACEFUL REIGN.

When any member of his cabinet becomes too strong and self-assertive he finds himself appointed governor of a distant province. There, far from the center of things, he can lord it as a king if he will. The astute president never allows army corps to remain more than a month or two in any province. The governor may become too popular with the officers; so the army circulates constantly throughout the land. The building of railways has been steadily fostered by the president, and they have largely helped in keeping things quiet. Formerly an insurrection in a distant province assumed formidable proportions long before the republican soldiers could march to and quell it. Now, within twenty-four hours horse, foot, and artillery are on the spot, and revolutions have quite gone out of fashion.

There is much speculation as to what will happen when Diaz dies. Merchants and financiers trust that if things go wrong Uncle Sam will be obliged to step in to safeguard the large monetary interests of his subjects. The general feeling is that things will go on smoothly, as the people have had no fighting for twenty years, and do not want any, finding that peace pays best. No one, however, believes that the present vice-president, Signor Corral,—good and able man though he is,—will become the chief executive. It is generally assumed that Diaz is training some one up to take his place, and most point to his nephew as the man.

AN AUDIENCE WITH THE PRESIDENT.

My appointment with the president was at the National Palace, near the cathedral which the Spaniards erected on the site of the old pyramidal temple they captured from the Aztecs with so much slaughter and bloodshed. As I crossed the square I noticed a procession of workmen in their quaint attire entering from another street. Policemen formed them up facing the palace gate. Four of the workers, evidently the spokesmen, accompanied by a gentleman, their introducer, immediately preceded me, through the lines of soldiers standing at attention, to the audience-room. I found a large number gathered there seated on the luxurious couches of the ante-room to the Hall of Ambassadors. I was surprised to notice that many of those waiting smoked incessantly, rather to the detriment of the fine carpet. After a little while an attendant, not in uniform, entered and read fourteen or fifteen names from a typewritten paper in his hand. The unfortunates who were not mentioned rose and left the room; the rest remained, although those after the eighth or ninth would have little chance of audience that day. The first name was called about fifteen minutes later, and its bearer went into another ante-room at the end in which were the president's two aide-de-camps. The audience varied from fifteen minutes to half an hour. Near me sat the four workmen, supremely ill at ease. One, rather venerable, wore a red-and-white scarf over his blue blouse. Another had the usual blanket over his shoulders, his head coming through a hole in the center. This deputation went in just before I did.

President Diaz came to the door to meet me. He is short, with almost white hair. His eyes are clear and penetrating. High cheek-bones give a very Indian look to the face, which is brown, probably because of exposure on many a tented field. The mouth is almost hidden beneath an iron-gray mustache. He has a firm chin and small but powerful hands. The president is seventy-four, but does not look sixty. His carriage is alert and vigorous, and although he had had a hard day's work, he showed no signs of fatigue. He motioned me to a chair, and sat down in one immediately opposite. The interpreter sat by my side.

PROSPERITY AND IMMIGRATION.

"I find," I said, "that the present prosperity of Mexico and her people is, to a very large extent, due to you, and I am proud to meet a man who in a comparatively short time has been able to bring cosmos out of chaos in the way you have done."

President Diaz deprecatingly replied: "I am not the man to whom the prosperity of the country is due. It is my people themselves who have made it possible. All I have done has been to lead and direct. At first it was true it had sometimes to be done with a heavy hand, but now everything goes smoothly and I wear a velvet glove. It is the people, and they alone, who are the cause of the prosperity of the republic."

"You encourage immigration, do you not?"

"Yes. My country needs developing, and for many of its industries and mines requires foreigners. I am arranging just now for several thousand Porto Ricans to come. They are used to the same climate, and will be useful citizens."

COMPETITION WITH PANAMA.

"I notice that you are devoting considerable energy to the development of ports and harbors."

"Yes, we are spending forty million dollars gold in all upon them. Sir W. Pearson, of England, is the contractor, and his monthly check often reaches half a million dollars gold."

The president proceeded to describe what he saw in a tour he made to the different harbors now being built. From what he said it was evident that he is a keen observer.

"I believe that you hope to capture a great deal of the transcontinental trade now carried by the Panama Railway?"

"We think that we will get that trade for many years to come, and will largely increase it. The engineer in charge of the Panama Canal works has announced that the railway will be entirely requisitioned for construction work. He calculates that he will have the canal ready for use in ten years. The difficulties there are, however, enormous. One of the worst will be that of labor. I do not expect it will be finished in fifteen years."

THE TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE.

"Are your harbors and railway ready?"

"The railway is completed, but the harbors will not be ready for two years. At Salina Cruz, which is the Pacific terminus of the railway, the water is so deep that the contractor has been unable to run his breakwaters out into the sea. He will therefore build them on the land and dig out the sand to the required depth, and then let in the water."

"Instead of winning the harbor from the sea, he carves it from the land and then lets the sea in?"

"Exactly. At Coatzacoalcas, on the Gulf of Mexico, there is not that difficulty. The government has already made a contract with a great steamship company, and as soon as the harbors are ready six of its vessels will ply to the Atlantic and four to the Pacific end of the railway."

"Until the canal is cut your railway should be a link in the most direct route from Australia and New Zealand to Europe and the Eastern States of America. But after fifteen, or, say, twenty, years what will become of it?"

"If you look at the map," he replied, "you will notice that it is much shorter to take our route than to go all around the Yucatan peninsula to Panama. I feel sure that even after the canal is cut we will still retain a large percentage of the interoceanic trade. The dues on the canal will be a considerable item. Of course, using our route necessitates transshipment."

"I think it was Admiral Fisher who said he would not care to risk a battleship costing five million dollars in a canal which necessarily would have to run risks of earthquake and floods."

"Earthquakes are bad there," said the president; "but it is the yellow fever which will be the worst enemy the builders will have to contend with."

After talking of many other more personal matters, I took a cordial leave.



THE FUTURE OF BRITISH INDIA.

BY SIR HENRY COTTON, K.C.S.I.

[In view of Lord Curzon's resignation of the viceroyalty of India and the certainty that Indian questions will press for solution in the next British Parliament, it is an opportune moment, we feel, to present to our readers the following article on India and the policies and prospects which are before her. Sir Henry Cotton, who speaks from the background of thirty-five years' experience in the Indian service, knows the Hindu and his land better than perhaps any other living Englishman. In December, 1904, he was president of the Indian National Congress, an annual assembly the nearest approach to an Indian parliament.]

THERE has been a great uprising in India. Great changes are taking place. There is a general revolt of discontent. We have witnessed the unparalleled spectacle of mass-meetings of indignant protest at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Allahabad, and Lahore. Lord Curzon is a man of exceptional ability and extraordinary industry and not incapable of great sympathy, and if only he could have sympathized with the aspirations and hopes of the Indian people, he might have made his viceroyalty memorable in the annals of India. But he has failed in this matter. He sees from one standpoint, the Indian people from another. No viceroy was ever so unpopular in India as Lord Curzon is. The result of reaction is always to galvanize the elements of progress into fresh life. The revolution which has been wrought by English influences and civilization in India will always constitute the most abiding monument of British rule. It is hundred armed, and leaves no side of the national character untouched. But the government is irresponsive; it remains the same, a monopoly of the ruling race; there is no diminution of suspicion, distrust, and dislike of the national movement. The aim and end of the new imperial policy is to knit with closer bonds the power of the British Empire over India, to proclaim and establish that supremacy through ceremonies of pomp and pageantry, and by means of British capital to exploit the country in the economic interests of the British nation. The encouragement of Indian aspirations falls not within its ken. It would be strange indeed if the fire of a patriotic opposition were not kindled.

Lord Curzon lately declared that he could not conceive of a time as remotely possible in which it would be either practicable or desirable that Great Britain should take her hand from the Indian plow. That is the popular view, and I do not doubt that it voices the unreflecting opinion of the majority of Englishmen. But it is not my conception of India's future. It is not possible that the British tenure of India, as it is now held, can be of a permanent

character. The administration of all the departments of a great country by a small number of foreign visitors, in a state of isolation, produced by a difference in religion, ideas, and manners, which cuts them off from all intimate communion with the people, can never exist as a permanent state of things. The progress of education renders it impracticable, even if it were otherwise free from objection. The emancipation of India has become inevitable ever since a system of English education has been established and the principle of political equality accepted. The increasing influence of a free press, the substitution of legal for discretionary forms of procedure, the extension of railways and telegraphs, the easier communication with Europe, and the more ready influx of Western ideas and liberal principles have produced their effect. The power of public opinion is growing daily. The great upheaval which has revolutionized all departments of Indian thought, inspired the aspirations of diverse communities, and infused the sense of nationality through a vast and surging empire can only find its peaceful fulfillment in the wise recognition of changes inherent in the situation which the British Government itself has created. An abrupt retreat from India would be advocated by no one; it would be to act like men who should kidnap a child, and then in a fit of repentance abandon him in a tiger jungle. The progress of reconstruction cannot be effected otherwise than by slow and gradual means, and many years must elapse before we can expect the consummation of a reconstructive policy. But it is a policy which we should always keep before our eyes. Sooner or later India must again take her own rank among the nations of the East. That great country is not inhabited by a savage primitive people who have reared no indigenous system of industry or art, who are ignorant of their own interests, and who are incapable of advance in civilization. They look back on their past with a just sense of pride, and under the influence of English education are stimulated with legitimate ambition.

They are striving for the attainment of high ideals which, however they may be delayed or marred in execution, are sure in the event.

INDIA'S LOYALTY AND INDIAN ASPIRATIONS.

The people of India do not like the British dominion, but they do not wish to see a change of masters. They know that the abolition of English dominion would be accompanied by incalculable disaster. There is not the faintest wish on the part of the educated classes of India to turn the British Government out of the country. They have the greatest dread of Russia. The dislike of Russia by educated Indians is probably far stronger than that felt by ordinary Englishmen, and if there is any Russian who dreams that India is looking forward to the day when Russia would take the place of England he is profoundly mistaken. The Indian people are loyal to England. The people of India do believe in the good faith, honor, and integrity of Englishmen. They are grateful for the education with which they have been endowed; grateful for the liberties they enjoy, and grateful for their immunity from foreign invasion. But this gratitude is tempered by a feeling that the pledges held out to them by her late gracious majesty Queen Victoria, and by men in exalted positions, have not been fulfilled. They claim that the government should repose confidence in them, and not shrink from raising them to the highest posts. They demand real, not nominal equality, a voice in the government, and a career in the public service.

It was the dream of John Bright, and he indulged in no mere mystic prophecy when he foresaw that India would fulfill her fate by a process of evolution, out of which she would emerge, not through force or violence, as an independent state, or torn from the mother country, or abandoned to England's enemies, but as a federated portion of the dominions of the great British Empire. The destiny of India is to be placed on a fraternal footing with the colonies of England. The ideal of the Indian patriot is the establishment of a federation of free and separate states, the United States of India, corresponding with existing local areas and administrations and independent chiefships, each with its own local autonomy cemented together under the ægis of Great Britain.

THE ECONOMIC PROBLEM.

No one who considers the economic condition of India can doubt that one of its greatest evils is to be found in the fact that the great mass of the people are dependent upon the cultivation of the soil. The establishment of large indus-

tries capitalized by Englishmen affords but a poor compensation for the variety of indigenous industries once spread through the country. An India supplying England with its raw products and dependent upon England for all its more important manufactures is not a condition of affairs which Indian patriots can contemplate with equanimity. The spectacle of a cluster of Europeans settling down upon their country and sucking from it the moisture which ought to give them sustenance finds no favor in their eyes. Their opposition to the exploitation of their country by foreigners is based upon a conviction that this exploitation is a real obstacle to their progress. They are convinced that the prosperity of the country depends on the diminution of its economic drain and on the conservation of its resources for ultimate development by indigenous agency. I am glad to recognize the growing tendency of Indians to help themselves. There are satisfactory evidences of this tendency. The difficulties are immense, for the essential difficulty always hinges on the disagreeable truth that there can be no revival of Indian industry without some displacement of British industry. But the first steps have been taken and a start made by Indian capitalists.

WESTERN INFLUENCES ON THE EAST.

The force which has made Japan what she is is an absorbing patriotism derived from, and dependent on, her national existence. It is based on collective action, which independence alone can give. What an inspiration is afforded by the character of these Eastern islanders! What an example have they not set to the East of the power of a patriotic spirit! That example is not lost on India. Although the conditions there do not point to any early renaissance such as we have witnessed in Japan, the changes taking place are as remarkable in their social, moral, and religious relations as in their political aspect. India is bereft of its independence. But a nascent nationalism is the magnet which holds together the solvent influences of Western civilization, let loose in the simple society of the East. Under the immediate effect of these influences the old organizations are crumbling up. The result of English education has been to break the continuity of centuries, and India has entered upon a period of transition preparatory to the establishment of a new order. It is in matters of education more than any other that the people of the country are ripe for self-government. Systematic education is already falling into the hands of private enterprise. A policy which endeavors to knit together still tighter the bonds of official control is absolutely retro-

grade. It has been condemned by every section of Indian opinion, and though it may temporarily prevail, it will be as evanescent as it is unsound. It is only through the educated members of the Indian community that it is possible to guide the people at large so as to bridge over the period of disorder with the least disturbance. It is reserved for them to introduce modifications, with due regard to the antecedents which must always powerfully affect the environment in which they are placed. The problem of grafting Western ideas on to an Oriental stock can only be solved by Orientals who are thoroughly imbued with a knowledge of Western civilization, and have at the same time not lost sight of the traditions of their past.

RECONSTITUTION OF THE CIVIL SERVICE.

The keynote of administrative reform is the gradual substitution of Indian for European official agency. That is the one end toward which India is concentrating her efforts, and the concession of this demand is the only means of satisfying the most reasonable of her aspirations. To meet this end the complete reconstitution of the Indian civil service is necessary. It is surprising how little change there has been in the form of administration in India during the past century. The character of the civil service has been theoretically unchanged. It is a fine old service, of which I, of all men, have reason to speak with respect. It has enrolled within its ranks men of whom the mother country may well be proud. It is, however, a form of administration both bureaucratic and autocratic, and an organization suited only to a government by foreigners. It has been perceptibly weakening from its inherent inapplicability to the altered conditions it has to face. It must pass away after a prolonged period of magnificent work, to be replaced by a more popular system, which shall perpetuate its efficiency while avoiding its defects. The government should now find expression in a form of administration more representative and less concentrated in individuals. In the judicial branch of the service, reorganization is immediately required. The members of that service when very young and, in the case of Englishmen, very ignorant of the language, are vested with magisterial powers beyond comparison greater than those possessed by corresponding functionaries under any civilized government, and it would best range indeed if they were not led into occasional errors and sometimes into abuse of power. It is the system that is to blame.

ARMY REORGANIZATION.

The martial spirit of our own Indian subjects is dying out. The Russians can get from the territories they have absorbed in Central Asia an Alikhanoff or a Loris Melikoff. We can only produce men who rise to the rank of Naik, Havildar, or Resildar, or to some other subordinate post, the name of which perplexes the English public. The Mogul emperors adopted heartily and completely the policy of trust; Akbar's greatest generals and most devoted adherents were sons of the very men his grandfather had conquered. The Rajput chivalry was the main bulwark of the Mogul throne. The British Government, on the contrary, has adopted a policy of suspicion; the officers of the native army are only noncommissioned old soldiers, promoted from the ranks, who in virtue of their longer services draw larger pay and are permitted to sit down in the presence of an English subaltern. The first step toward reorganization is to augment the power of the native officers and to afford some scope to their abilities and ambition. The conversion of a mercenary army into a national force is the logical complement of this step. The establishment of provincial army corps, with an *esprit* and traditions of their own, recruited from the common people, and officered by the gentry of the provinces in which they are to serve, would prove both a safeguard against internal disorder and a protection against attack from without.

Mr. Balfour has rendered an inestimable service by his recent speech in the House of Commons on imperial defense. It marks an epoch in the history of Anglo-Indian militarism. It comes to this, that in the opinion of the Committee of Defense the invasion of India, "the bugbear of successive governments," is practically out of the question. The fear of Russian invasion is a strange hallucination, which has existed without intermission for nearly a century, and even now, when we have seen the annihilation of Russia's forces in Manchuria, the apprehension has not been altogether dispelled. But Mr. Balfour's speech has done much to place matters in a proper light. The truth is, that the obstacles which nature has placed between the land of the Czar and the Indian dominions of the British Crown are insuperable, and that aggression on the part of Russia toward India would be as suicidal in her case as aggression on the part of England into Central Asia would infallibly result in the destruction of an army dispatched thither.

SWITZERLAND'S FÊTE OF THE VINE.



A PAGEANT OF THE FÊTE DES VIGNERONS, THE GREAT SWISS PASTORAL FESTIVAL, HELD AT VEVAY, AUGUST 4 TO 11, CELEBRATING WITH SONGS, BALLADS, AND TABLEAUX THE RURAL LIFE OF SWITZERLAND.



A VIEW OF THE GREAT PLAZA AT VEVAY DURING ONE OF THE OPENING PAGEANTS.
(Originating in Vaudois, this custom has spread to all French Switzerland, until it is now national in scope.)



THE COSTUMES AND DANCES ARE OF EXQUISITE GRACE AND BEAUTY.

(This year the spectacle was viewed by more than 100,000 persons, and 1,800 actors and musicians took part.)



THE FOUR SEASONS IN THE LIFE OF THE VINEYARDER ARE REPRESENTED IN TABLEAUX.

(It not only celebrates the traditional Swiss life, but brings out the poetry of the peasants' occupations.)

AMERICAN LIFE INSURANCE ON TRIAL.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

[Readers of this magazine are thoroughly familiar with Mr. Walter Wellman's presentation of current public questions of moment. Mr. Wellman is a journalist of independent mind, who would not for anything part with his privilege of frank and honest utterance. Where human interest has its focus, there one will generally find Mr. Wellman studying the topic of the hour. Before going to Portsmouth to be near the deliberations of the peace conference, he had spent some weeks in New York studying the life-insurance question. The article which we present herewith embodies the main results of Mr. Wellman's inquiries. He is not an insurance expert, and this article will not express the views of very many able and honest men who have long concerned themselves with the insurance business. It has seemed best to us, however, to ask Mr. Wellman to set forth his views, and to publish them for what they are worth, without modifications, however erroneous some critics may regard them. It is hoped that next month we shall be able to present an article written in equal good faith from the standpoint of a man responsibly engaged in the insurance business.—THE EDITOR.]

"**A**MERICAN life insurance is not on trial, but American life-insurance management is," said, recently, the president of one of our largest insurance companies. But he is wrong. American life insurance *is* on trial. At the very outset of this article I wish to place all possible emphasis upon the statement that mal-administration—graft and petty pilfering—is not the most serious phase of life-insurance management in this country to-day. The graft is bad enough. But the economic faults of life-insurance management are far worse. The chief weakness of the whole system is not found in defective morals, but in defective methods. The one may cost policy-holders a few millions a year; the losses due to the other run to scores of millions annually.

At first, the scandal of the Equitable mismanagement engrossed attention. It was startling, sensational. It produced big headlines and filled acres of space in the newspapers. The public was shocked. Here was corruption, not on the part of subordinates, cashiers, clerks, and small-salaried men, but on the part of those occupying the highest places of trust and responsibility,—leaders in the financial world and in society. The offense which these men committed was not alone against the policy-holders of that company,—they sinned grievously against the whole American people. They impaired public confidence. They led the common people all over the land to fear that the management of other great financial institutions was infected with a like gangrene of graft. Everywhere people asked: "Where is this thing to stop? What are we coming to? If such things can be in the Equitable, which has stood for generations as a model of solid probity, why not in others? Where next shall we hear of criminal greed on the part of eminently respectable rich men occupying posts of financial trust? In these days of fren-

zied finance and feverish rush to get rich, in whom can we place our faith?

PROFOUND INTEREST, BUT NO PANIC.

It is a wonder that there was not something like a panic among the policy-holders of the country. But there was none. The people kept their heads. They did not lose faith in all life-insurance management because a few officials of one concern had been caught making money wrongfully. They did not rush to the conclusion that one sore spot indicated the whole financial body was diseased. They refused to accept the version of the ultra-pessimistic that the managing men throughout the whole world of finance were crooked, that old-fashioned business honor is played out in this country, and that get-rich-quick-no-matter-how has supplanted the plain honesty of the olden days. They did not lose confidence in banks, nor in savings institutions, nor by wholesale drop their life-insurance policies. This steadiness and patience is a quality highly characteristic of the American people. Honest themselves, they are loath to suspect dishonesty in others. Both in their temperament and in their splendid and well-diffused prosperity, they are optimists. They are not easily demoralized in their judgment nor quickly roused to unreasoning anger.

THE PEOPLE ARE STUDYING INSURANCE.

But at last the American people began to demand information about life-insurance methods in general,—the economies of the business as well as its scandals. The Equitable affair vastly and well-nigh universally stimulated curiosity and study; it first produced exclamation marks, and then interrogation points. It was characteristic of a people of such extraordinary quickness and alertness of mind,—and a people filling a continent taught by a marvelously synchron-

ous press to think about the same thing at the same time,—that there should suddenly arise from one end of the country to the other a desire for information about this great institution of life insurance. For years the people had pinned their faith to this institution. They had poured their money into it by the hundreds of millions. To do so had become a national habit, almost a second nature. And like most habits, it had formed and developed without much inquiry, investigation, analysis, or discrimination.

The day has passed in which any concern bearing the name of life insurance can send out solicitors and gather in business. Men who formerly paid for policies without reading them now insist upon thorough inquiry before investing. The net result will be vastly beneficial to the insuring public. After the cloud has passed, well-managed companies will be stronger than before. The derelicts among companies; the concerns waterlogged by waste, extravagance, and worse; those which have followed bad methods; others which have fallen under the control of bad men—mere pirates or adventurers—must go down. There are good and bad companies, and now we are to enforce the law of the survival of the fit. Waste and graft in the Equitable may have cost the policy-holders of that society a few millions; in the end the upheaval will save the American people millions by the score or hundred.

THE PEOPLE'S STAKE IN INSURANCE.

It is high time the people were showing keener interest in the subject. One of the most marvelous phases of life in this marvelous country of ours is the growth of life insurance. It is not easy for the senses to grasp the big figures which tell of the extent to which life insurance enters the homes, the hopes, the expectations, the economies, the present and the future of the American masses.

Leaving out the so-called "industrial" insurance, and the assessment or fraternal-society insurance, there were in force in the United States at the end of 1904 5,050,000 life-insurance policies, and the total amount insured was \$10,235,000,000, or an average of a little more than \$2,000 to the policy. Good authorities estimate that these five millions of policies are held by half as many individuals. Nearly one-half of all this vast insurance total is carried by three companies in New York City,—the New York Life, the Mutual Life, and the Equitable. Since December 31, 1904, the largest of these companies has passed the million-policies line and reached a total of above two billion dollars of outstanding insurance.

During 1904, all the "old line" companies

together collected premiums from policy-holders to the total of \$472,000,000, and enjoyed other income (interest and rentals) amounting to \$108,000,000 more. Their total income was, therefore, \$580,000,000, paralleling the income of the federal government. Not only are the people of the United States now paying into life-insurance treasuries \$9,000,000 a week, but the "old line" companies hold \$2,250,000,000 assets to protect outstanding policies or as surplus over legal-reserve liabilities. Adding industrial and fraternal insurance, fully \$2,500,000,000,—equal, approximately, to the national debt shortly after the Civil War,—is now held in trust in life-insurance treasuries.

Such is the stake which the people have in life insurance. Such is the magnitude of this sacred trust which reposes in the managers of our life-insurance institutions,—a trust for men who practise self-denial for their dependents, a trust for widows, orphans, and the needs of old age.

SOURCE OF THE EQUITABLE SCANDAL.

Diligent investigation pursued through several months has satisfied me that the trouble in the Equitable may be accurately ascribed to three principal causes.

It was unfortunate that the society, though in essence mutual, as all life insurance should be, was actually and legally a stock company.

It was unfortunate that a majority of this stock was owned by a young man who had inherited it, and who was unfitted, both in character and experience, to resist the temptation to believe that through his stock control he fairly owned the whole concern, that his rights were paramount to those of the policy-holders. This is the spirit which pervaded the Equitable management before the upheaval,—the property belonged to the chief stockholders, and they could do as they liked with it short of violation of law and outright stealing.

The economic faults common to most American life insurance companies in this country were accentuated in the Equitable,—the writing at wholesale of deferred-dividend policies, which pile up the surplus to astounding totals, this surplus being money on hand above legal liabilities and offering constant temptation to company-managers to manipulate it to their personal advantage. Among the chief stockholders of the Equitable there was a feeling that a mistake had been made in promising policy-holders that the surplus should be regarded as theirs, and that instead of holding it for the insureds, it should, in part, at least, be divided among the owners of the stock as the profits of the business. There

being no legal way to do this, the chief stockholders and the managers of the property (being the same persons) seemed to have a belief that they were entitled to a "whack" at the surplus by indirect methods, since they were barred from a direct division. Hence exorbitant salaries, highly improper expenses, syndicates, pools, pensions, questionable loans, subsidiary trust companies, outside speculations carried by company funds, secret loans, and all the paraphernalia of petty graft and the modern "rake off" system in high finance. Legally, these practices may not have been stealing; morally, they were.

THOMAS F. RYAN'S MOTIVES AND METHODS.

ASTOUNDING as were the revelations of Equitable malfeasance, the public was almost as much shocked when it learned that Mr. Hyde's majority stock had been sold to Thomas F. Ryan. That was a transaction which illustrated one of the worst phases of capital-stock life insurance. There need be no misunderstanding as to Mr. Ryan's purposes and his relations to the society. Not even Mr. Ryan's most generous friends will contend that altruism led him to pay \$2,500,000 for stock which by law can net him only \$3,500 a year. Mr. Ryan is not the worst man in the world; at the same time, he is not an altruist. He bought control of Equitable because it is his ambition to be the financial king of the metropolis,—an ambition which may yet be gratified. He wanted to add this great insurance concern, with its enormous assets and surplus, its vast loaning power, to his already long and important string of associated properties,—properties under his absolute control or in which he is an influential factor. A few years ago, Mr. Ryan was in the fourth or fifth rank of New York financiers. A year ago he was in the second class. He wanted to get into the first row. And he got there through his purchase of Equitable control. The dividends on that stock are a bagatelle. At the same time, it was a most excellent investment in prestige and power. It was worth far more than it cost. It was the successful *coup* of an extraordinarily shrewd and daring operator in corporations. If the Equitable were to go to pieces through loss of public confidence,—of which there is no serious danger,—and Mr. Ryan were to lose every dollar he put into the venture, he would still regard his bargain as a good one. A seat among the very high and mighty of finance is cheap at two and one-half millions.

RYAN'S GREAT RESPONSIBILITY.

But how about the policy-holders who have an actual stake of more than four hundred mil-

lions of dollars in the future of the concern? How well or how ill are their interests conserved by the daring operator's deal? My investigations have convinced me that the Equitable Society is now in much better hands than it was before. The only success Mr. Ryan can make in that venture is an honorable, a real success. I believe he realizes this. A mere stock-jobbing success would be a failure. Deliberate wrecking and an attempt to grab the surplus of a wound-up concern would be ethically if not statutorily criminal. As one of the first financiers of the country, and the one who is most rapidly growing, Mr. Ryan has assumed enormous responsibilities. He must meet them. If some of his past methods have been a little peculiar, the future must bring his vindication. In a wider way than ever before, he has become a servant of the public. He is on trial. He must make a success of the Equitable or stand to lose that which should be infinitely more precious to him than his two and one-half millions.

PAUL MORTON'S HIGH AIM.

THERE is nothing in this world that practical men place more faith in than a really intelligent selfishness. Hence, there should be faith in Mr. Ryan's management of the Equitable. So far, and as far as we know, he has done well. He laid his plans with much cleverness. For trustees of the stock he chose the only living ex-President of the United States, a famous inventor and business man, and an eminent jurist. For the actual chief of the new management he selected Paul Morton, just out of President Roosevelt's cabinet. Mr. Morton knew nothing about life insurance, but he is an executive of rare ability, and an upright man. He has already shown what he can do, what he intends to do. He is reorganizing the shop, cleaning out the stables, reducing expenses, cutting salaries, dropping objectionable officers, putting new vigor and a more wholesome spirit into the entire management. Mr. Morton has but one ambition, and that is to make a record for himself by making a success of the Equitable. He avows his personal independence, his freedom from all restraint, his determination to devote his energies wholly to the interests of the society, his keen realization of the magnitude and sacredness of the trust reposed in him. Surely this is a vast improvement over the old *régime*. Already public confidence is slowly returning.

At the same time, the present control of the society is far from ideal. There is nothing to be gained by blinking the fact that despite the elaborate scheme of trusteeship, despite all the talk of Mr. Ryan selling his stock to the society

at cost and getting out, Mr. Ryan actually controls the property, and is likely to continue to control it. He names the new directors to be elected, or as many of them as he cares to name. His will is paramount when and wherein he cares to exert it. There is not the slightest reason to suppose that he intends to do anything wrong; but so long as he retains the power to do pretty much as he pleases there will inevitably be uneasiness. As yet Mr. Ryan has not the reputation that carries implicit confidence, but if given time he may acquire it.

ONE-MAN POWER IN INSURANCE.

It goes without saying that a great life insurance company, carrying the savings and the hopes of from half a million to a million families, should not be under the rule of a single individual, and if there must be one-man rule, that man must be most carefully selected. Theoretically, all life insurance is mutual,—a banding together of so many men to help one another carry and provide against the hazards of life and the certainty of death or old age. But actually, save in exceptional cases, all life insurance has one-man rule, or at best the rule of a very small number of men. And it doesn't matter whether the company be a stock company or a so-called mutual company without capital stock. It comes to the same thing in the end. In stock companies, there is a monarchy, or at least an oligarchy, through the voting power of the stock. In mutual companies, one man, or a small group of men, seize the reins of power through proxy-manipulation. It is the same with the general run of corporations, railway and industrial. All the tendency is to centralization,—to concentration of power in the hands of a group, with one strong man at the head of the group. Theoretically, the properties are controlled by the owners of the stock; actually, the stockholders have little or nothing to say. They sign away their right in proxies running through terms of years. Until human nature is recast or the proxy system abolished, actual mutualization of life insurance must remain as it is,—a mere dream. Once a man or a group of men obtain control, they have at hand the means of continuing their reign.

MUTUALIZATION A MERE THEORY.

For example, Mr. Ryan might sell his stock to the Equitable Society to pave the way for mutualization; and then, if Mr. Morton continued to acknowledge Mr. Ryan as his financial chief and leader, as he doubtless would through loyal friendship, Mr. Ryan would still be the power behind the Equitable. Proxy control

would be substituted for stock control. Mr. Ryan could eat his two-and-one-half-million-dollar cake, and have it, too.

Probably there is no practicable way to give control of a life insurance company into the hands of its policy-holders or members. It might be done after a fashion by means of mail voting, and by policy-holders' committees to nominate candidates for directors. But even then the old system, or something closely approximating it, would quickly come back. Policy-holders are numbered by the hundreds of thousands; they are indifferent or careless, or easily influenced by the men in power. In such a large mass, the centripetal force is necessarily great, the tendency to centralization strong and controlling. Besides, it is doubtful if actual mutualization would work improvement. Life-insurance management, like any other, requires experience, skill, and continuity if success is to be attained. Too long retention of power has its evils; but frequent changes of administration through the discontent of an insurant democracy or policy-holders' mass meetings would bring evils still greater.

THE HIGH COST OF MANAGEMENT.

American life insurance needs reformation, and that speedily. It is not giving an adequate return for the money which insurants invest in it. This is due not so much to scandals of management like those which have recently come to light as to still more serious economic evils. Insurance costs much more in this country than it should cost,—far more than it costs abroad. This is because management is too extravagant and wasteful, and because of certain methods which are fundamentally faulty. We have already shown that last year the people of the United States paid in premiums amounting to \$472,000,000, and that the total income of all the companies,—every dollar of it the property of the holders of policies, because the interest earnings are simply the increment upon the policy-holders' accumulations,—amounted to \$580,000,000. What became of this golden stream? Into what channels was it diverted? What uses were made of it? Here is the answer in a few lines:

	Amount.	Per cent.
Paid to policy-holders, death claims, cash on surrender or maturity, annuities, dividends, etc.....	\$240,000,000	41.88
Expenses of management.....	127,000,000	21.89
Taxes and State fees.....	11,000,000	1.90
Income over disbursements.....	202,000,000	34.83
Totals.....	\$580,000,000	100.00

Here we see that of every \$100 of income, only \$41 was paid back to the policy-holders, while the actual expenses of management were nearly \$22, and almost \$24 including the taxes and necessary fees. Thirty-five dollars was carried over to assets or surplus. Inasmuch as the foregoing figures include all the companies in the country, it is only fair to say that the concerns which do a straight "old line" business on a fairly large scale and do not write any "industrial" policies show a somewhat smaller percentage of expenses to income. Taking the twenty-five leading companies, 18 per cent. would be a fair statement of their expense ratio. This

is just about double the cost of management in Great Britain, and it is almost three times the cost of carrying on the government industrial and mixed insurance in Germany.

HOW THE MONEY GOES.

It is worth while to inquire why the expenses of American management should run about twice as great as the expenses of English management for the same line of business. The accompanying table, showing the expense cost of twenty-five leading American companies in 1904, with totals for the two preceding years, will tell the whole story:

GROSS EXPENSES IN 1904 PER \$1,000 INSURANCE IN FORCE, SHOWING PERCENTAGES OF EXPENSES TO PREMIUMS.

(From "The Brown Book of Life Insurance Economics.")

	Expense cost per \$1,000 insurance in force.	Per cent. of premiums received.	Commissions and agency expenses, per cent.	Administra- tive and clerical, per cent.	Taxes and fees, etc., per cent.
Aetna.....	\$9.35	24.17	12.02	7.03	4.22
Berkshire.....	7.90	20.20	11.27	5.51	3.42
Connecticut General.....	9.92	23.90	18.24	8.81	1.85
Connecticut Mutual.....	8.34	26.47	8.09	6.30	12.08
Equitable.....	10.14	25.04	15.87	6.42	2.75
Germania.....	12.95	31.07	19.52	7.28	4.47
Home.....	13.42	30.65	15.61	11.85	3.19
Manhattan.....	14.43	41.35	21.46	12.51	7.38
Massachusetts Mutual.....	7.46	20.70	13.52	5.35	1.53
Mutual.....	10.68	28.00	18.25	6.79	2.96
Mutual Benefit.....	7.64	20.13	11.04	5.30	3.79
National.....	10.53	23.33	15.81	7.73	3.49
New England.....	8.45	24.57	13.65	6.98	3.99
New York.....	10.07	24.59	18.85	4.45	1.76
Northwestern.....	7.22	18.28	11.08	4.02	3.16
Penn Mutual.....	9.27	24.33	14.50	5.63	4.20
Phoenix Mutual.....	10.19	26.37	13.55	9.42	3.40
Provident Loan and Trust.....	8.23	20.63	9.55	7.39	3.69
Provident Savings.....	16.87	44.52	20.74	16.35	7.43
State Mutual.....	8.67	22.38	14.30	4.98	3.10
Travelers.....	7.56	22.76	14.64	4.64	3.43
Union Central.....	8.50	24.08	14.07	7.96	2.05
Union Mutual.....	12.01	34.16	21.44	9.27	3.45
United States.....	12.41	37.07	20.22	12.35	4.50
Washington.....	16.49	42.33	21.33	12.20	8.80
Total 1904.....	\$9.80	25.11	15.92	6.11	3.08
Total 1903.....	10.00	25.69	16.06	6.45	3.16
Total 1902.....	9.98	25.76	16.15	6.31	3.20

"RECKLESS AND WASTEFUL."

The reader will at once perceive that there is a vast difference between companies. A few companies keep their expense down to about 20 per cent. of the premium receipts, while others run to figures more than twice as great. It must be obvious to any observer that in a life-insurance concern which spends such enormous proportions of its income in the carrying on of the business there is small chance for the insurant to get an adequate return for his investment. That the business can be carried on at smaller cost is demonstrated by the experience of the British companies, whose expenses run only about 9 per cent. of their total income (against

an average of about 18 for the leading American companies), and by the fact that some of our American companies spend only half as much in expense as others. There is but one phrase which properly characterizes the management which spends 35 or 40 per cent. of premium income in expense, and that is, "reckless and wasteful."

FORCING "NEW BUSINESS."

It will be seen upon examination of the accompanying table that about three-fifths of all the expense of American companies is for commissions on new business and agency expenses. One of the greatest evils of management in this country is the craze for bigness, the insane

rivalry among managers of the largest companies to outdo all competitors in the increase of the amount of insurance in force. To such an extent has this craze been carried that millions upon millions have been virtually thrown away. Agents are stimulated by large commissions and other rewards to go out and drum up business regardless of whether it is to prove profitable to the company or to the insureds, or not. The rule has been, "Get the business at any cost." It is a remarkable fact that for every thousand dollars of insurance in force last year these twenty-five leading companies spent nearly six dollars and fifty cents in their efforts to get more insurance. The average premium paid on all insurance is approximately forty dollars per thousand. Ten dollars of that is paid out for expenses, and of the ten dollars more than six is devoted to the effort to coax in new policy-holders. If the commission and agency expenses were cut down to a reasonable figure, and then a vigorous effort were made to reduce the administrative and clerical expense from its present relatively high level, there is no reason why American management should not make a much better showing as to the ratio of expenses to total income when compared with foreign companies. They might not be able to get down to the British standard of about 9 per cent., but they should be able to drop far below their present figure of 18 per cent.

Our American managers, or most of them, are not content to grow slowly, to follow a conservative policy like that pursued by the old Equitable, of London, and other conservative English companies. The London Equitable never spends any money for new business. Men who want policies must apply for them, and their applications are passed upon with a view to the desirability of the contract and to the ability of the applicant to carry out his part of it. Of course, the Equitable has grown slowly, but it has grown solidly; and its income is not squandered in a mad scramble for more policy-holders.

SOME SIGNIFICANT FIGURES.

Last year, twenty-five leading companies of the United States wrote \$1,250,000,000 of new insurance. The total of their new policies during the last three years is \$3,500,000,000, or a billion more than all the insurance in force in the United States twenty years ago. The premiums paid on last year's new business of \$1,250,000,000 (or supposed to be paid) amounted to about \$50,000,000. How much did it cost to get the business? Nearly \$43,000,000, or 86 per cent. of the premium receipts. About

\$32,000,000 went for commissions to solicitors, medical examiners, etc., and \$11,000,000 more for established agencies, rents, advertising, printing, etc., after deducting 25 per cent. fairly chargeable to the handling of old business. These are startling figures. The cost of new business is steadily increasing. Two years ago it was only 79 per cent. of the premium receipts. Now it is 86 per cent. If it goes on increasing, in a short time all of the first year's income will have to go for getting the policy written. That is already the case with six of the twenty-five companies, and one company paid out for new business all the money that the new business brought in, and 31 per cent. besides. In other words, money belonging to a man already a policy-holder was used to coax another man to take out a policy.

MUSHROOM INSURANCE.

It is obvious that life insurance companies, like other business and financial concerns, ought not to stand still. They must grow. In life insurance there is a peculiar reason why new business should be secured. If no new policy-holders come in, in time the death claims will reach proportions calculated to wind up the concern. But in securing growth company-managers should stay within the boundaries of reason. There is no sense in expending huge sums for new business that does not "stick," and which therefore is not worth writing. Last year twenty-five leading companies wrote \$1,250,000,000 new insurance. But they lost nearly one-half as much through other causes than death or maturity,—that is, by surrenders and lapses. In short, thousands upon thousands of men are induced to take out more insurance than they can afford to carry,—for the solicitors and agents are eager for commissions,—and after one or two payments the policies are permitted to lapse. The only gainer by such business is the solicitor, or agent. The company gains nothing, the insured gains nothing, save that his risk is carried for a year or two years, a return to him worth about one-fifth what he pays for it. Another large class of policies are carried long enough to attain a surrender value, and here the holders get a little more in return when they drop out, though the difference is one of degree, not of principle. Every year, millions of dollars are taken in this way from the pockets of people who can ill afford the loss. Last year, the twenty-five companies actually expended an average of \$100 to gain \$1,259 of insurance in force; and that \$1,259 of "good" business brings the company in a net income of about \$45 a year as long as it lasts. The amount of insur.

ance actually gained per hundred dollars spent for new business is constantly diminishing. Only two years ago, it was \$1,513 per hundred dollars; now it is only \$1,259. Several companies, and important ones at that, actually show net losses of insurance in force, despite their enormous expenditures for new business. Such companies are on the way to ruin. Yet the State insurance officials seem to be wholly unable to deal with them in an adequate manner. The mania for bigness, the craze for forcing the business beyond its safe and natural limits, is a tremendous evil in American life insurance; and if the managers will not reform of their own accord the law should interpose and compel them to do so.

THE EVIL OF REBATES.

Another evil incident to this hot-housing process is the premium rebate. In some States, rebates are illegal, and policies rebated may be declared void. Theoretically, all managers frown upon rebates. Actually, nearly all companies know that rebates are given by their agents, and they wink at the sin. In one respect the insurance rebate is more to be condemned than the railway rebate. It is given to men who "know the ropes," to smart business or professional men who are aware that agents are so eager for business that they will cut the first year's premium 30 or 40 per cent., if necessary. Most of these insurants can afford to pay full premiums. But the poor fellows, the mechanics and farmers and others who are not in touch with affairs, usually pay the full premium, which they can ill afford to do. This discrimination in favor of well-to-do insurants and against men of small means seeking to provide protection for their families out of their slender salaries is unjust, indecent, and should be made criminal.

To such a pass has it come in this mad scramble for new business that in every city may be found many men who carry their life insurance simply from year to year. By inducing several companies to bid against one another they secure great reductions of the first-year premiums, and at the end of the year permit their policies to lapse and look about for other companies willing to take them on at the cut rate. In this way they carry their insurance at much less than it would cost to take out policies and maintain them year after year.

AN EXPENSIVE AGENCY SYSTEM.

It is true that most insurance agents and solicitors work hard, and only the more fortunate of them earn large incomes. But there are too many agents in the field; the soliciting business

is overdone. Thousands of men who have been unfortunate in other lines go into life-insurance soliciting, and most of them find it hard enough to get along. We need throw no stones at the industrious solicitors; just now they have troubles enough of their own. Our quarrel is with the managers who place such vast armies of agents in the field to drum for business, making it difficult for any to do well and rendering it necessary to bolster them up with large commissions on what business they are able to write. The really fortunate men in the soliciting line are the general agents who control certain territory and get a commission on every dollar of business that passes through their offices; who get, not only their first year's commission, but each year thereafter take out 5 or 7½ per cent. commission on every renewal premium. There are general agents whose income rises above a hundred thousand dollars a year from renewals alone. Last year, one New York company paid out \$750,000 buying up the equities of agents in such renewals. All this money,—the first commissions of 50 per cent., usually, the renewal commissions of from 5 to 7½ per cent., or the purchase of equities therein,—comes out of the pockets of the policyholders. It is not with their own money, but with the money of their members, that the managers satiate their appetite for bigness.

Every one understands that the companies cannot abandon their agency system. They must solicit new business and have the machinery to look after old business. But there should be fewer agencies, with smaller original commissions, and with the renewal commissions wiped out entirely. Managers say that if they were to stop soliciting they would get no new business. They declare it is one of the peculiarities of human nature, at least in this country, that if a man builds a house or a store he will at once seek fire insurance upon it. But the most valuable thing in that store or domestic establishment, the heart and brain and moving force of it,—his own life,—he will never think of assuring or protecting unless some agent get after him and beat it into his mind. There may be truth in this; and yet it is highly probable men do not voluntarily apply for life insurance because they have been educated to the present system,—the system in which all the initiative comes from the company side. Withdraw that, and it stands to reason that many prudent Americans, believers in life insurance, and a large share of them needing it for special family or business reasons, would apply on their own motion. At any rate, there is somewhere between the two extremes a happy mean of moderation and pru-

dence which life-insurance management should endeavor to find.

DEFERRED-DIVIDEND POLICIES.

Another and most serious economic weakness of modern life insurance as it is practised in this country is the large extent to which the deferred-dividend policy has been written. Of late years, policies based upon this principle have constituted the great bulk of all the new business put in force. We have not the space to enter upon an elaborate or technical discussion of this question. Indeed, such is not necessary to make the whole matter clear. The deferred-dividend policy is essentially a policy in which protection for the family or dependents is mingled with investment or savings accumulation. The great argument in favor of it is this: "In the old form of insurance, you had to die to win. In this new form, you may lay up something for yourself, for your declining years. Thus, you get protection for your family during the term; and if you live out the term which you choose,—say, twenty years,—then you have something comfortable for your old age."

Naturally, the premiums on such policies are higher than on ordinary life policies. In the first place, they are term policies, and the total paid in must be paid in fewer installments. Then there must be a margin over the actual cost of carrying, so that the company may have the use of the policy-holder's money through a period of years with which to accumulate the increment that is to give him the handsome results of which the solicitor talks so glibly when the business is sought. In the simplest statement, the company takes from the insurant so much for protection and so much more as a savings investment in annual deposits throughout the term, usually twenty years. In case of death within twenty years, the insurant's estate or beneficiaries get the face value of the policy. If he surrender the policy at any time during the term, he gets back a part of the sum he has paid in excess of the actual cost of carrying, but not all. The remainder is taken from him and given to policies which mature. Hence, this form of insurance is generally known as semi-tontine. At the end of the period, if the insured survive, he is promised, in the form of "estimates," not in binding pledges, usually, what his returns are to be. If these "estimates" were met by performance, the return would be about half what it should be,—say, an average of $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 per cent. upon the sums in excess of actual need which the insurant has paid in and the company has had the use of at interest compounded.

DISAPPOINTMENT AT RESULTS.

But in the great majority of cases,—hundreds of actual policy results have been cited to me since I began my investigation of insurance,—the insurants are disappointed. They get from their matured policies all the way from 5 to 25 per cent. less than the "estimates." All over the country arises an outcry of disappointment with the results attained from these combined protection and investment policies, many of which are now maturing. Some pitiful cases have been brought to my attention,—men who have been compelled to borrow the money with which to meet premiums, and by this means and all sorts of self-denials carrying their policies through to maturity with faith in the "estimates" made them years ago and relying upon their expected "results" for something to ease their old age. But when they come to the critical and long-awaited moment,—the hour of cashing in,—they find they are to get far less than they have been led to believe they were to get, and that, after paying off their loans, they have not a penny left to bless themselves with.

A man wants insurance for the protection of his family. The agent convinces him that he should take out a policy which gives him, not only protection, but which saves up something for his own declining years. So he takes a twenty-year semi-tontine policy. The actual cost of carrying the mortality risk upon his life, assuming him to be of the average of all insured persons, is about \$13 per year throughout the twenty years. It is less at the start, of course, and more at the end, but \$13 is the average for the term. In a purely mutual society, without expenses, this would be his annual premium per thousand. But of course there must be expenses. So his premium is "loaded" up to \$25 per thousand, the additional \$12 covering the expenses less the value of his money, of which the company is to have the use at compound interest throughout the period. The outcome is that the insurant pays, roughly, \$25 per thousand for protection and expenses and \$15 additional as an investment of his savings. At the end of the twenty years he should get back the value of his \$15 per year at compound interest. But he never or rarely does. And the result is almost invariably disappointing because of obvious conditions which make disappointment inevitable.

GOOD FOR PROTECTION, POOR SAVINGS-BANKS.

What chance would a man have to secure good results from a deposit of \$40 per year in a savings-bank if the solicitor who induces him to

make the deposits were to get 50 per cent. of the first year's deposit for merely carrying the money down to the bank? And then if the solicitor or his principal, the general agent, were to get $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of each subsequent deposit for doing a like service? And if, including those "rake-offs" already mentioned, the entire expense of the company management were to amount to 25 per cent. of all deposits each year?

This is approximately what happens to the savings features of life insurance. The man who carries such a policy is bound to be disappointed at the results. The company is not organized to do that sort of business and do it advantageously. Its expenses are too high; it allows too much to the solicitors who bring in the depositors. Insurance for protection is firmly fixed in the American faith. We all believe in it. Few men are rich enough or secure enough in their fortune and income to be able prudently to carry their own life risks. They must join a great society to mutualize the burden. For this privilege they have to pay a pretty stiff price,—at least 25 per cent. more than they should pay,—simply because managing cost is too high. But they feel that they must have insurance; that they must have protection for their dependents; and, under protest, they pay the bill. In the satisfaction they get out of it, in the knowledge that their wives and children are protected against want, they find compensation even if their intelligence tells them that the cost is unnecessarily high. But insurance as a savings-bank is another question. It is not a good savings-bank. It cannot be as life insurance is now conducted.

THE WORST FORM OF INSURANCE.

Hence, there has arisen a great demand for abandonment of the deferred-dividend policy, or for dividends payable annually, or at least once in a few years. Wisconsin, under the leadership of an able insurance superintendent, has enacted a law requiring division of the surplus once in five years at the furthest. Other States are likely to take similar action. Public opinion is turning against the deferred-dividend policy. Leading companies are preparing to abandon it, or at least to minimize it. Heretofore, some of them have given their agents higher commissions on this class of policies than on ordinary life,—a premium upon the worst form of insurance,—and the natural result has been that agents have pressed it upon the public. The managers did this deliberately, well aware of the economic weakness of the method, because they wanted to build up their already great assets and surplus. The deferred-

dividend policy has largely contributed to heaping up the enormous assets of American companies, now amounting to more than two billions of dollars. Vastly more than any other form of insurance has it piled up surpluses or special funds (accumulations above the legal reserve held to protect policies) amounting in 42 important companies to the amazing total of \$320,000,000. Of these 42 companies, 22 are capital-stock companies, and their surpluses,—or special funds as they are called in some cases,—aggregate \$137,000,000. As to a part of this vast sum, there still exists the unsettled question whether it belongs to the policy-holders or to the stockholders; that is, legally, for in morals there is no question whatever that every dollar of it is the property of the policy-holders, who have contributed to it from their toil and sweat and self-denial.

PREMIUMS SHOULD BE REDUCED.

Under any conservative system of insurance the companies must take more from their policy-holders than the actual expense and mortality cost. There must be a margin for contingencies and fluctuations. Hence, any form of policy inevitably embraces a small percentage of savings on the part of the insurant. The deferred-dividend policy simply makes that percentage much higher than it should be. It magnifies the savings feature. Better than dividends returned annually, or every five years, which means simply that the companies pay back that which they have collected over and above what they actually needed, would it be not to take the money from the policy-holders in the first place, but to leave it in their pockets. Of course, this cannot be done absolutely. There must be a small margin. But American life insurance is now more than half a century old. It should by this time be settled into safe and sure channels, statistical, financial, actuarial. There is no longer any valid excuse for collecting premiums ranging more than a few per cent. above the combined mortality and expense cost, and the latter should be materially reduced.

As for the deferred-dividend policy and all of that kind, embracing savings features in addition to protection, they are false and injurious. They have outlived their usefulness, and they should go. Public opinion and the best insurance leadership is turning against them. There is only one word to be said in their favor, and that word I shall say. Many men are so circumstanced and constituted that they will not save. They live up to their incomes. If an insurance company does not lead them to save something year by year, every penny will be

wasted. By inducing such men to take out policies with savings features attached, and then through the desire to protect their families put something aside for the future, the deferred-dividend policy has helped thousands of families to an accumulation, whereas without it there would have been nothing but waste from year to year. Obviously, it is better for a man who can save something to do it, even if he has to pay a smart agent a commission for showing him how, than to go on saving nothing whatever.

REFORMS ARE COMING.

American life insurance costs too much because management is too expensive. I think I am able to say that during the next five years the managers themselves will take the lead in making insurance cheaper. The deferred-dividend policy is to be gradually pushed into the background. Economies are to be introduced. The vast accumulations are to be paid back a little more rapidly than heretofore to the people whose property they are. At the present time, American life insurance companies have a loaning power of enormous extent, and they are piling up their assets at the rate of more than two hundred millions yearly. It is high time to check that crescendo movement and to start in the other direction. Already big insurance companies are tempting prizes to promoters, corporation manipulators, and speculators. Nearly all the large companies in New York are in Wall Street groups and actually under the direction of cliques of bankers or financiers. The Equitable is not the only stock company whose shares are held at a valuation of from five to twenty times their worth figured on their legal dividend earnings, and the fact that financiers are willing to pay fancy prices for them indicates unmistakably that control of the companies is worth having for reasons not directly connected with the welfare of the policy-holders.

Just now life-insurance management in New York City is more or less under a cloud. My investigations have convinced me that there are other companies besides the Equitable in which evil practices have obtained with the knowledge, and in many cases with the connivance, of the responsible managers. It would do no good to mention names. But it is most earnestly to be hoped that the New York legislative committee will go to the bottom of every company's affairs, learn the whole truth, unpleasant though it may be, and apply the proper remedy, in legislation that shall better safeguard the interests of the millions of men, women, and children whose future is involved in this "sacred trust." There

are companies in New York City which should be wound up by the State authorities for the simple reason that they are not fit to go on. The longer they continue, the more harm will they do. The same thing is true of quite a number of small companies scattered throughout the country,—concerns which by no possibility can give adequate return to their members, and which exist, apparently, for no other purpose than to afford fat pickings for the men who are in control of them.

SHALL WE HAVE FEDERAL REGULATION?

The remedy for existing ills? It is not easy to prescribe. Undoubtedly the tendency of the times is strongly toward federal regulation and control. It is safe to say that in his next annual message to Congress, President Roosevelt will renew his former recommendation that the Congress should inquire into the feasibility of federal legislation regulating interstate insurance. He will probably go further now and recommend actual legislation designed to test the question of Congressional jurisdiction before the Supreme Court. On several occasions in the past the Court held that insurance was not commerce. If this decision stand, of course, the Congress is debarred from action. At the time the Court so held, its tendency was toward narrow construction, while of late years the tendency has been the other way,—toward broad interpretation of federal powers in dealing with interstate commerce. Hence, there is at least ground for hope that a federal insurance law may be enacted that will run the gantlet of the high tribunal. Besides, the Supreme Court has been known to reverse itself. It is also considered possible that insurance policies may be regarded, if not commerce, as the instruments of commerce, and thus fall under federal jurisdiction in line with one of the more important of the series of interstate-commerce judgments of the last ten years.

WEAKNESS OF STATE SUPERVISION.

President Roosevelt's feeling, we may be sure, is that insurance regulation by the federal government is naturally, and must in time inevitably become, a part of that policy of his which has occupied so much of his and the public's attention since he entered the White House,—the policy of bringing all public corporations which transact business throughout the country under the influence of federal statutes. If he decide to make a campaign for such control of life insurance, as he is quite likely to do, he will not lack popular support. Throughout the country there is a conviction that we shall never have

competent inspection and regulation of these companies till the work is done from Washington rather than from the State capitals. State inspection is generally involved in politics, and very few States have a competent life-insurance administration. Too often State inspection is a mere auditing of books, perfunctorily, and a certificate that they are straight, without so much as a glance at all that lies underneath and behind the bookkeeping. In New York, the most important of all the States, since nearly one-half of all the life insurance of the country is carried on within its borders, the inspection is notoriously influenced by political, and even by personal, considerations. The public would never have known of the malfeasance in the Equitable if the men who were behind the greedy schemes had not quarreled among themselves; the State insurance superintendent would never have found it out. The State superintendent did prosecute a vigorous inquiry when public opinion had once aroused, but even then his zeal was ascribed by many to the fact that the man who had bought control of the stock is a possible political rival of the present "boss" of the State, while an eminent financier and friend of that "boss" had himself tried to buy the majority stock and failed.

There are plenty of life-insurance managers of influence who proclaim their friendliness to federal supervision. Therefore, it would seem an easy task to secure that great step forward, provided the constitutional difficulties can be got over. But the truth is that most of the managers who profess to favor federal supervision do so only because they are weary of the multitudinous and diverse State laws and exactions, and because they hope to substitute federal control and thus have but a single government agency to reckon with. The sort of federal supervision they actually favor would not meet the wishes nor the interests of the policy-holders. They want an easy-going, complacent federal supervision. The public wants laws regulating insurance companies like those which govern national banks, and an inspection and supervision like those provided in the national banking act. This is an effective supervision, on the whole, far removed from political interference. It is as nearly perfect as any scheme

of espionage and regulation can be made. It is an inspection and control with which national bank officers dare not trifle. If it were applied to life insurance and to trust companies, the managers of life insurance companies and trust companies would at once suppress many of the shady practices now all too common among them.

THE PRESENT DUTY OF POLICY-HOLDERS.

Frankly, it seems a long road to such federal supervision. There are many obstacles in the way. While waiting for it, there is no better remedy to apply to life-insurance ills than the power of public opinion. Policy-holders should continue the alertness into which they have been roused by the Equitable disclosures. They should not again go to sleep in fancied security. It is within their power to bring pressure to bear upon the managers. The public should first inform itself as to insurance and get out from behind the cloud of ignorance and indifference. Then it should refuse insurance which is not offered in sound form and under wholesome auspices. It should frown upon extravagance and wastefulness. It should eschew the deferred-dividend policy. It should demand cheaper insurance, made cheaper through retrenchment and economy. It should stir up State inspectors to more zealous work. Policy-holders have a tremendous stake in the success of life insurance, and if they will rouse themselves they can do much to protect themselves. They can reach the general agents with their demands for reform. They can reach the managers themselves through letter-writing and through vigilant exercise of their proxy rights in all mutual companies. They can bring pressure to bear upon their newspapers to give the public information about life insurance, its economic faults as well as its sensational scandals. They can promote a public opinion and an intelligent public discrimination between good life insurance companies and bad ones which will bring the managers to their senses. All life-insurance managers are afraid of public opinion. Those who manage good companies fear they will be classed with the bad ones. And the bad ones are trembling lest they be found out.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

PAUL MORTON,—HUMAN DYNAMO.

AMONG all the newspaper and magazine sketches of Paul Morton, the new head of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, nothing more readable has appeared than the article contributed to the October *Cosmopolitan* by Edwin Lefèvre, the author of "Wall Street Stories," who characterizes Mr. Morton as a typical man of the West and endows his hero with few or no attributes not shared by countless other Western men of similar antecedents and training.

He is a Westerner. Not enough Eastern men know what that means. Hetty Green, whose son lives in Texas, and who has traveled extensively and lived long enough and made money enough to know what she is talking about, said once: "In the West, men are bad only on the surface. In Wall Street, they are bad clear through." In the West, big men do things and wish to keep on doing them, and other people hope they will. In the East, big men do things, and wish to keep on doing them, and other people pray they won't. In the West, men big and little want no favors, only a square deal. In the East, the big men, in the matter of deal, want nothing but favors from political "friends" and presidents of financial institutions, and of all the Commandments keep in mind only the eleventh, "Thou shalt not be found out." Paul Morton came from the West. There he helped to rehabilitate the Atchison, rebates or no rebates. He is now in the East. Let us see whether he will rehabilitate the Equitable, Wall Street or no Wall Street.

A WESTERN RAILROAD MAN.

Paul Morton is the second son of the late J. Sterling Morton, President Cleveland's Secretary of Agriculture and the originator of "Arbor Day," who was a Nebraska pioneer long before the days of railroads west of the Missouri River. As Mr. Lefèvre puts it, Paul Morton "began being a hustler and a Westerner long before he was born."

Paul Morton, the second son, is forty-eight years old. When he reached the ripe age of sixteen, his father offered him the choice between going to college and going to work. Paul elected to go to work. Why? Because his elder brother had gone into the banking business and was making a success of it. It was an example worthy of emulation. The full force of Paul Morton's decision is not grasped until the unintelligent reader is informed that this elder brother was a year and a half older than Paul. Joy Morton was seventeen and a half, and already had done enough to show he was walking successward. So Paul Morton went to work for the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad. It is the false

note in Paul Morton's business career that he started as office-boy. It sounds too good to be true, too old-fashioned. But that's what he did. He began on twenty dollars a month and borrowed five dollars a month



MR. PAUL MORTON.

from his father in order to pay his board at a decent eating-house. On his twenty-first birthday he was made assistant general freight agent of the Burlington system. He had a phenomenal memory,—nobody consulted the rate schedule when he was around; they merely asked him and he told them. His grasp on the traffic business was remarkable. At twenty-five he was made general passenger agent. Not long afterward he was appointed general freight agent. In 1887, at the time of the strike, he was the Burlington's official spokesman for publication. Nobody, not the president nor the vice-presidents nor the directors, was permitted to say a word to the newspapers. The reporters were directed to Paul Morton if they wished to ask questions, and he answered them. He was not a college man; the Burlington is his *alma mater*. You would not think of a railroad as a training-school for diplomats, but that is what Morton was at thirty,—a competent railroad man and a diplomat. He "did things;" also he could talk intelligently. Newspaper men who have had occa-

sion to listen to older and more prominent men, men of wide experience in various walks of life, will know what a man of thirty must be who talked day after day and never lied and never equivocated, and yet never made a break. That's the remarkable thing about Western men who have not had a collegiate education. They have self-reliance, keen observation, a contempt for pettiness, a remarkable power of assimilating forms of polite diction even while preserving a picturesque individuality of spoken speech; also the American sense of humor. All this and the ability to work,—veritable human dynamos.

Paul Morton stayed with the Burlington until 1890, when he went with the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company as vice-president. When the presidency of the reorganized Atchison road was offered to Mr. Ripley, he accepted, provided the directors would make Paul Morton vice-president and his active assistant. He knew Morton, knew what he could do, and knew what he had done while they were both on the Burlington.

The Atchison had been reorganized, but it needed what was far harder to accomplish,—rehabilitation. It was out of a receiver's hands, to be sure, but it did not pay its debts promptly, and it did not keep its promises. It granted rebates, as the other roads did, but it did not make good when the time came, not because it was wrong to give rebates, but because it needed the tainted money. It had no credit. It was unpopular with shippers. Paul Morton's position was, as he himself described it, that of business-getter for the road; and he got his share. To be sure, in 1896 the industrial pendulum had touched the lowest point and was about to swing the other way. It was practically the beginning of the end of the period of depression. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1896, the gross earnings were \$28,999,597, the expenses of operating \$22,071,275, and net earnings of less than \$7,000,000. Five years later, the gross income was \$54,474,823, the operating expense \$32,262,945, and the net earnings \$22,211,875. It was a misfortune to be a holder of Atchison stocks in 1896, and great luck in 1901. Its adjustment bonds were selling then at thirty cents on the dollar. They have sold at their face value since.

THE GOSPEL OF WORK.

Young Morton rose rapidly in the railroad office where he began as office-boy at sixteen. At twenty-three he married; at forty-six he was a grandfather. He is a big man, tall and well built, but quick and decisive in his movements. He has worked hard all his life. Mr. Lefèvre classifies him among the "men who do things, do them well, and do them for a salary."

Morton is never happy unless he is working; the busier he is, the happier he feels. He is of that blessed Western type of man who will tackle any job and cannot rest until it is done. To leave it unfinished is to be made unhappy, uncomfortable, conducive to insomnia; and it is scientific work, good, sound brain work, and not mere gluttony for labor,—the kind of man, in short, who will invent labor-saving devices, not to save labor, but to enable the same number of men to accomplish twice as much as before. He tries to finish all his day's work every day, and the amount he has to do is enormous. He has relays of secretaries. He

works all day in his office, but there are too many people who must be seen and listened to, who use up much time. There are letters to write and instructions to give, so after leaving his office he goes home, dines, and an hour afterward is working, reading letters, dictating answers, *et cetera*, until midnight. In the morning, before he starts for his office, he has kept another secretary busy an hour or two. This gospel of work may be the gospel of a fanatic or of a Russell Sage, but there is this to be said in extenuation, that Morton is not paid on a percentage basis, nor by piecework, and that he is not only a very clear-headed man, but a very strong one, physically, who has always been a human dynamo. To be sure, he is now receiving a salary of two hundred and sixty-six dollars per working day. He doubtless earns it. Other presidents of life insurance companies receive more. They may be abler. They will not work harder. The day's routine of the man must be interesting. How can he work to entitle him to say he can earn more than fifty clerks? What can he do? He is the head of the company; he is the foreman. He gets work out of others. He obtains results. The ability to do this is rare. He has it.

MR. MORTON AS A DIPLOMAT.

Mr. Morton was the chief "business-getter" for the Atchison, and he had to be a "business politician, a railroad diplomat."

I should say that the diplomacy of Paul Morton might lack the finesse of certain Eastern financiers, but that it is more refreshing, more direct, and accomplishes its object probably more completely, and certainly more quickly, than the other kind. His is the Western attitude, which assumes that the majority of men are good. He can be a good fellow, therefore, because he is normal and healthy and an optimist, with a sense of humor. His diplomacy in business is that of the Westerners, to wit: "The majority of people are square. I'm square. I'll tell the truth bluntly and I'll hear the truth bluntly. If we agree, very well. If we can't agree on all points, let us agree on as many as we can." Such men have no time to waste in sparing for an opening or in artistically producing erroneous impressions. They don't do business in a subtle way, nor by indirection, because they have so much to do before they die. Men have fooled Morton time and again. No one man has ever fooled him twice. He bears this in mind when he is "sizing up" strangers, for he is not ashamed if one fools him once. But the second time the man tries he might better have tackled a live wire. I thought once he might be vindictive—he was so utterly without the sentimentalism that even Wall Street men sometimes show. I said: "I'd like to ask you a question. If I knew you intimately, I should not have to ask it. But there is no use in asking unless you answer with absolute frankness."

"Ask it," he said, very quickly.

"How do you feel toward people who get the better of you?"

"My fault for letting them. Why feel?"

"If a man should say something mean about you?"

"Look here. Success is like the sunshine,—it brings the rattlesnakes out. They can't help being rattlesnakes, can they? What's the use of getting angry?"

"Revenge?"

"Bosh!"

THE COST OF LIFE INSURANCE.

ONE of the most important contributions to the insurance discussion is an article on "The Cost of Life Insurance," by Allan H. Willett, of Brown University, in the *Political Science Quarterly* (New York) for September. This is a scholarly survey of the whole subject, with valuable tables exhibiting the expenses of twenty-four leading American life insurance companies in the year 1903.

On the question of "deferred dividend" policies, which is discussed elsewhere in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* by Mr. Walter Wellman, Mr. Willett says :

Such policies are falling into deserved disrepute and are in direct violation of sound insurance principles, introducing an additional element of uncertainty into a business whose one purpose should be to eliminate uncertainty. The claim sometimes put forward that they tend to equalize the cost of insurance by taking from those who die early, and so pay few premiums, and giving to those who live long and pay many premiums, is based on an entirely erroneous conception of the principles of insurance. The premium pays for protection, not for the indemnity. In the case of level-premium life insurance, so far as it from being true that those who die early ought to be taxed for the benefit of those who live long that they are the very ones who are paying an excessive price for their protection, measured by the excess of the level premium over the natural premium at their age.

The funds left in the hands of insurance companies by holders of deferred-dividend and semi-tontine policies are in a somewhat anomalous position. It seems to be the legal rule that when these funds have been definitely apportioned by formal act, and each man's share placed to his credit on the books of the company, the title passes to the policy-holder; but where the funds are carried as an undivided deferred-dividend reserve the individual policy-holder has no legal claim to any share of it. At the same time, in the State of New York, where a special tax is imposed upon the surplus of life insurance companies, the companies insist upon calling this reserve a liability, and their

claim has been allowed. Not the least objection to the deferred-dividend form of policy is the fact that it increases unnecessarily the funds in the hands of the insurance companies and leaves a wide margin of available resources at their disposal.

COST, AS WELL AS PREMIUMS, SHOULD BE LOWER.

After a detailed study of all the elements entering into the cost of modern life insurance, this writer concludes :

Whether we reach our results by an analysis of the elements of the income of insurance companies and the relation of each element to the purpose to which it is theoretically assigned or examine directly the gain and loss account of the insurance companies, the same conclusion is forced upon us, that the premium rates are unnecessarily high. We have seen that the average experience of twenty-four companies shows a saving on mortality of over 20 per cent., an excess of interest earnings of nearly or quite 1 per cent., and a generous profit from lapsed and surrendered policies, while the loading is just sufficient to cover the cost of carrying on the business. The gain and loss exhibit indicates that but for the depreciation of securities during the year 1903 the insurance operations of that year would have brought in to the companies a profit of more than forty million dollars to be returned to the policy-holders or added to the surplus. With no improvement in the methods and practices of insurance companies, a reduction of 20 per cent. or 25 per cent. in premium rates is possible for a company managed with average care and efficiency, and is in every way desirable.

But to bring insurance rates down to the present cost level is only half enough. The cost itself ought to be lowered. It is demonstrable that some of the practices of insurance companies tend to increase their mortality loss, that a higher net rate of interest could be secured on their investments, and that the cost of administration is often extravagantly high. Improvement in any of these particulars would materially lower the cost of insurance, and make possible a further reduction in premium rates, resulting in a wider utilization of the benefits of insurance by people of small or moderate income.

SHALL THE DOLLAR'S PEDIGREE DEFEAT ITS DESTINY?

SUCH is Dr. Graham Taylor's phrasing of the question involved in the resolution bearing on "tainted money" offered by Dr. Washington Gladden for discussion at the Seattle meeting of the American Board last month. Dr. Taylor devotes to this subject an editorial in the September number of his magazine, the *Commons* (Chicago). This expression of opinion derives added significance from the fact that Dr. Taylor holds the professorship of sociology in Chicago Theological Seminary. In his view, the ques-

tion at issue is the purely practical one for administrators of trust funds,—“how far and how long are personal qualities so inherent in property as to involve moral responsibility for its acquisition upon the part of those who would hold it in trust for public use?”

The line of Dr. Taylor's argument is indicated by the following questions :

Are trustees of permanent institutions, who are intrusted with causes that serve the future, warranted in judging only the personal antecedents of accumu-



DR. GRAHAM TAYLOR.

lated resource? Have they no right to regard property as a social product, to the creation and accumulation of which many others besides its legal possessor have contributed? Are they not bound to look further than to what may just now be thought of its present owner? Do not the interests of the future with which they are intrusted demand that they anticipate the changed attitude which a day may bring forth toward the property applicable to public use? If it be argued that money unworthily acquired may not be solicited or accepted from its acquirer, does it not follow that it is not to be

received at his bequest? Can it, then, neither be given nor bequeathed by him for good purposes, but only for evil ends? Thus to create vested funds for perpetuating wrong by refusing to divert them toward the right seems to be the very self-stultification of those who hold in trust any future good.

Dr. Taylor holds that the precedent sought to be established by the protest against receiving money "generally believed to have been made by methods morally reprehensible and socially injurious" would in all consistency and justice require the investigation and judgment of each gift.

If this is conceded to be impracticable, the income from certain ostracized sources would surely have to be designated, traced, and distinguished from that produced by other unquestionable sources of gain. But every one knows how indistinguishably the joint product identifies its constituent resources. This is the fact even in the case at issue. Moreover, the pedigree of the penny, as well as the lineage of the dollar, would prove to be a very equivocal heritage from a very mixed ancestry if the income of every institution or person were subjected to a strict genealogical test.

If, then, it is possible neither to discriminate between individual donors nor to eradicate the inconsistency by any concerted effort that goes to its source, the conclusion is that administrators of public trust funds are compelled to decide only whether the acceptance of money involves any preventable compromise with evil. It is their duty to put to good public use such property as can be accepted without expressly condoning any offense of acquisition, or without abjuring their right to condemn it.

WHAT ARE PORTO RICO'S NEEDS?

IN the recent discussion of Porto Rico's situation more emphasis has been placed on the island's alleged political ills than on those of an economic nature. An article written by the late Gen. Roy Stone and published in the *North American Review* for September attempts to show how the decline in Porto Rico's export trade and the increase in the number of unemployed are to be traced to unfortunate legislation enacted by our Congress on the organization of civil government, after nearly two years of military occupation.

General Stone begins with a statement of conditions under the military government, with which he was especially familiar.

Our occupation of Porto Rico began in 1898, and the military government held control for nearly two years. The greatest physical need of the island was means of transportation. It had no railroads but a fragmentary

belt line, which did not serve the interior districts, and only about one hundred and fifty miles of wagon road for three thousand five hundred square miles of territory. The fine fruits of the interior rotted where they fell, and only such crops were raised as would bear transport by pack-train or human portage. But the military government was anxious to avoid scandals regarding franchises, and it discouraged all railroad-building, although abundant capital offered itself for that purpose. Indeed, the governor volunteered his official opinion that railroads would never pay in an island so small and unproductive; not knowing, apparently, that at that moment almost the best-paying railroad in the world was in a small tropical island, which had only a twentieth of the population of Porto Rico, and almost no production at all till after the road was built.

LEGISLATION BY CONGRESS.

But the opposition to railroads by the military government was as nothing to the paralyzing obstruction later interposed by the Congress of the United States. The "Foraker law" organizing the civil government

was framed with the advice and assistance of many well-chosen representatives of the commercial and political interests of Porto Rico, and when it was passed these representatives went home contented and full of hope for the future of their beloved island.

The Foraker Act became a law on April 12, 1900, and for a few weeks the prospects of Porto Rico were so bright that thousands of Americans were drawn toward the island, and many American and European capitalists turned their attention that way. Preparations were made for investments which would have much more than replaced the Spanish capital withdrawn and would have given work at good wages to every man on the island. This, with the good government established,



THE LATE GEN. ROY STONE.

would have made the Porto Ricans the happiest people on earth. It would, moreover, have given us credit for a grand success in colonial administration. The production of the island would have multiplied tenfold, and free trade with the United States would have developed the island's commerce without limit. The chief products of the tropics are in quick demand here, and no other tropical region except the Hawaiian Islands has free entry into this greatest market in the world.

At least ten million dollars was ready to go into railroad building, and as much more each into sugar, coffee, tobacco, and fruit growing. It is safe to say that fifty millions in cash would have gone into the island on these lines by this time; nearly three times that amount has been invested in Cuba, where there is no prospect of free trade with the United States, and no such supply of cheap labor as in Porto Rico; nor is there any other superior inducement for capital or enterprise.

Thus far, according to General Stone, legislation had attempted no interference with the commercial development of the island; but as

soon as the investment schemes became known abroad there arose in Congress a fear that the land would be monopolized by wealthy corporations and that business opportunities generally would be seized by Americans, to the exclusion of the natives. This fear, which General Stone declares was never shared by the Porto Ricans themselves, led to the adoption by both branches of Congress of a resolution embodying a complete code of franchise regulations and of restrictions upon corporate investment in the island.—“such a code,” General Stone asserts, “as never could have been imposed on any State or Territory in the Union.” The chief provisions of this code are summarized as follows:

1. No corporation can buy and sell real estate there.
2. While it is necessary to have at least five thousand acres of canelands for a profitable sugar mill, and many of those in Cuba and Hawaii have twenty thousand acres, no corporation in Porto Rico can “own or control over five hundred acres of land” for any agricultural purpose whatever.
3. No corporation of any kind can own any more land than it uses in its business.
4. “No member of any corporation engaged in agriculture shall be in anywise interested in any other corporation engaged in agriculture,”—that is, a man who has a share of stock in a coffee company cannot buy a share in a sugar company without breaking a federal law!

THE EFFECTS OF THESE RESTRICTIONS.

The results of this legislation are described by General Stone as anything but beneficial to the industrial interests of the island.

A few months' experience showed that these “bars” were too high, and it is no wonder that scores of incipient companies, forming for the legitimate development of Porto Rican agriculture, died a swift death when their counsel came to look up the law.

In consequence of this legislation, not a mile of new railroad has been built on the island, excepting a short link previously begun by the French company to connect up their belt line. The council has repeatedly granted the best franchises the law permits; extensive surveys have been made throughout the island by various projectors and very satisfactory routes discovered, but the restrictions imposed have always made it impossible to secure capital for construction.

In addition to these drawbacks, the council is obliged by the amendment to put into every franchise it grants a provision that the same shall be subject to “amendment, alteration, and repeal,” that it shall enable the taking of the property by the public authorities, and the effective regulation of all charges. With these powers in the hands of a local, foreign, and possibly hostile legislative body, the capitalist naturally hesitates to invest.

Sugar-making in Porto Rico is extremely profitable as compared with that in Cuba, which pays higher for labor and is subject to about twenty-five dollars per ton duty in the United States. It would have been natural that a dozen or twenty great sugar *centrales* should be running in Porto Rico by this time, and

probably that number of sites have been selected by American, French, English, and German capitalists; but only one company has been willing to defy the law of the United States and organize openly for the purpose; another party operates lamely as a syndicate, not being able lawfully to incorporate. The island should produce a half-million tons of sugar annually, but only reaches about one hundred thousand, or much less than in its palmiest Spanish days.

The same conditions obtain in all other lines of business, and the commerce of the island is actually much less under American than under Spanish rule, though, of course, that with America has increased with free trade there.

For coffee, which was the chief product and export of the island, the Spanish market was almost lost by the interposition there of a heavy duty; and no market has been found in the United States. Fruit-growing requires a large capital and years of waiting. Tobacco cultivation and manufacture need abundant means and great skill to rival the well-established industry in Cuba. Winter vegetables would be extremely profitable with quick transit to the States, but transit waits on production, and production on transit, and both on capital and enterprise.

Is it strange, then, that the rich soil of the island is growing jungle, and the hearts of the people filled with discontent?

JAPAN'S TASK AFTER THE WAR.

READERS of that excellent exposition of Japanese spirit, "Bushido, the Soul of Japan," will remember the name of the author, Dr. Inazo Nitobe, now a professor in the Imperial University of Kioto. Writing in a recent issue of the *Eigo-Shinshi* (the Student), of Tokio, this eminent scholar discusses the post-bellum work which Japan must enter upon following the treaty just made at Portsmouth. "When we think of the mighty task which remains for us to do after the war," says this writer; "the deafening sound of *banzai* dies in the distance and the glaring torches pale away." This mighty task before Japan, Dr. Nitobe classifies into the following seven categories:

1. The care which must be taken of the bereaved families of soldiers. It is not enough to contribute money for their support. A gift without the giver is vain. There is propriety to observe in giving alms to a beggar. "The help we extend to the families of the soldiers is not simple charity,—it should be in large part an offering of thanksgiving as well as a sacrifice to the dead." The government itself has a gigantic task in the distribution of awards and pensions, and the people, without authoritative organs, will find it no easy matter to care for the deserving.

2. The settlement of Korea must have due attention. "A poor effeminate people, with no political instinct, with no economic 'gumption,' with no intellectual ambition, is become our burden." Something must be done to resurrect a dead nation. Statesmen alone cannot do it. Teachers and agriculturists, preachers and engineers, can work more wonders than diplomats and generals.

3. The money we borrowed must be returned with interest. We need, besides, money for new works of various kinds. Foreign loans may prove more fatal to the independence of a nation than an invading army. No debt of ours can be paid without calling upon the products of our own soil, be they mineral wealth or manufactured articles. "The development of our physical resources is a question of national life or death." New mines must be discovered, or old ones better utilized; foundries must be established to work iron, copper, steel, for home use; factories must be

started to weave silk, cotton, wool, for foreign export; the soil must be more deeply plowed and virgin land opened; fair mountain-slopes must be planted with more trees and grassy plains turned into pastures for more cattle.

4. "As our industries advance, so must our trade with the rest of the world augment. As we shall have more to sell, so must we order more things from abroad. As our foreign trade grows, so must we increase our merchant marine. We must have more ships, larger, swifter, and better than we used to have. As navigation of our coasts and rivers improves, our land communications must keep pace with it. We cannot be moving at a half or a third of the rate of American velocity."

5. "Our political relations with foreign countries will become closer in every way. Russia, which has been in the habit of despising us, has now learned to do otherwise. Germany and France, which never took us seriously, will cease to look upon us as a joke. England and America, which have patronized us as a child-nation, will regard us as an adult people. The whole of Asia, which has regarded us with suspicion and condemned us as traitors to Asiatic tradition, will follow us as their guide."

6. The closer touch with Europe and America, through diplomacy or commerce, necessitates better acquaintance with the languages of the West, and especially with English. "With some pride we watch the progress of our mother tongue in Korea; but we must not thereby permit ourselves to be deceived into thinking that it will be universally used. Pride and self-sufficiency should not blind us to the utilitarian (not to speak of the moral) value of the English language, for the peoples who use it will be the best customers for our wares."

7. The more intimate our communication with the West, the freer must be the interchange of our ideas. We must know the West better, and we must be better known. There is still a wretched misunderstanding between the East and the West. A thick barrier stands between the two, which unprejudiced study of each other alone can penetrate. It is not enough that we understand English sufficiently to transact business at the counter; we must be able to read and enjoy Shakespeare and Milton, Scott and Dickens, Darwin and Carlyle. Nor is reading knowledge alone enough. We must learn to write, and to write well. We must be

our own interpreters, since we cannot look for a Lafcadio Hearn to interpret our feelings, nor can one Okakura do all that is needed as a revealer.

Thus summarizing his opinion, Dr. Nitobe goes on to say that greatness won by war is

never enduring; that a nation's happiness comes only by peace. At the same time, he does not forget that peace is not in itself an absolute blessing; that it is rather a condition of social and moral well-being.

"ROOSEVELT AS RUSSIA'S HELPER."

IN the chorus of newspaper comment on President Roosevelt's part in the peace-making between Russia and Japan there is one strong note of dissent from the praise. The *Vor Tid*, the Norwegian magazine, published in Minneapolis, believes that the intervention of the American President has been untimely and unfortunate. Says the *Vor Tid*:

Everything conducive to the maintenance and prolongation of the present form of government in Russia serves the cause of tyranny, brutality, and darkness, and the tallow candle which our President has lighted by a peace compromise which helps Russia to continue its present tyranny, which would be a curse to any people, is a poor compensation for the sunlight which would have dawned over the millions on the plains of Russia by the complete overthrow and destruction of the present Russian government. Russia and Japan should have been left alone to fight it out. Judgment was passing over Russia and its tyrants, and the busy hand of our President should not have attempted to stay that judgment. It is, however, only postponed. It must, of course, be very gratifying and flattering to our President, if he has any vanity in that direction, to be praised and admired by the great powers of the world; but here is a question of something infinitely greater than the world's admiration for Roosevelt.

The sacred cause of liberty and justice and human progress demands that what we now understand by "Russia" must not only be weakened, but that it must be destroyed, continues the editor of this review.

Here is an immense people sunk in dense ignorance, robbed and ravaged, and the robbers are its own princes and government. There it lies, beaten, torn, and bleeding, bound and gagged, and may not even cry out in its pains and terror. The vampire is spreading her hellish wings further and further. There lies Poland in its own blood; there lies Finland like a raped virgin turning her shame-covered, tear-stained face toward the people of Europe, and wherever the vampire spreads her black wings all flowers fade, the smile dies, the song is silenced the lights go out, the birds flee, and night is there with its terrors.

Now when the hand of righteousness and justice was raised to strike the bloody tyrants "it is not becoming for Roosevelt or any other man to interpose his hand."

Russia as it is now should be destroyed, its idolatrous church overturned, its government swept from the

earth, and its closed doors and prison-barred windows torn open to let the light of heaven pour in over a people that so long has sat in darkness and in the valley of the shadow of death. We admire President Roosevelt, but the time will come when he himself will see that this last activity of his was a mistake, and that he should have left Russia and Japan alone. He has helped Russia,—helped her to continue her tyranny and remain a world-power; helped her to retain a hold by the Pacific, where from now on she will prepare for a death-struggle with Japan. The peace by Roosevelt is only an armistice. It is a poor plaster on the great sore, and the incense which the world is burning to our President, spreading itself over our whole country with its stupefying fragrance, is a poor remuneration for the misery and suffering which the tyrants of Russia still will bring over their own people, and over all other people which they can reach with their robber's mailed fist.



THE ONE THING LEFT.

The Czar does not get war laurels. He does not want the palm of peace. Nothing, therefore, remains for him but a beating.—From *Neue Glühlichter* (Vienna).

LORD CURZON'S RESIGNATION.



LORD CURZON.

(Who has resigned as viceroy and governor-general of India.)

AN anonymous writer in *Blackwood's Magazine* for September devotes eighteen pages to severe criticism of Lord Kitchener's part in the recent imbroglio, and incidentally to an appreciation of Lord Curzon, whose resignation, when many of his great reforms are but just ripening to completion, is "a public misfortune."

The issue is whether the governor-general-in-council is to have as colleague a soldier who is competent to give a sound opinion on all military matters, or one who is to be chosen because his opinions on the most important questions will, from lack of experience and standing, carry no weight. On this question Lord Curzon has resigned.

Already the changes ordered by the cabinet have lowered the position of the governor-general-in-council, of which lowering the recent public reply of Lord Curzon to criticisms made on his statements by telegram to the secretary of state for India is but another proof. So far from recent changes putting an end to the present conflict of authorities, *Blackwood's* writer thinks there will be more friction than ever, "only it will be higher up in the machine of government,"—between the governor-general-in-council and the commander-in-chief, or between the latter functionary and the viceroy. Lord Minto's tact and ability will be tried to the utmost. Lord Kitchener, he says, reluctantly,



LORD KITCHENER.

(Military commander-in-chief of India.)

has shown many signs of petulance, of dislike of criticism and control of any kind, and of an unwillingness to receive the orders of the government through the recognized channel. The government of India's letter he calls "a power-



THE PIRATES' VICTIM.

(Lord Curzon, the other day the spoiled darling of Unionism, has now to walk the plank.)

From the *Morning Leader* (London).

ful and temperate answer to the commander-in-chief's proposals." Lord Kitchener confuses his position as commander-in-chief with his ex-

traordinary and anomalous position as member of council, whereas the two functions are altogether apart.

CHOOSING A MINISTRY IN ENGLAND.

"THERE are two supreme political pleasures in life," says Lord Rosebery. "One is ideal, the other real. The ideal is when a man receives the seals of office from the hands of his sovereign; the real, when he hands them back."

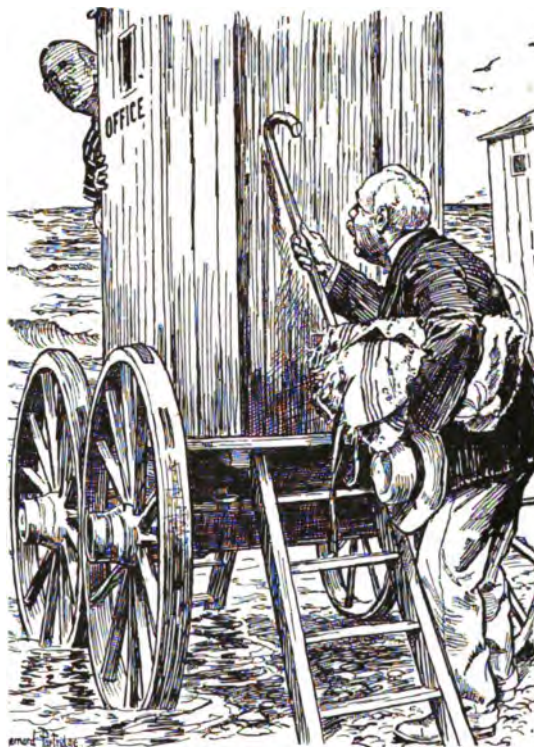
Mr. Michael MacDonagh, in *Longman's Magazine* for September, describes, in a lively paper on "The Making of a Government," what will take place when Mr. Balfour and others enjoy, at no distant date, some "real political pleasure." Many things are more easily made than governments. It is not, apparently, that material lacks; it is rather that it is superabundant. The first question is, What is the chief test of a man's capacity for office? To which Mr. MacDonagh answers, sadly enough, that it is mainly the gift of the gab. He admits that glibness of tongue is entirely unnecessary to a good administrator, but still—

The fact remains that the ready talker with but little practical experience of affairs has a better chance of a portfolio than the man of trained business capacity who is tongue-tied. Perhaps debaters are more useful in an administration than business men. A story is told of Disraeli which certainly points to that conclusion. Once, when forming a government, he offered the board of trade to a man who wanted the local government board, as he was better acquainted with the municipal affairs of the country than its commerce. "It doesn't matter," said Disraeli; "I suppose you know as much about trade as Blank, the first lord of the admiralty, knows about ships."

The evil which might be expected to result from such a method of choosing administrators is, however, largely counteracted by the capable permanent officials in the various departments,—undercats kept to do the mousing.

ADJUSTING RIVAL CLAIMS.

Mr. MacDonagh draws a harrowing picture of the task before the next prime minister. His choice must be made between any number of young pushfuls on the back benches, watching for their chances like cats for mice, many of them brilliant enough to talk on any subject and to have ambitions (which cannot be ridiculed) toward secretary-of-stateships; a number of other young pushfuls, less brilliant and less glib-tongued, but also ever on the watch for their chance, and each striving to master the details of some special office, with a view to, first, an



TIME'S UP!

C.-B.: "Now, then, you in there, sir! Aren't you coming out?—your time's up."

A.-B.: "Quite so, but I thought I'd just have another dip first!"—From *Punch* (London).

under-secretaryship, and ultimately to a seat in the cabinet; and, finally, and much most difficult of all, there are the "placid, steady-going veterans on the front opposition bench, who have already won their spurs. . . . Their interest in public affairs has not in the least abated, and they are still eager to return to office." Nevertheless, Mr. MacDonagh hints, their capacity for office may have seriously diminished.

Moreover, the prime minister is not entirely unfettered in his choice. He cannot merely sit and select the men who seem to him all-round the most suitable.

His task it is to satisfy as far as possible claims for office as conflicting as they are urgent, and at the same time to give to his administration that weight and authority which is necessary to win the confidence of the country. Gladstone, who formed no fewer than four

administrations,—an almost unprecedented record in constitutional history,—used to draw up on slips of paper a list of the various offices, placing opposite each, as alternatives, the names of three or four more or less eligible men, and then, by a process of sifting, arriving at the definite list.

For every post there are at least three or four applicants, each of whom thinks himself *the* man, and we can well believe that it is no easy task for a prime minister to adjust all these rival claims. Besides, he is bombarded by letters from members of Parliament and leading party men all over the country urging the appointment of this or that man to this or that post, or his inclusion in the cabinet.

MAINTAINING THE BALANCE BETWEEN THE TWO HOUSES.

Moreover, somehow or other the offices of the administration must be equitably distributed between the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

The chancellor of the exchequer must be in the representative chamber, as the hereditary legislators have no control over taxation. The holders of all the other prominent offices may be in one house or the other, as the prime minister thinks most convenient. But it has now become a rule, from which probably there will never be a departure, of placing the home secretary,—the minister whose department comes most closely into touch with the ordinary life of the citizen,—in the House of Commons, and giving the foreign secretary,—the minister whose duties are most delicate and responsible,—the greater parliamentary freedom and leisure of the House of Lords. The other secretaries of state may be in either the House of Lords or the House of Commons; but in whatever chamber the secretary may be, the under-secretary of the same department must be in the other. There are, moreover, two offices

in the government for which Roman Catholics are ineligible,—the lord chancellorship of England and the lord lieutenantship of Ireland.

The only prime minister, we are told, who approached the task of making a government with a sense of gayety and irresponsibility was Lord Palmerston. This probably accounts for his “engaging weakness of putting all his square men in round holes,” but when his thus constructed ministry had to be reconstructed he only found it a “delightful comedy of errors.”

CERTAIN PRINCIPLES OF SELECTION.

Gladstone and Sir Robert Peel both held the opinion that it was inadvisable to put a man into the cabinet without previous official training. Gladstone, moreover, once he had invited a man to office, held on to him as long as possible. “‘The next most serious thing to admitting a man into the cabinet,’ said he, mentioning one of the principles which guided him in the making of a government, ‘is to leave a man out who has once been in.’”

Yet even Gladstone sometimes had to exclude a former colleague on the ground of age. Age, however, is rather a vague term. It does not mean that a man of over a certain age is shelved; but if a man is old, even middle-aged, and also an extinct political volcano, then he must go to the wall. This is the inexorable law of politics.

Gladstone was eighty-four in 1893, but he was still inevitable as prime minister. If the strong young man of achievement, and still greater promise, cannot be set aside, neither can the old man who, having built up a commanding reputation, takes care that it does not decline.

ENGLAND'S CONSTITUTIONAL DEADLOCK.

BRITISH politics are just now in a confused condition. In the *Contemporary Review* (London) for September, Prof. A. V. Dicey discusses what he calls “the paralysis of the constitution.” He says the ministry, the opposition, and the nation stand at the present moment all alike, in a false position. Ministers hold office when they have ceased to command the confidence of the country. The fiscal controversy has made the nation distrustful. The Liberals hold a position at least as ambiguous. They are as little pronounced on home rule as the government on tariff reform. Neither of the great parties commands the confidence of the people. The mass of the nation is represented by neither.

A cabinet which is called upon to resign because it does not represent the free trade principles of the nation

may reasonably enough deny the moral obligation to make way for another cabinet which does not represent the unionism of the nation.

Yet, the learned professor says, not the government alone, but “every party and every member of every party dreads the next general election, and wishes to conciliate possible opponents. Conscious weakness produces, as always, unconscious cowardice.”

Of this he finds two curious illustrations.

How many of our legislators seriously believe in the wisdom or the possibility of establishing a system of old-age pensions? Yet where are the men who have ventured to say openly that the attempt to provide old-age pensions must end in failure, and, before its failure is patent, may lead to ruinous consequences?

What, above all, is the meaning of hasty tampering with the fundamental principles of the poor law?

What, in short, explains the support given to the unemployed workmen's bill?

The only cure Professor Dicey can find for the situation is the creation of a majority which acquiesces in the will of the country, a Unionist party that has renounced tariff reform, a Liberal party renouncing the alliance with Separatists,

or even the conversion of the nation either to protection or to home rule. The two last possibilities Professor Dicey deprecates as warmly as he desires the two first. The whole article reveals with almost tragic pathos the perplexity and suffering which Mr. Chamberlain's plunge has caused earnest and conservative minds.

ENGLAND'S WASTEFUL POOR-LAW SYSTEM.

RECENTLY the British prime minister has promised a royal commission to inquire into the working of the present poor law. Humanity has long condemned it as barbarous. But many humane people have been prejudiced against reform by the superstition that it was less costly than any system that would take its place. Miss Edith Sellers, an expert on provision for the aged and the poor in all lands, renders timely service by her article in the *Nineteenth Century* (London) for September, "How Poor Law Guardians Spend Their Money." It is a complete explosion of the vaunted economy practiced by guardians. It is an indictment of mingled wastefulness and stupidity which will bring conviction even to the slow-working brain of John Bull.

Miss Sellers selects for her analysis a comparatively small district with a population of 52,600, made up of three little towns and several villages, all alike being fairly well-to-do. Even the farm laborer has there 21s. (\$5.25) a week. Nevertheless, in a single year the guardians of that union spent on poor relief £19,796, — almost \$100,000. It seemed a large sum for so small a population, and Miss Sellers set to work to find out how the guardians had managed to spend so much. She found the financial statement shed little light on the question. She had to supplement it with chance returns and reports reserved as a rule for the guardians alone. The average number supported wholly or in part by the guardians that year was 936; 174 in the workhouse, 27 in the casual wards, 48 in the workhouse school, 85 boarded out in lunatic asylums or other institutions; 28 were non-resident cases, while 458 were out-relief cases with 115 children dependent on them. More than half of all the paupers were in receipt of outdoor relief. The total spent on out-relief was £2,564. Divided among the recipients, this sum worked out at an average per head of 1s. 8½d. (about 42 cents) a week. This out-relief certainly seemed neither extravagant nor humane. Taking in other items, Miss Sellers finds that of the £19,796 spent in the year, £6,320 had gone to the relief of 573

out-paupers, 28 non-resident paupers, and 86 afflicted persons, together with the sick relief of the whole district,—i.e., to 687 out of the total of 936 persons relieved.

\$290 A YEAR ON EACH INMATE!

So Miss Sellers arrives at the staggering conclusion:

They must, therefore, have spent no less a sum than £13,476 on defraying the cost of administration and providing for 174 workhouse inmates, 48 workhouse children, and 27 vagrants, practically on boarding and lodging 223 persons, and giving a night's shelter, together with a snack meal or two, to 27 more. Thus, had they made a clean sweep of the whole relief paraphernalia, — an impossible feat, of course, — and themselves dealt out to their *protégés* the money they spent, they would have been able to present to each of their vagrants a shilling every night, and to each of their workhouse inmates and school children £58 every year. On £58 a year many a curate, as many a clerk, not only lives himself, but supports a wife and family.

The reader exclaims, How could the money be spent?

HOUSED AT \$70 A HEAD.

Well, Miss Sellers shows that each inmate cost 4s. a week in food and 6d. in clothes, an allowance rather stingy than generous. Lighting, heating, and washing cost, per inmate, 2s. 5½d. a week. The coal bill for the laundry alone was 411 tons, burned to heat the water wherewith to wash the paupers' bits of things, together, of course, with their caretakers' collars and cuffs. Housing is a heavy item:

The guardians had spent £3,660 that year on the up-keeping of the workhouse, the casual wards, and the school. . . . And at the end of it all, so far as non-official eyes could see, not a building they had was one whit better on the last day of the year than on the first. Three thousand six hundred and sixty pounds a year for the housing of 249 persons is, roughly, £14 14s. per head. Thus, each of the guardians' *protégés*, workhouse inmates, school children, and casuals, all reckoned together, had cost their fellows for housing alone £14 14s., — just about as much as the average working-man in that district pays for the housing of himself, his wife, and family.

ONE OFFICIAL TO EVERY NINE INMATES.

But the cost of surveillance strikes Miss Sellers as most extravagant. In the workhouse there are eighteen regularly appointed officials to take care of 174 inmates, receiving £889 a year, with rations and fees in addition amounting to £600 more. There are several officials who give only part of their time,—doctor, chaplain, organist, dentist, stocktaker, lawyer with £200 a year, clerk with £275. Miss Sellers reckons that all these official salaries, fees, etc., would reach about £2,250, and that the full cost of the maintenance of every man and woman in the workhouse is about £50 (£250) a year, a sum, she adds, “on which middle-class widows manage sometimes to bring up half a dozen children respectably.” The twenty-seven vagrants cost the ratepayers £693, though the relief they actually received cost only £135. The children in the workhouse schools numbered forty-eight, cost 3s. 5d. a week each for food, 1s. 2½d. each for clothes, and £2 13s. 9d. for schooling. No fewer than seven officials are employed for the whole of their time to look after these forty-eight children, their salaries and rations amounting to £775. Surveillance works out at more than £16 per child! Consequently, each workhouse child had cost the ratepayers £50 10s. (£252.50),—more than twice as much as, on an average, the ratepayers’ sons and daughters had each cost them. What more crushing proof of extravagance could be adduced? Miss Sellers puts her figures together in this tabular form :

458 out-relief cases.....at	£5	0s.	12d.	per case,	£2,564
28 non-resident cases.....	4	18	6	“	138
86 persons in asylums, etc. .	34	11	7	per head,	2,974
174 workhouse inmates	43	7	5	“	7,546
27 vagrants.....	25	14	0	“	694
48 children.....	50	10	0	“	2,494
And on medical relief.....					644
Total.....					£16,984

Of the remaining £2,800, £1,300 went on miscellaneous expenses and £1,496 went to officials.

HOW A BUSINESS MAN WOULD DO IT.

Here, veritably, says Miss Sellers, is woeful waste.

Does any one suppose that this sum, or half this sum, would be spent if the control of the administration, instead of being vested in a committee of irresponsible amateurs, was vested in a practical business man who had to pay all salaries out of his own income? How such a man would scoff were it suggested to him that he should give a lawyer a retaining fee of £200 on the off-chance of a little legal advice being required. How he would scoff, too, were he told that he must spend £1,873 a year on caretakers for 174 workhouse inmates, with a few casuals thrown in; and £797 more on caretakers for 48 school children. He would make short work, I have never a doubt, of those eighteen officials who hang about the workhouse all day; would make short work, too, of the seven other officials who hang about the school. The work that is done now he would manage to have done, and better than it is done now, I am inclined to think, with half the number of officials and at less than half the cost. For the real work of the union, it must be remembered, is done, for the most part, not by the officials, but by the inmates themselves, with a helping hand from the casuals.

THE NATION'S EXPENDITURES.

The instance Miss Sellers has cited is, she says, a fairly typical instance.

Thus, we may take it for granted that as they spend their money other guardians spend theirs; we may take it for granted, in fact, that as a good half of the £19,796 spent on the relief of the poor in this one district was just swattered away, not far short of half the £12,848,323 spent on the relief of the poor of the whole country was swattered away also. And although the woeful waste of a few thousands may concern only the parish, the woeful waste of millions concerns the whole nation. Surely the time has come for mending, if not for ending, our present amateurish system of poor-relief.

I once asked a citizen of Copenhagen why his town had made a clean sweep of poor-law guardians and had installed trained officials in their place. “The amateur administrator is too costly a luxury for so small a country as ours,” he replied, promptly. “It suits us better to pay a man to do our work well than to have it done gratis and badly.”

SOME RESULTS OF THE EIGHT-HOUR LABOR DAY IN EUROPE.

SOME startling facts on the subject of the eight-hour labor day are contributed to the *Hilfe* (Berlin), proving that neither quantity nor quality of work has suffered from the reduction of time. In 1894, the working time of about forty-three thousand men employed in English government factories was reduced to forty-eight hours a week. The war department contributed almost twenty thousand men especially employed at Woolwich. The shortened time ag-

gregated five and three-quarter hours weekly. After more than ten years' experience, an official report is now at hand :

When the forty-eight-hour week was commenced the war department figured that the time necessary for stopping and starting machinery at breakfast would be saved, because under the new regulation work would begin after breakfast. Saving of light and fuel was also expected. It was furthermore supposed that the later start of work would induce more

regularity and a greater capacity for work on account of improved bodily condition. The department did not, therefore, foresee an increased manufacturing cost; this confidence has now been fully realized. The production has not diminished, and the wages of the pieceworkers, on the other hand, have not suffered notable reduction in spite of the fact that the prices remained the same. Workmen employed at time wages received an increase to equal the earnings of the ten-hour day. It was not necessary to raise the number of men working on time. Similar results were obtained in the English marine administration.

Detailed studies of this subject are also published in the Swedish illustrated *Social Tidskrift* (Stockholm). The new French mines legislation, in force on January 2, 1906, prescribes the nine-hour limit for laborers working underground. The time is figured from the descent of the last man into the shaft until the arrival of the first one at the surface. From January 2, 1908, the time will be eight and one-half hours, and two years later (1910), eight hours. Exceptions to this rule will be permitted only after public investigation as to its necessity.

The Swedish review also refers to the legisla-

tion submitted to the American Congress, according to which *entrepreneurs* contracting for the Government should not be allowed to employ workmen for more than eight hours a day. Tests were made, upon the declaration of twenty-four manufacturers that the eight-hour day would hurt the economy and raise the cost of production. The two great sister ships, the *Louisiana* and the *Connecticut*, were chosen for the experiment. The former should be built on a private wharf at ten hours a day, the latter on the dockyard of the Government at the eight-hour limit. After 528 days, 54.5 per cent. of the hull of the *Louisiana* work was accomplished, while the *Connecticut* showed 53.59 per cent. after 570 days. The material wrought in the *Louisiana* shops weighed 12,216,154 pounds, and the aggregate working time amounted to 2,413,888 hours. The corresponding figures for the *Connecticut* work were 11,391,040 and 1,808,240. During the ten-hour day, 50,608 pounds were consequently wrought in one day, and almost just as much, or 50,396 pounds, under the eight-hour limit.

FIVE YEARS OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN HOLLAND.

INDUSTRIAL and economic conditions in Holland are so complicated and so full of lessons for the rest of the world that American readers will find a good deal to interest them in the following facts and figures which we gather from the Dutch monthly review, *De Economist*. They apply to the years 1901 to 1904, inclusive. As explanatory of certain statements herein made, it should be mentioned that within the last few years the government has established certain chambers of labor for the protection of both employers and employed, before which questions at issue between any contending parties in the labor field can be brought for settlement or arbitration. A central bureau of statistics has also been established for the purpose of collecting and recording all important data in regard to the labor question.

The central bureau of statistics has recently published the leading facts concerning the strikes and lockouts that have occurred in The Netherlands during the past year, 1904. From these statistics, from which we borrow some leading figures, it appears that in the past year there were comparatively few labor contests, and those insignificant, the great struggles in the diamond industry and in the glass factories excepted. Nothing else could have been expected, indeed, after the deplorable experience of 1903. In the first place, we may give the

number of strikes that took place during the four years covered by The Netherlands strike statistics, arranged according to occupations, as shown by the following table:

	1901	1902	1903	1904
Building trades	29	35	45	23
Diamond industry	5	8	7	..
Workers in wood	3	3	7	7
Machinery and metal workers	9	5	7	..
Stone workers	5	10	7	3
Textile and clothing industry	7	7	15	8
Transportation	10	7	15	6
Peat workers	16	6	1	1
Provisions and groceries	13	3	18	19
Other occupations	7	12	16	11
Total	118	130	144	86

As in other years, the building trades were most seriously affected by strikes even in 1904. Most of the strikes take place in the leading centers of population, particularly in Amsterdam, as is shown by the following figures:

Total number of strikes.		Number of these in eight towns of over 50,000 inhabitants.	Number in Amsterdam.
1901	118	39	22
1902	130	67	41
1903	144	87	53
1904	86	31	13

The entire number of strikers in 1904, so far as known, did not amount to more than 4,432, as against 33,487 in 1903 and 12,652 in 1902. The total number of working days lost by the strikers, now tabulated in the statistics for the first time, amounted to 86,820, while, in addition, those workmen whose labor was stopped in consequence of the strikes lost 61,183 working days. As is justly observed by the compiler of these statistics, the number given of working days lost does not give sufficient data to calculate the loss in wages occasioned by the strikes. For, omitting the probable disbursements to the strikers of the funds of their various organizations, which, as coming ultimately out of the pockets of the strikers, cannot be counted as a diminution of the amount of loss sustained in wages, in the strikes gained by the employees wages are not seldom paid even for the days when the strike is on, in which case there is financial loss, of course, to the employers, and, in a wider sense, material loss to society at large.

The great majority of the demands made by the workmen was for an advance in wages, while next in importance to this was made the demand for the reinstatement of discharged employees.

Of 83 strikes in 1904 the results became fully known. Of these, 22 were won by the workmen, 34 were lost, 25 were adjusted, and 2 remained undecided. Or, reckoned by percentages, 26.51 per cent. were won, 40.96 per cent. were lost, 30.12 per cent. were settled, and 2.14 per cent.

were left undecided. Of the 83 strikes in 1904, therefore, 56.63 per cent. were wholly or partly successful, against 54.29 per cent., 61.98 per cent., and 60.87 per cent., respectively, in the three immediately preceding years. In the trades represented by a chamber of labor 35 strikes took place, but in only six of these cases (considerably less than 1903) was any action of the chamber called for in settlement of the dispute, and of these six there were four in which the action of the chamber was crowned with success.

The lockouts during the past year were more numerous than in the preceding three years, there being 17 in 1904, as against 14 in 1903 and 1902 and 7 in 1901. In the lockouts of 1904, so far as known, 6,754 workmen were concerned. The number of working days lost by the locked-out men is reckoned at 490,046, and by those who in consequence of the dispute were compelled to stop work the number of days lost was reckoned at 19,828. Of these two figures, 484,571 and 19,610 days, respectively, are to be attributed to the great lockout in the diamond works. Nine of these lockouts were won by the employers, two were lost by them, while six cases were compromised. In seven cases the lockout occurred in trades represented by a chamber of labor, and in two of these cases the particular chamber interested was called upon to settle the questions at issue, in both with good success. Twice, also, a chamber became involved in a case not within its jurisdiction, only once, however, with success.

IS SCOTLAND DECADENT?

A SCOTCHMAN who has revisited his fatherland after many years of absence, and who finds life, culture, and industry in a very bad way, contributes to the *National Review* an article under the above title, which he signs by the *nom de plume* of "Malagrowther." Scotland, he says,—that is, the "energetic Scotland that counts and keeps itself in evidence,"—lives in the past. "It is emphatically the country of anniversaries and centenaries." It busies itself with celebrating anniversaries of Knox, Burns, Scott, Watt, and Stevenson. The declaration that Scotland lives in its past, however, while fundamentally sound, continues this writer, requires a slight addition. "Scotland lives on its great past, plus Mr. Andrew Carnegie."

When the merchant in the city or the grocer in the small town opens his daily paper of a morning, his first object, after the necessary glance at the stock markets, is to ascertain whether Mr. Carnegie has given a few thousands for an organ or a library, or a few millions for education. And he does this in the same spirit of feudalism which made Wamba give his first thought

when the sun rose to the intentions of Cedric, even although he not only believed, but positively knew, that he was a better man than his master. Scotland, in so far as it can be regarded as an independent political entity, and not as the "knuckle-end of England," is not an aristocracy or a democracy, although it is generally so styled by the Scottish members who adequately represent its grocerdom, but not its brains, but a carefully graded plutocracy. When a man is alive he is judged by his income, as that is either positively known, as in the case of clergymen, professors, and state or municipal officials, or can be inferred from "the style he keeps up," or his contributions to public charities or popular entertainments. When he dies he is judged by the death duties that his executors have to pay.

Generations of living up to the letter of the law in the matter of church and religious life, to the neglect of the spirit, continues this writer, has made the Scotch a nation "permeated with churchianity rather than Christianity." Moreover, the development of the factory system has "plebified" Scotch society. There is no literary society in Scotland, this writer continues, nor can there be, for there are no men of letters.

There are still publishers and publishers' hacks, including university professors and lecturers who compile dictionaries and school books for "the million." But there is no light or leading in them; and they have obviously no heart in their work, which is paid at a rate that a junior commercial traveler for a prosperous spirit business would despise. Formerly, judges of the Supreme Court, and professors in the universities, like Lord Neaves and John Stuart Blackie, used to dabble in convivial verse and breezy prose. The venerable Professor Masson still lives to remind a younger generation of the time when John Wilson and William Edmonstoune Aytoun found in Scotland an audience large enough to appreciate their vigorous onslaughts on the extravagances of the Lake and "spasmodic" schools of poetry.

Modern journalism has taken the place of literature in Scotland, we are told, further, and seems to have destroyed the taste for it.

The last effort to revive literature in Scotland was made by an Englishman, the late W. E. Henley, and the *Scots Observer* which he created. But it ended in brilliant failure, and it is morally certain that nothing of the kind will ever be tried again. Scotsmen have, of course, distinguished themselves in literature even during the past half-century. But, like Stevenson, who, however, was not so much a "typical Scot" as a "starry stranger," and Mr. Barrie, they leave their country for their own good and the delectation of London. As a simple matter of fact, there are residing in Scotland at the present moment but two Scots men of letters, in the true sense—Mr. Neil Munro, the author of "The Lost Pibroch," and Mr. J. H. Millar, whose "Literary History of Scotland" shows that his country still possesses one critic who can write English that is free from solecisms, and who has the courage to say what he thinks of the snivel and drivel of the Kailyard. In poetry, Scotland is nowhere. An industrious bookseller in the far north some time ago published in a portentous series of volumes the works of "living Scottish poets," with their portraits, which were understood to be "lifelike." This was the only sign of life in the work.

Scotchmen, says this writer, in conclusion, are never weary of telling us that their country never contained so much wealth as it does now. That is probably true.

But it is no less true that never was Scotland's wealth so unequally distributed, or so sterilized in the distribution. The gulf between rich and poor is wider than ever it was, because the classes and the masses have now no meeting-ground or community of views, not even religion. Both the old gayety and the old earnestness of Scotland have disappeared. Whether they will reappear after a process of social transformation remains to be seen. At present, Scotland is the dreary paradise of bourgeois prosperity and sectarianism, a country of 15 sects, 3,000 churches, 300 bowling greens, 250 golf courses—and no poet.

A Reply by a Patriotic Scotsman.

The following number of the *National* contains a reply to "Malagrowther" by Archibald

Fleming, who contends that Scotland needs no advocate.

The decadent land which has still sufficient marrow in her to provide, for the empire's ampler stage, a present and a prospective prime minister, not to speak of a premier-emeritus still in the heyday of his powers; archbishops for Canterbury and York; a viceroy for India; and a host of leaders in literature, politics, the professions, and commerce,—that land may well dispense with any special journalistic advocacy, having in contemporary history an answer so patent and so potent ready-made.

It is not "Malagrowther's" opinion, however, but his facts, which Mr. Fleming challenges. Scotland does not worship Andrew Carnegie, says this writer,—does not hang on his words.

He is accepted, tolerated—despoiled and plundered, if you choose to say so; but not much fancied; and when, for most of the year, he is beyond the seas, there is probably no absent Scot of eminence who is more unwept, unhonored, or unsung. But he has not wrought the wholesale national havoc of "Malagrowther's" dream. His money has perhaps enticed some country boys to college who had been better at the plow; it has tempted others to declare that they cannot pay their fees when they could pay quite well; by means of it he has seduced some scores, if not hundreds, of dissenting churches—and, I regret to say, a bunch of parish churches as well—into the construction of organs, all richly dight with gold, at least three times too vast for the buildings in which they are placed; and he has sedulously fostered the delusion that to multiply facilities for the consumption of second-rate fiction is to further the great cause of education. But to say that Carnegieism has demoralized Scotland or has furnished us with a new religion is to talk extravagantly. And it has gratefully to be remembered that the immense sums which Mr. Carnegie has devoted to the endowment of research in the Scottish universities have been already productive of far-reaching good.

Scotland, says Mr. Fleming, is not given up to Mammon-worship, nor is she as irreligious as "Malagrowther" would have us believe. While the historic sin of the Scottish Episcopal Church has been that of "consistent, tactical, maladroitness," yet it is a dignified, earnest body, which "honestly believes itself to be a missionary church in a churchless land." For the United Free Church of Scotland Mr. Fleming has great admiration and respect. It is, he declares, essentially one.

Englishmen in Parliament have seen, to their amazement, that Scotsmen, where their church is concerned (and, when all is said and done, it is, in all its fragments, their one historic church), will sink their politics and act in concord. The manner of its realizing may not be clear as yet. But the one salient vision of the Scottish imagination of to-day is that of their reunited historic church, rising from the smoke of recent battle to reinvigorated life,—more strong, more typically national, and not nominally, but essentially, "free."

THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION,—A SURVEY.

ONE of the most successful American merchants, Mr. John Wanamaker, is said to have recently remarked: "If I had my life to live over again, I'd give twice as much to the Young Men's Christian Association. It is an investment that never disappoints." Treating the institution from the standpoint of an investment for young men, Mr. Herbert N. Casson contributes to *Munsey's Magazine* a paper which, while it is a study of the organization, is also a tribute to its venerable founder, Sir George Williams, now eighty-five years of age.

The movement began sixty-one years ago, on Blackfriars Bridge, in London. Two young men, George Williams and Edward Beaumont, both clerks on small salaries, were crossing the bridge on their way home, one evening, when Williams said:

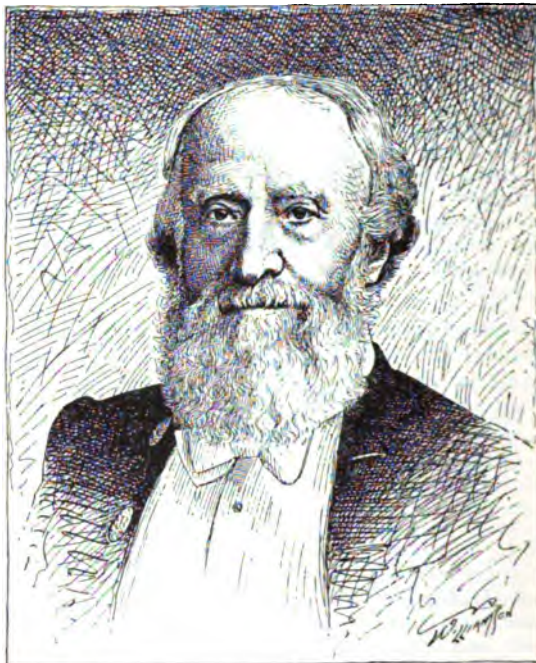
"Teddy, are you willing to make a sacrifice for your religion?"

"Yes, George," replied Teddy; "if you lead, I'll follow."

Williams then proposed that they should call their fellow-clerks together and form a society to help one another lead better lives. Teddy agreed. They made known their plan, and, as they expected, were jeered at and pelted with nicknames. They persevered, and won over ten of the enemy. Their employer took notice of their efforts, and lent them a little room in the garret over the store. Here, on June 6, 1844, the twelve young clerks organized the first Young Men's Christian Association.

The society grew, and in seven years there were branches in Scotland, Ireland, Canada, and the United States. The first American Young Men's Christian Association was organized in Boston, in 1851. A generation ago, this organization was commonly regarded by the outside world, as Mr. Casson points out, as a society whose chief purposes were preaching and praying. "To-day, almost every one knows it better,—knows it as a huge and powerful organization that works for the good of society in a hundred different ways, all of them highly practical." Mr. Casson recites the various activities and beneficences of the organization, and sums up by saying that it has developed into a young men's world, "with almost everything in it that a young man needs from the day he earns his first dollar until he marries and makes a home of his own." As this writer picturesquely puts it, answering the question as to whether it is a real estate corporation, a gymnasium, a university, a church, an hotel, or a recreation club:

You may call it any one of these, and give good reasons. For instance, in the United States alone it owns thirty-one million dollars' worth of land and buildings. Its yearly income is more than four million dollars, half of which is perpetuated in property. It has more



SIR GEORGE WILLIAMS.

than five hundred club-houses, large enough to house the whole population of a city like Pittsburg. Every five days, on an average, it puts up a new building! Surely it is a real estate corporation, and one of the most prosperous in the country. Look at it from another point of view, and you will find it has more than thirty-two thousand students in its schools,—about as many as the eight biggest universities in America can show. Its diplomas are accepted by a hundred colleges. In its libraries are half a million books. Last year it gave away to soldiers and sailors seventy-five tons of books and magazines. Plainly, it should take rank as a university, and a most practical one, for it teaches its students useful trades and finds them employers when they graduate. Its finished product in this line last year numbered fifteen thousand young men. Give this many-sided institution another twist and it becomes the greatest school of physical culture in the world, operating five hundred and fifty-six gymnasiums, with one hundred and thirty-five thousand pupils. It is the foremost promoter of clean sport. When it takes hold of a young man, it hardens his backbone and tightens up his muscles, physically as well as morally. For scientific body-building, its instructors are generally admitted to be the best in their profession. "They are the finest body of specialists in physical training in the world," says no less an authority than Dr. Anderson, of Yale.

A fourth twist, and it is transformed into a church for men only. "Why don't men go to church?" is the plaint of many a preacher. In many cases the answer is, "Because they go to the services of the Young Men's Christian Association." Here we find a Bible class of thirty-eight thousand, and an annual attendance at

religious meetings of more than three millions. If the men will not come to it, it goes to the men. It holds short dinner-hour meetings for workmen in the quarries of Vermont, in the lumber camps and cotton mills of the South, and in the mines and steel plants of Pennsylvania. Not long ago, in a blaze of missionary enthusiasm, it took forty of its young men and sent them as advance agents into ten foreign countries. Examine this Pooh Bah of institutions still further and you will discover that it gives lodging to several hundred thousands, baths to one million, and meals to two millions, in the ordinary course of its year's work. It owns farms, islands, house-boats, tents, and gypsy wagons. Probably fourteen thousand of its members have been summering this year in its country camps.

In educational matters, the associations have become experiment stations, "making new roads for schools and colleges." The curriculum is extremely practical. The association is dealing with flesh-and-blood young men, who are battling in a world of rough realities. "In every department it is as practical as a load of bricks." "What I like about your work," said President Roosevelt to a convention of secretaries, "is that you mix religion with common sense." Here, for example, is the list of subjects discussed lately by one of the largest bodies:

- "The Hot-Headed Man."
- "Who Is to Blame for Graft?"
- "Does Swearing Help a Fellow's Feelings?"
- "Self-Control."
- "Is Temptation a Fact or a Fancy?"
- "Municipal Ownership."

No matter where a young man goes, concludes Mr. Casson, the Young Men's Christian Association is on his trail.

He will find it among the paper-makers of Maine, the coal miners of Pennsylvania, the quarrymen of Vermont, the cotton-mill workers of the Carolinas, and the gold miners of Alaska. The latest idea in the South is the movable Young Men's Christian Association, which follows the lumber camps. The average secretary is a sleuth. He tracks his prey to its hiding-place. Every week little meetings are held in a flagman's shanty, an engineer's caboose, a coal mine, a battleship, or the

"bull pen," of a street-car barn. Sometimes the Young Men's Christian Association follows the flag; sometimes it goes ahead. It is in Cuba, with President Palma as a charter member; and in Hawaii and the Philippines. About three hundred Americans and natives enter the Manila building every day; and several agents travel through the army camps, scattering books and magazines among the homesick boys. "Pay-day to-morrow. Come over with a talking-machine," is a message often sent by the army chaplains to the Manila Young Men's Christian Association. And so many a young man is amused and reasoned with, until his self-respect is stiffened and the danger-line is crossed.

When the Russo-Japanese war began, the American Young Men's Christian Association asked permission to accompany the Japanese army.

"No," said the minister of war. "We need no missionaries."

After several days he changed his mind, and allowed six secretaries and six native helpers to go to the firing line. From the first, these men with the four mystic letters on their caps became popular with the army. Concerts were given every night with talking-machines and music-boxes. "Manhattan Beach" was the favorite tune. Hundreds of letters were written for illiterate soldiers. The great Kuroki presently paid a visit to the Young Men's Christian Association tents, and expressed his approval. Oyama followed suit; and soon the various generals were wiring, "Send more of your men." A check for five thousand dollars was received from the Mikado, and to-day the Young Men's Christian Association is an established Japanese institution, tested under fire and proved to be true-blue.

In Russia, the association has had a foothold since 1897. Its most influential friend has been the Czarina; its head is Prince Peter of Oldenburg, a brother-in-law of the Czar. When the international conference was held in Paris, last May, at the time when the newspapers were telling of Togo and Rozhdestvenski, the Japanese delegate, K. Tbuka, and the Russian delegate, Helman Luezan, were sitting side by side on the platform or walking arm-in-arm along the boulevards.

REVIVALS—ANCIENT AND MODERN.

A PROPOS of the great revival in Wales, Dr. Thomas M. Lindsay, principal of the United Free Church College at Glasgow, and one of the most eminent of church historians, contributes to the *Contemporary Review* (London) for September an admirable study of revivals. He starts by saying that "from one point of view, the history of the Christian religion is a chronicle of its revivals. The Church of Christ was born in a time of revival, and from revival to revival seems to be the law of its growth." They

are not peculiar to any one division of the Christian Church, or of any one generation, but to all. Institutions and theologies have changed—

But the revival is always the same. Space and Time, so potent over all things human, seem powerless to change it. What it was in Achaia in the first century, or in Italy in the thirteenth, or in the Rhineland in the fourteenth, or in England in the eighteenth, it is in Wales to-day.

Dr. Lindsay begins with Achaia. He says:

In St. Paul's first letter to the Christians of Corinth

we have the earliest recorded account of the meetings of the Primitive Church for public worship, and they describe scenes common to revival meetings in every age.

THE REVIVAL UNDER ST. FRANCIS.

Next, he describes the great revival under Francis of Assisi, which swept over Italy in the thirteenth century. There is a vivid picture of the brethren meeting by hundreds in a remote glen, spending days in the rapture of song and prayer and stirring address.

There was no other service; no appointed leaders of the devotions; no one selected to edify the brethren. Men sang, or prayed, or spoke as they were moved by inward impulse to do it, and the sense of spiritual power and presence was felt by all.

The words of St. Paul in his first letter to the Corinthians, the narrative of the Franciscan chronicler, the accounts contained in the newspapers describing the Welsh revival of to-day, might all be used to describe one movement; and yet the scenes are separated by centuries.

WHAT PREVENTS HYSTERICAL EXCESS.

There is yet a deeper unity. We hear of crowded meetings, of audiences "strung to the highest pitch of spiritual excitement," and yet calm, quiet, and orderly. Always there is untrammelled liberty of worship.

If one asks why it is that there is this abiding sense of calm amid so much of what might be expected to lead to scenes of disorder and to unseemly exhibitions of the most unrestrained emotional excitement, why the desperate, passionate prayers, the surging inward emotion finding vent in quiet weeping, in breasts heaving with sobs which cannot be repressed, in throats choking with an emotion which prevents articulate speech, do not burst all bounds and degenerate into wild, hysterical excitement (which it ought to do by all rules of ordinary psychology), he will get the answer now in Wales which St. Paul would have given him in Corinth, or Francis in Italy, or Tauler in the Rhineland, or Wesley in England; that this quivering, throbbing, singing, praying crowd knows and feels the immediate presence and power of a great unseen reality,—the Holy Spirit, impalpable, invisible, inaudible, and yet recognized by every fiber of the soul. The presence of the Master, promised to his disciples, is with his worshipers, is manifested in the "gifts" of the spirit, and is revealed in the calm, exultant expectancy which subdues all undue excitement.

"SPEAKING IN A TONGUE."

The "speaking in a tongue,"—strange, ejaculatory prayer,—a gift which St. Paul described as worthless, has, Dr. Lindsay says, repeated itself in a great number of revivals.

It appeared in the "prophets" of the Cevennes, in the later decades of the seventeenth century among the Calvinists of France; in the "ecstatic virgins" who were the centers of a religious awakening in the Roman

Catholic Tyrol in the earlier decades of the nineteenth century; in the almost contemporary Irvingite movement in the west of Scotland; and in many a medieval revival.

THE TWO CHIEF "GIFTS" IN ALL REVIVALS.

But in all revivals there have appeared the gift of speaking the Word of God, the prophetic ministry, and the corresponding gift of discernment bestowed upon the hearers. The prophetic ministry died down in the early Church, and never regained its first recognized position, "but it always reappears during a time of revival, and with it the double gift of magnetic speech and spiritual discernment." The divine principle of selection has shown itself utterly careless of all ecclesiastical arrangements. Ordination has never been a necessary thing for preachers at revivals.

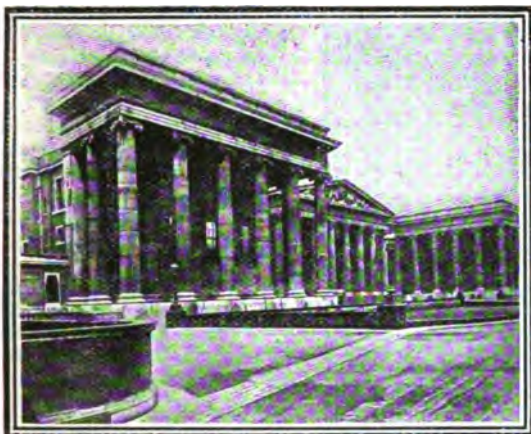
SPIRITUAL VERSUS HYSTERICAL.

To the gibe of superior persons of all times, from Celsus in the second century to Professor Huxley in the nineteenth, who refer revivals to disordered brain or physical hysteria, Dr. Lindsay replies, with Maeterlinck, that some of the greatest leaders in religious awakenings were men of the soundest brains, of the most determined wills, and of the most persistent energy. At its very birth, Christianity found at its side other cults marked by ecstasies, visions, and wondrous signs. But the Christian assemblies differed from the orgiastic rites of Oriental paganism. The manifestations in the latter were stereotyped and fragmentary. In the former, there was a great wealth of expression. But the great contrast was that Christian enthusiasm purified and exalted the moral and religious life. So "the influence of revivals has almost invariably been to deepen and quicken the sense of moral responsibility, and to sustain, elevate, and purify the moral life." They are also followed by attempts at social reformation.

EFFECTS ON WOMEN, THOUGHT, AND SONG.

Three other interesting facts are noted by Dr. Lindsay. Revivals have all, or almost all, given rise to an outburst of Christian song. Another almost universal characteristic of revivals is a recognition of the value of women as religious guides and comforters. Paul did forbid women to "speak" in churches, but he did not prevent them praying or prophesying in the church, for he insisted that when they did so they must have a covering on their heads. The third characteristic is "the unobtrusive way in which great revivals have influenced Christian doctrines, generally on their practical or experimental side."

THE BRITISH MUSEUM LIBRARY.



THE BRITISH MUSEUM, LONDON.

IN a recent issue of *Good Words*, Messrs. A. W. Jarvis and R. Turtle describe, from its humble beginnings, the "Greatest Library in the World,"—of course, that of the British Museum. There is a particularly interesting illustration of a part of the library rarely seen, even by the readers,—behind the scenes, where the books are kept in their presses.

The library, which now contains, roughly, two and one-half million books, originated with some 40,000 volumes, valued (with collections appertaining) at £80,000 (\$400,000), and presented to the nation by Sir Hans Sloane, in 1753, by will, "being fully convinced that nothing tends more to raise our ideas of the power, wisdom, goodness, providence, and other perfections of the Deity, or more to the comfort and well-being of his creatures, than the enlargement of our knowledge of the works of nature."

Sir Hans Sloane had wished that his library might remain at his Chelsea residence; but this proving too far out of town, it was removed to Montague House, Bloomsbury, with seven and one-half acres of land.

"A pleasant corner room in the converted mansion, overlooking the gardens and the fields beyond, was allotted to readers. The number was at first very small; only five for the month of July."

And this was the beginning of the famous reading-room. As time went on the library was immensely added to,—by George II., who presented some exceedingly rare and costly volumes; by George III., who presented 33,000 tracts about the Civil War,—the "King's Tracts," as they are known; by George IV., who presented 65,250 volumes, about 20,000 pamphlets,

and a superb array of maps, topographical drawings, and prints; and by other donors, until Montague House had become quite impossibly small. By 1845 it had disappeared, and two years later the new and present building, with the reading-room as it now stands, was completed at a cost of £750,000 (\$3,750,000). It will be remembered that by the Copyright Act the British Museum is entitled to a free copy of everything published in the United Kingdom. If there is more than one edition, the nation is entitled to a copy of the handsomest edition. This, of course, is the way in which the library is chiefly kept up.

During 1903, the additions to the department comprised 27,370 volumes and pamphlets (including 127 atlases, etc., and 1,405 books of music). Of this number, 5,901 were presented, 13,904 received under provisions of Copyright Act, 376 by colonial copyright, 581 by international exchange, and 21,918 by purchase. The total number of articles received, exclusive of newspapers, during the year was 108,123.

Specially rare or sumptuous books are kept under lock and key, and only permitted to be inspected in the inner reading-room of the museum, known as the "Large Room."

The collection of early printed Bibles is probably unsurpassed, and includes Cranmer's Bible and all the editions of the Great Bible. There are numerous examples, too, of those remarkable for their startling printers' errors and for the curious renderings of the translators. In the "Breeches Bible" we read, "Then the eles of them both were opened, and they knew that they were naked, and they sewed figge leaves together and made themselves breeches" (Genesis iii. 7); the "Treacle" Bible, "Is there not treacle at Gilead?" (Jeremiah viii. 22); the "Place-maker's Bible," "Blessed are the place-makers, for they shall be called the children of God" (Matthew v. 9). In the "Vinegar Bible" the "Parable of the Vinegar" appears in the chapter heading to Luke xx. Then there is the "Wife-Hater" Bible, "If any man come to Me, and hate not his father . . . yea, and his wife also" (Luke xiv. 26); the "Bugge," the "He," and the "She" Bibles. In this strange category, the "Wicked" Bible, however, holds first place. It is so called from the fact that the word "not" is omitted from the seventh commandment.

The printers of all these offending volumes are supposed to have been heavily fined, and every offending copy destroyed. Nevertheless, four are known to have escaped, one of which the British Museum possesses.

The most valuable book is considered to be the "Mazarine" Bible, the earliest book printed with movable type; but the famous Mainz Psalter is nearly if not quite as valuable, a copy having brought recently £4,950 (\$24,750), the highest price ever paid at an auction for a single printed book.



THE GREAT READING-ROOM OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

The printed catalogue is a monument of industry with which Dr. Garnett's name will always be associated.

Previous to 1881, the catalogue was in manuscript, and had by that year become a veritable library in itself, consisting of no less than 3,000 huge folio volumes. The saving of space effected by the use of

printing has been enormous. Twenty-odd years, with their thousands of thousands accessions, have since rolled by, and yet at the present day the volumes of the catalogue do not reach one-third of that number.

There are ten great classes which have a total of 515 subdivisions. As a general rule, every book bears the number of the press to which it belongs, the letter of the shelf, and, generally, a third mark indicating its place on the shelf. Thus, a book marked 12,236, aaa, 7, would be found in press number 12,236, on the shelf lettered aaa, and would be the seventh book on the shelf.

There are about forty miles of shelving in the library, divided into seven sections. In 1903, the number of visits of readers is given as 233,674, and the number of volumes issued as 1,587,231. The diameter of the reading-room is 140 feet, the height of the dome 106 feet, and the number of readers who can be seated

at the readers' tables at one time is 458.

Surrounding it is a network of galleries in concentric circles, four stories high, and angles and straight corridors in three stories. This is known as the New Library. Throughout its interior there are no walls; all the divisions being formed by double book-presses, in which the books are placed fore-edge to fore-edge, with only iron lattice intervening.

THE PROPOSED AFFILIATION OF AMERICAN AND GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

SINCE, some time ago, an exchange of German and American university professors was suggested (somewhat in the manner lately practised by Harvard University and certain prominent French authors), the subject has been from time to time discussed in our newspapers and periodicals. A writer signing himself "L.,"—evidently one speaking with authority, presumably a university professor or instructor,—has, in the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin), an interesting and philosophical article, written from the

German standpoint, on "The German Scholars Abroad and the Exchange of Scholars with America." This paper, after giving at some length the *rationale* and history of the settlement and activity of German scholars and writers in divisions of the German Empire other than their native ones, in England, France, Austria, Russia, etc., ends thus:

As now, in our vacation trips on railroads or on steamers, the distances have grown; as we no longer confine ourselves to Switzerland or the Tyrol, but seek

out by water or land distant climes; as our entire intercourse to-day is of wholly different dimensions from formerly; as international commerce has more and more become the center of the traffic of the nations, so also in this field. Following community of language, as early as the middle of the nineteenth century the famous author was going from Old England to the United States to lecture. So began Thackeray's lectures on "The Four Georges." This has been the oftener repeated the nearer we come to the present. From mere lecture courses came closer relations, calls to American universities of Englishmen, Germans, and others, for shorter or longer terms. So far as this concerns German scholars, it has had a similar character to those "traveling years" (well known to us) of young university teachers, in Switzerland, Austria, etc. The difference was, ordinarily, in the necessity for the use of the foreign tongue. Similarly, in the last thirty years the ways of German university teachers have led to Japan.

AMERICAN TEACHERS IN GERMANY.

What is most noticeable,—and what, especially in America, has been most noticed,—continues this writer, is that several years ago an American physicist received a call to a German university, which, moreover, he declined.

It has thus come to talking of a plan for an exchange

of German and American university teachers as a sort of starring engagement, and considerable weight has been given to the matter, at least by its repeated mention in the daily press. Neither have communications been wanting that this or that German university teacher has followed or will follow a call, for a few weeks or months, to America. It is beginning to be more noticeable when a scholar from America is lecturing in Germany—and in Berlin, too!

AMERICAN SCHOLARS WELCOME IN GERMANY.

Several younger men from German universities have been for some years in American universities. They have found there more or less what they sought. Some among them are prosperous, and thankful to have attained there what was not permitted them at home. The like will also be repeated in the future.

Should it really be repeated, should one or another scholar of America come to our colleges (as to-day already Hollanders, Swedes, Swiss, Austrians, have come)—in God's name! we will rejoice that America has got so far as to produce scholars in excess of her demand whom we in Germany can use! At all events, this sort of competition is of the pleasantest and most peaceful kind. It is no menace to us, like the alleged "American peril" of steel-manufacture and locomotive-building.

LIMITATIONS OF THE MODERN DRAMA.

THE celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of Schiller's death gives occasion to Konrad Falke, writing in the *Deutsche Monatschrift*, to draw a comparison between the modern drama and that of the great poet's time. The literary movement from whose spell we have not yet emerged had its origin in the eighties. It was a new period of "Storm and Stress," and the moderns were but too anxious to claim kindred with the fiery youth of more than a hundred years ago who started a similar current, the outcome of which was the German classics. But the two periods differ, not only in that the modern classic is rather slow in making its appearance, but also in that the genesis of the two streams is diametrically different. The realism for which the moderns strive differs radically from the realism of their predecessors.

The struggle of the earlier time arose from the elemental craving for freedom, for a vent to the superabundance of strength and individuality,—it is a cry of the heart. The moderns, on the contrary, seek to gain strength and individuality,—it is a hunger of the intellect. Realism, as conceived in the newer time, is objective, takes for its themes the present, the near-by, the every-day, with all its distracting details. To take a particular piece of matter and reproduce it with photographic fidelity,—that is the false conception of the

realism of to-day; to take a typical case, which will answer for all time, to idealize it, intensify its meaning by abstracting insignificant details which tend merely to belittle and confuse,—that is the true realism for which the drama should strive, and which survives.

There is bound to be a dissonance between the picture which the dramatist should portray and that which is presented to him by the actual world. The great poets of all time, therefore, have always created a world of their own, choosing their heroes from epochs when the elementary forces were predominant, or could still break through cultural restraint.

The drama is the image of life, but the animating principle of life is conflict, and conflict requires power in order to culminate in success. Since the conflict itself is a pleasure to the strong, so is the sight of a conflict carried on by forceful combatants a pleasure. In the heightening of the consciousness of our strength by a sympathetic live participation, and its simultaneous suppression,—since we are but spectators and not actors,—therein lies the secret of the specific effect of the drama, suspense.

In modern life, spontaneous manifestations of will are thrust back as aimless, and that which constitutes interest in a modern is not what he does, but what he suffers. The modern, therefore, soon became a specialized r

The table given below shows how the tides vary along the coast.

	Springs. Rise in feet.	Neaps. Rise in feet.
London docks.....	20 $\frac{1}{4}$	17 $\frac{1}{4}$
Yarmouth.....	6	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tyne River entrances.....	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Glasgow.....	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{1}{4}$
Portland Bill.....	9	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
Brighton.....	19 $\frac{1}{4}$	16
Portsmouth.....	42	33
Newport.....	38	29

In order to utilize this variation of height between high and low tide, a considerable area of tidal water must be inclosed. In order to minimize expense, the natural configuration of the coast must be taken into consideration. Mr. Saunders describes schemes for using the tides at Chichester Harbor, in Menai Straits, and in the Bristol Channel. The first provides for an average of 8,000 horse-power per day. Reckoning the value of an electric horse-power at £45 (\$225) per annum, this would give an annual income of £36,000 (\$180,000), which would justify a capital expenditure of £300,000 (\$1,500,000). The Menai Straits scheme would yield 15,500 electric horse-power a day valued at £65,250 (\$326,250). This would justify a capital expenditure of £543,750 (\$2,718,750), just about

the amount that would be required by the scheme. The last scheme, that of the Bristol Channel, is the most ambitious of all. The proposal is to dam up the mouth of the Severn. Owing to the enormous tidal rise in the channel, the daily energy generated would be 260,000 electric horse-power, worth £1,170,000 (\$5,850,000), and justifying a capital outlay of the huge amount of £9,750,000 (\$48,750,000). The total cost of the scheme would be £200,000 (\$1,000,000) less than this.

A description of one scheme will suffice to show the general idea. Chichester Harbor is 7,380 acres in area, the entrance being less than a mile in extent. The proposal is to build a huge dam across the mouth, and also to divide the harbor in two, the configuration lending itself easily thereto. The Chichester side would be the high-water basin, the Hayling side the low-water basin. The rising tide fills the high basin full. The top third of this is emptied through the turbines into the low-water basin, which it fills up to one-third of the height of the tide. This in turn is emptied out to sea at low water. By this means a constant power is obtained, although at first sight it appears to be a waste not using the incoming and outflowing water. A dam would also be built at Langston to stop the flow from Langston Harbor.

WALKING AS A MEANS OF EDUCATION.

IT is quite unusual, in these degenerate days, to find pedestrianism advocated anywhere. In *Longman's Magazine* (London) for September, the Rev. A. N. Cooper, known in England as "The Walking Parson," is loud in his praises of the educational advantages of walking, and it must be admitted that he makes out an excellent case for himself, and that his paper is full of useful hints to pedestrians. When Mr. Cooper speaks of a walk he means a walk to Paris, Hamburg, Copenhagen, or even Rome or Budapest. The educational possibilities of walking, he says, have never been adequately set forth, "possibly from the dearth of walkers." Is there such a dearth?

every country in Europe are Cooper, except those of Russia, Sweden. He has walked north to south, and nearly rough much of Germany, to say nothing of Spain, Denmark, Belgium, and is specially valuable, as it those of limited means,

"as limited as the means of servants and mechanics . . . that large class of young men who are anxious to improve themselves and do not quite see how to set about it." The cost of a walking tour, Mr. Cooper says, is so low that many people will hardly believe it when stated.

The educational advantages of walking he considers to be: First, learning geography in the most practical way, and also much about national habits and characteristics, and the reasons for them; second, learning at first hand the true character of the peoples of the earth; acquisition of foreign languages, Mr. Cooper rightly insisting on the fact that the moment you are off a very beaten track you must speak the language of the country; fourth, rubbing off angles; and fifth, lastly, and principally, laying in a store of health for the year's work to come.

Mr. Cooper's paper is very interesting and sensible. "The wanderings of a man with his eyes open," he says, "will greatly modify his ideas as to national shortcomings."

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LIFE ON VESUVIUS.

THE unique experiences of Director Matteucci, of the Royal Observatory on the crater of Vesuvius, are presented for the first time, it is said, in the October *Cosmopolitan*. This observatory was built more than sixty years ago, on the little hill of San Salvatore, at the foot of the great cone. The building contains laboratories, offices, and living-rooms for the director, who is a member of the faculty of the University of Naples. In April, 1872, during one of the most awful eruptions of which any record exists, the observatory was bombarded with red-hot stones from the crater. All the windows were broken, and the building was set on fire, besides being surrounded by torrents of hot lava.

Professor Matteucci relates several instances showing the tremendous risks involved in this method of studying the volcano and its moods through continuous and intimate contact.

The tale of death of my mountain would fill a whole number of this magazine. On the wall at the entrance to the observatory are placed a couple of tablets commemorating the death of tourists and guides alike who were overwhelmed in the awful eruption of 1872. There were many days during the years 1895-99 when I thought

the observatory positively doomed to destruction, after all its years of service. A secondary crater opened up hideously, vomiting fire and ashes, lava streams and rocks, between the observatory and the foot of the cone, filling up the Piano delle Ginestre. I waited and waited, reluctant to leave while my senses were with me; and at last, to my unspeakable relief (I feared for my beloved collections rather than for myself), the great rivers of lava heaped themselves up into a hill of considerable height, which formed a kind of bulwark for the eminence of San Salvatore on which my house is built.

During the exceptionally violent eruption of 1900, Professor Matteucci was high up on the great cone of Vesuvius, not far from the crater's edge, taking photographs of the different phases of the eruption.

The energy of the explosions was increasing enormously; and aware that a still greater outbreak was preparing and there was not a moment to lose, I ran away from the edge of the abyss, calling loudly to my assistants, who followed me at once, knowing that the conditions foreboded a possible catastrophe. We could not run very fast, however, because the cone was covered with immense quantities of loose stone that had been ejected during the past few days; and then, moreover, we had to be constantly looking back to watch



PROFESSOR MATTEUCCI STANDING BY A THIRTY-TON MASS OF ROCK WHICH FELL FROM THE HEIGHT OF A MILE AND A HALF AND NARROWLY MISSED HIM.

the action of the great volcano, even though thereby we should court a fate worse than that of Lot's wife.

I remember we fled westward, toward the Plain of the Fumaroli, or smoke-vents. We were hardly sixty feet away from the edge of the great crater, however, when a truly fearful explosion took place. At that moment I had no other thought than that of my scientific work, and so I stopped and turned eagerly toward the stupendous column of smoke that rose into the sky. My assistant and our guides were farther off.

Instantly I found myself in the midst of a shower of hurtling stones. How I avoided them I cannot say. They whistled and screamed like projectiles in battle. I did my best to avoid the larger rock masses, which always fall first. I bent as low as possible, with arms and hands trying to save my head. My camera was smashed to pieces, and while stooping to regain its lens I lost my balance and fell into a mass of scalding-hot ashes. I believed myself lost, but a second or two later realized that the fatal moment had passed.

I rose in great pain, gathered up the pieces of my camera, for it contained some very valuable films; and then, profiting by a quiet interval, I crawled down the mountain, imperatively ordering my companions to leave everything and come with me. In our flight we lost many fine examples of bombs and scoræ covered with a glittering metallic glaze.

On reaching the foot of the cone, I did not at first realize that I was hurt. I was most grateful to have escaped death. The guides, however, pointed out that my chin, and, indeed, all my face, was covered with wounds and bruises. My clothes were scorched and my hands and arms bleeding from many wounds. Later on I found that I was very badly bruised about the body; my left foot was very badly hurt, and, last and worst of all, my right knee had been struck by an enormous bomb in its rebound.

I may say that the molten or red-hot stone masses ejected from the crater are of many different sizes and weights, and ascend to many different heights, according to the force of the explosion driving them. I find that the first to be ejected are the solid masses at the bottom of the crater. Those bombs, which, by the rotary movement imparted to them, rise to the greatest height,—sometimes a matter of miles,—are much denser and heavier than the scoræ, and consequently fall sooner. Afterward come the smaller fragments and the lipilli. The impalpable powder and sand are caught up in the great whirls and globes of smoke, and are carried into still more elevated regions of the upper air, when they are transported by wind enormous distances.

My every-day work consists of observing dynamic and meteorological phenomena; noting carefully the movements and aspects of the volcano, and classifying and rearranging all the existing and newly gathered materials.

I rise with or before the sun, and do my own cooking. Naturally, this is not elaborate, frequently consisting of bread and cheese, or a dish of macaroni, which requires very little "cooking" indeed. How can I, when my beloved volcano is in eruption, and I should be counting the number of explosions per minute, occupy my mind with thoughts of mere food? Every day I calculate the total number of explosions, examine and collect the matter ejected, and take photographs at very close range.

Sometimes in the dead of the night, or at dawn, my guides take out my laboratory tent and pitch it on the very verge of the crater, or on the side of the cone. During the last and present year, Vesuvius has been in what I call a "Stromboli" phase,—that is to say, eruptions of projectiles only, without the issue of liquid lava. This activity has kept me on the alert for many months.

EXTRACTING GOLD FROM SEA WATER.

ABOUT forty years have passed since the first authoritative announcement of the presence of small quantities of gold in sea water. Repeated examinations by competent analysts have shown clearly that, while special conditions have resulted in an apparently complete disappearance of this metal and its salts from the surface waters off the coasts of the continents discharging large rivers into the sea, nevertheless the water of mid-ocean and that far removed from the mouths of large rivers contain gold and gold compounds in quantities varying from one-half to one grain (32–64 milligrams) per ton of water. The value of the gold contained in a ton of sea water would thus be from two to four cents. Can a process be devised which would render its extraction profitable?

Professor de Wilde discusses this question in a recent number of the *Archives des Sciences Physiques et Naturelles* (Geneva). He begins his paper by discussing the origin of the gold of the sea,—the wearing away of the gold-bearing rock

of the mountains by the action of the elements, of glaciers, etc., and the transportation of the pulverized material by streams to the sea. This form of natural hydraulic mining has been in progress for ages. As is well known, a considerable proportion of the gold obtained from the Transvaal mines exists in so fine a state of division that it will remain, when stirred with water, in a state of suspension for days, even for weeks. It is easy to see how, therefore, in the troubled waters of the ocean notable quantities of this "floating gold" may be carried in suspension for long periods. It is not unlikely that much of it passes into a soluble form, as is well known in the case of the silver found in sea water and sea plants; ultimately, especially in those parts of the ocean where rivers discharge great quantities of finely divided organic matter into the sea, it assumes a denser form and settles to the bottom.

After discussing at considerable length the methods employed by the several investigators

to ascertain the presence and amount of the gold contained in various samples of sea water, in rock salt and other saline deposits, in sea plants, in oyster-shells, etc., Professor de Wilde points out that these methods, though serving well for the purpose for which they were devised, would be of no value for the actual commercial extraction of the precious metal, because of their excessive cost. If Professor Liversidge's calculations are correct, the water of the oceans contains over one hundred billion tons of gold, of a value of seven billions of billions of dollars! Yet, enormous as this quantity is, we must remember that it is distributed through about four hundred million cubic miles of water, and the value of the share of each ton of sea water is reduced by such subdivision to the modest amount of from two to four cents!

ECONOMIES OF PROCESS.

Assuming with M. de Foville, at one time director of the Paris mint, that all the gold ever mined would not bulk more than about twenty-one thousand tons, a wonderful opportunity is here given the statistician to calculate the result of the discovery of a really economical method for the extraction of the ocean's hoarded treasure!

Passing now to the consideration of the several patented processes (including his own) which have been devised for this purpose, Professor de Wilde admits at once that no gold-bearing rock could be mined and extracted at a cost anywhere near four cents per ton. But with ocean water the problem presents entirely other features. The economical operation of pumps; the possible employment of the power to be derived from tides; the automatic or semi-automatic transference of large masses of water by taking advantage of tidal movements; the comparatively small cost of land at suitable

points on the coast; the automatic maintenance of the supply of fresh sea water by the ocean currents,—these and many similar considerations are passed in review.

The chemical operations involved are quite simple. In de Wilde's method a dilute acid solution of stannous chloride ("tin salt") is mixed with the sea water, the gold present being thus converted into the well-known "Purple of Cassius." Addition of milk-of-lime then causes the formation of a precipitate of magnesium hydroxide (at the expense of the magnesium chloride in the sea water), which settles quickly, carrying down all the "Purple of Cassius" with it. The supernatant water is run off, and fresh quantities of sea water are stirred with the precipitate until the latter has become deep brown in color, indicating saturation. Treatment of the deposit with a very dilute solution of alkali cyanide dissolves every trace of the gold and leaves it pure white again, ready for further use. From the cyanide solution the gold can be extracted by any one of several common methods; de Wilde prefers precipitation with copper chloride. The resulting mixture of copper and gold cyanides is heated in the air and washed with acid; the gold remains in the metallic form. There is practically no loss.

Within a year a company has been organized in England for the commercial extraction of gold from sea water. Sir William Ramsay is reported to have been retained as consulting chemist. The extraction method to be employed is kept secret, but the probability is that one has been devised which is sufficiently economical to give satisfactory returns. Professor de Wilde closes his paper with the statement that the presence of gold to the value of not less than two cents per ton of sea water can, in his opinion, make its extraction profitable.

THE VIRTUES OF SEA WATER.

EXPERIMENTS made in France have convinced the doctors of the efficacy of sea water in the treatment of various diseases. Sea water taken internally is a tonic. Rabateau, who tried the effect of the water in bread, declared that his appetite and his strength increased. Other experimenters declare that from 150 to 200 grams of sea water act as a very excellent purgative. Other doctors claim that they have made cures of several dissimilar diseases. An interesting summary of these efforts is given by Henri de Parville in the *Annales*. The water of the sea is a solution of complex

composition. In Norway and Sweden the natives use it when they have no saline mineral water. Dr. Fédor, who used it internally ten years, gasified it with carbonic acid to rid it of its impurities and to counteract its bitterness. Thus prepared, it can be taken as drink by invalids. Fédor used it with success in treating chronic gastric catarrh and diabetes, and in child's dyspepsia, and in every case the water revived the appetite and the strength. Szego and Kurr say that it (the water of the sea) regulates the bodily functions, ameliorates the general condition of persons suffering from gas-

tric trouble, and acts directly upon the nutrition. Dr. Kurr states that he has nearly cured a case of chronic bronchitis, with emphysema, by administering large doses of sea water. Quinton says: "The vital center which is the seat of life, the center in which men and animals live, is of marine origin." The theory follows:

Man is a marine animal by descent (like all animals). Now, in order to render to the human organism its primitive environment, which a long line of descent has modified, it is feasible to place it (the organism) in sea water, or its original environment. It is easy enough to admit that if infection is really the point of departure of mental maladies, it (infection) may be combated by marine serum, because using that means makes it possible to wash out the toxins which clog and destroy the central brain-cells as rust, if allowed to rest upon the steel, clogs and ruins machinery, and that it may be possible to renew the strength of the brain-cells by placing them in sea water.

At the office of the Society of Biology, Dr. Marès and Dr. Pelletrier have of late tried the application of marine serum in the cases of lunatics, and the effect has been excellent.

Insanity is now recognized as a disease, due to the fact that the brain is infected by microbes (or toxins), just as the lungs are infected by Koch's bacilli. Doctors are beginning to admit infection as the cause of melancholy, precocious dementia, and paralysis, and chronic delirium is probably more or less due to cerebral infection. Acting on that theory, the two doctors of the Society of Biology who have administered

marine serum have noted that the general improvement was marked. Patients have gained strength and weight from the beginning of the treatment. A note from Robert Simon and René Quinton has been forwarded to the corresponding academies of France on the treatment of tuberculosis by sea water. Out of eighteen cases there were only three failures. Injections of sea water augmented sleep and strength and diminished the cough, expectoration, and night sweats, and the stethoscopic symptoms were very favorably modified. In some cases the increase in weight was remarkable (38 grams, 42 grams, 55 grams per day). The medium length of treatment was in all cases sixty days. It is to be noted that the treatment was made in Paris, and in some cases while the patients carried on their daily work.

It must be understood, however, that the action of the sea water is not divine. Therefore, its power cannot be made manifest when the original elements have been destroyed. Sea water is not the creator of human life, and therefore diseased brains and diseased bodies may be recuperated by the water of the sea, but not re-created if dead. One of the best results, noted in cases of dementia, is the rapid functional restoration of the digestive organs. The general nutrition receives a spur, the appetite revives. (The victims of melancholy eat very little; they do not eat until forced to eat, because the liver is inactive.) In cases of palsy, also, it has been stated that the effect of sea water is excellent.

THE FOOD VALUE OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF BREAD.

MANY are the kinds of bread, and each has its sincere advocates. The man in the street is filled with wonder at the diverse opinions put forward by hygienists, and well he may be; yet the explanation is fairly simple. It is all very well to conduct careful analyses of the various forms of bread offered for sale in the shops and on the basis of these figures to decide for us which we are to eat. Yet it is easy to see that the mere fact that such-and-such a variety contains more phosphoric acid, for example, does not by any means prove that from it the system obtains a larger quantity of this valuable substance than from another variety which gives a lower result upon analysis. The digestive organs are fearfully and wonderfully made, and they often decline to make use of material furnished them by a well-disposed caterer. It is therefore necessary, not only to know what our bread contains, but also how its

constituents are assimilated, before we can really judge of its food value.

In a recent issue of the *Comptes Rendus*, M. Pierre Fauvel describes a series of experiments conducted upon himself for the purpose of deciding, if possible, the vexed question of the relative values of white and whole wheat breads. He begins by referring to the fault found by hygienists with white bread because of its small content of gluten and phosphoric acid, and the consequent advocacy of the use of various flours from which the bran has not been removed. The experiments of M. Girard,—from which their author concluded that "the hull must be rejected as possessing but insignificant food value,"—are not by M. Fauvel considered satisfactory. The bran used had been washed and deprived of its soluble constituents; it had not been previously ground or masticated; the experimenter made use of a diet quite different

from his ordinary one during the experiments, and hence the digestive fluids were probably not in their normal condition.

M. Fauvel has been a vegetarian for years; he prepared for the tests by confining himself for months to a diet practically identical with that to be used during the experimental period. This period lasted three weeks; on corresponding days of the several weeks exactly the same food in the same amount was eaten, except that the bread used in the first week was a fine quality of white, in the second week whole wheat (Kneipp bread), and in the third a very brown army bread. Each day, four hundred grams (about fourteen ounces) of bread was eaten. A careful study was made of the effects produced, by means of urinary analyses.

The whole wheat bread contained the entire grain, and also a little rye. Analyses of the various breads showed the percentages of phosphoric acid (anhydride) and nitrogen to be, respectively:

White bread.....	0.175	1.08
Whole wheat bread.....	0.582	1.23
Army bread.....	0.264	1.28

It is not worth while to give in detail the results of the urinary analyses; the following

points will be of interest: Although the whole wheat bread contains between three and four times as much phosphoric acid as the white, the amount assimilated was apparently less than a fourth greater. Army bread, containing half again as much of this ingredient as the white, showed nearly as great an amount assimilated as the whole wheat, and about a fifth more than the white.

Study of the figures shows that the production of urea is most marked in the case of the army bread and least in that of the whole wheat, in spite of the fact that the white is poorest in nitrogen. M. Fauvel attributes this result to the peristalsis of the intestine brought about by the bran in the whole wheat flour, a noteworthy loss in weight being one of the symptoms. The ratio of uric acid to urea, and that of xanthuric compounds to urea, were both highest in the case of the whole wheat bread, and both lowest in that of the army bread. Summing up, M. Fauvel finds that whole wheat bread possesses few, if any, advantages as compared with white, and is distinctly inferior in food value to the brown army bread. Whether the same conclusion would be drawn from experiments upon other persons remains, of course, undecided.

THE AMERICAN DISEASE.

NEURASTHENIA is often referred to as the American disease. Under this heading, Dr. William B. Pritchard treats of it in a recent issue of the *Dominion Medical Monthly*. As the author conceives it, neurasthenia is an American disease, indigenous to this soil and essentially a product of causative conditions peculiar to this country. That it now exists elsewhere, and probably always did, in a sporadic form, he does not doubt, but this is its home, this its soil, this the atmosphere in which it luxuriates.

Dr. Pritchard contends that neurasthenia never occurs in a fool; "neurasthenia may make a fool," he says, "but you cannot make a fool a neurasthenic. It is a disease of bright intellects—its victims are leaders and masters of men, each one a captain of industry. The political history of the world has been made largely by paranoiacs. Mohammed, Peter the Hermit, and Oliver Cromwell are examples in point, to go back no further. In each there was an imperative and impelling monomania. The world of literature, of art and of science, of fruitful endeavor in all higher fields, is indebted in an analogous degree to the neurasthenic analogously endowed

with an imperative and an impelling energy. Dr. Gould's list includes such names as Carlyle, Wagner, Huxley, Spencer, and many others."

Of fifty cases of neurasthenia reported by the author at the annual meeting of the Ontario Medical Association, in June, at which this paper was read, forty-two were American-born, the average age being thirty-seven. The oldest patient was sixty-two, and the youngest twenty-six. Without a single exception, all were brain workers. Sixteen of these fifty had been makers of history in different spheres, some large, some small; mercantile, literary, religious, scientific, political, or economic. Two of the number were among the hundred captains of industry assembled in a list made to commemorate a national function celebrated a few years ago. By occupation, 13 were financiers, 6 lawyers, 3 clergymen, 2 merchants, 5 physicians, 5 brokers, 4 schoolteachers. Of the remaining twelve, 2 were professional politicians, 2 corporation officials, and 4 managers of large industrial plants. Four of the fifty were men of independent self-acquired means, who described themselves as having no occupation at the time of record. They have been included in the groups men-

tioned according to previous occupation. Four of this series were women,—1 a journalist, 1 an actress, and 2 of them teachers. Fourteen of the fifty were unmarried, their age average being relatively high,—namely, forty-four. The four females were all childless, though two of them were married.

We are informed by the author that it is the man of detail, the man great in everything except the qualities which make the general, who becomes the neurasthenic. It is the crime of attending to minutiae which makes the nervous derelict. "The general," says the author, "is never a neurasthenic. It is the one flaw in the statue of true greatness. That quality, the highest, which helps us to select our lieutenants, is always lacking. The neurasthenic is the archetype of the pooh-bah. He is not only general, but also colonel, major, captain, and private. The penalty is inevitable. No man can do the work of four along higher lines without paying for it."

Fortunately, Dr. Pritchard holds that neurasthenia is essentially a recoverable affection. In

the majority of cases the recovery is complete and final. Moreover, the victim pays the whole penalty,—the disease is free from the law of entail. The high average standard of good health and nervous poise in the children of neurasthenic fathers has, in fact, been frequently noted.

The doctor does not believe that any individual case of neurasthenia ever originated in a single cause. "The list of stereotyped and empirically accepted causes," says he, "is a long one, and undergoes a progressive expansion from year to year. Overwork, worry, prolonged mental tension and anxiety, malnutrition from deprivation of food, sleep, and rest, toxemia of autogenous and heterogeneous sources, shock, trauma, reflex irritation, and as many more are on the list."

In conclusion, the author gives an outline of treatment consisting mainly of the application of galvanic electricity, rational exercise, and sufficient rest. Sleep must be secured and maintained, elimination regulated, and complicating accidents combated. Drugs are manifestly of secondary importance.

THE ELIMINATION OF THE MOSQUITO.

THE unanimity with which the medical world has fixed the responsibility for malaria and yellow fever upon certain varieties of an insect that has made New Jersey famous renders every contribution to the literature on the subject of interest to the general public, particularly when it demonstrates by what means the possibility of infection may be removed. Under the title given in the heading of this *resumé*, Dr. Alvah H. Doty has a very interesting article in a recent issue of the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, in which he arrives at the following conclusions: First, that mosquitoes do not propagate without water, and, as a rule, the more offensive the water, the greater the propagation. Mosquitoes breed in cisterns, rain-water barrels, and cess-pools in enormous number; other receptacles about the premises, no matter how small or where they are situated, may also serve as breeding-places. It is about our own homes, therefore, that the examination should first be made to ascertain where the propagation of this insect is carried on. Second, the life of the mosquito is not confined to a few days, but under various circumstances may extend over a period of weeks or months. Third, the first crop of mosquitoes which appears in the early summer, particularly in inland towns, is principally due to the deposit of eggs which have

hibernated during the winter months. Fourth, although there is conclusive evidence that mosquitoes are sometimes carried long distances from home, they do not willingly go far from their breeding-places, and it may be assumed that if a section is infested with mosquitoes breeding-places exist in the immediate vicinity.

Efforts to prevent the propagation of the mosquito consist in abolishing or removing receptacles which contain water. This applies to both large and small ground depressions, swamps, etc., and to portable and stationary receptacles about buildings. The scientific, practical, and radical method of removing water in ground depressions is by drainage or filling in, and the use of petroleum oil in these instances cannot be regarded as a substitute for this purpose, and should only be adopted as a temporary measure. In mosquito-infested districts our first action should be to remove, so far as possible, from dwelling-houses and other buildings all sorts of metal, glass, and wooden receptacles for water. Cisterns and rain-water barrels should be supplied with tight-fitting covers; by having the center of these covers constructed of wire netting, sufficient air is admitted. Roof leaders should be kept properly graded; otherwise parts of them may act as breeding-places for the mosquito. If ground depressions either about the premises or in the neighborhood can-

not be drained or filled in, petroleum oil may be used as a temporary measure. The crude petroleum is probably superior to the refined oil, and should be used in the proportion of one pint of oil to a water surface of about twenty feet in diameter,—even a less amount of oil may be effective. This procedure should be repeated every two weeks. The method by which the oil destroys the larvæ or wigglers is probably not by a toxic effect, but by a mechanical one. The larvæ must come to the surface of the water for air at least every two minutes.

In treating large bodies of water with petroleum, the ordinary garden sprinkling-pot is a good and practical method of distributing it. Experiments made with permanganate of potassium, bichloride of mercury, sulphate of copper, carbolic acid, etc., have shown that these agents are greatly inferior to petroleum for this purpose. Their action is slow, and the mosquito larvæ live in comparatively strong solutions. For instance, larvæ have remained active from one to three days in a 1-1500 solution of bichloride of mercury. Even comparatively strong solutions of carbolic acid or permanganate of potassium do not destroy them for some time. In some very exhaustive experiments made with sulphate of copper and lime for the destruction of mosquito larvæ the author found that these agents did not destroy the mosquito by a toxic effect, but slowly by clarifying the water and precipitating the organic matter which it contained, thereby removing the nourishment from the larvæ. Furthermore, it must be remembered that pools of water throughout the country may be used for drinking purposes, particularly by animals, and that the use of such agents as bichloride of mercury, carbolic acid, etc., are, therefore, unsafe. On the other hand, the petroleum oil is cheap, practically harmless, and destroys the larvæ at once, and, so far as we know at the present time, is superior to anything else for this purpose, provided proper drainage or filling in cannot be effected.

In the current issue of the *Texas Medical News*, Dr. D. Munroe devotes considerable attention to "The Mosquito as an Etiological Factor in Disease." The doctor is located in a section of Texas where malaria is common and yellow fever not unknown. At the close of his article he says :

It is no longer a debatable question, but a demonstrated certainty, that malaria, in all its varied forms, is transmitted to man solely by the bite of a certain species of mosquito found in the so-called malarial localities, while it is also a proven fact that a tropical member of the mosquito family inoculates the human race with the yellow-fever germs. Therefore, the mos-



SPRAYING OIL ON A PESTILENT NOOK.

(Such small, insignificant spots may breed thousands of mosquitoes if they contain standing water.)

quito is no longer a pest to be endured, but is a serious menace to health at all times, and for that reason should be exterminated. To do this necessitates our studying the life and habits of the different species of mosquitoes found in our own Southern country.

Both the malarial and yellow-fever mosquitoes breed and live near or in the house, and do not wander over six hundred yards from their breeding-place. The female lays her eggs in still, fresh water, and they hatch out in two or three days into an air-breathing wiggler, and during the five days in which they remain in this stage they are compelled to come to the surface of this water every few moments to get air to breathe, and at the expiration of this time they develop into the characteristic winged mosquito and fly about the premises, hunting whom they may bite and annoy and inoculate.

But if each householder will see to it that every receptacle holding water on or near the premises is emptied, drained, oiled, or securely screened, and attend to this duty every week during the warm weather, he will raise no mosquitoes on his premises to annoy and infect himself and family, nor that of his neighbor.

To free his house of all mosquitoes, each room should be securely closed by stopping all crevices and cracks and making therein a smudge of either sulphur, tobacco, or powdered pyrethrum, or even formaldehyde, and keeping the room thus closed for three hours, at which time all the mosquitoes in the room will be dead.

THE BIOLOGICAL SANCTIONS OF MARRIAGE.

A VALUABLE and much-needed paper on the evolutionary ethics of marriage and divorce is supplied by Dr. Woods Hutchinson in the *Contemporary Review* (London) for September. He states his theses at the outset, thus :

1. That marriage is essentially neither a religious nor a civil institution, but a purely biologic one.
2. That marriage consists in the union of the sexes for such a term, and under such conditions, as will result in the production of the maximum number of offspring capable of surviving, in each particular species, climate, and grade of civilization.
3. That marriage is therefore to be regarded neither from the point of view of the male nor from that of the female, but solely from that of the race.
4. The duration of marriage is usually determined by the length of time during which the offspring require the care and protection of both parents in order to properly equip them for the struggle of life.
5. Monogamous marriage, lasting for life, is the highest type as yet evolved, and has survived all other forms and become that adopted by every dominant race, on account of its resulting in the largest number of most efficient offspring.

THE HIGHER ANIMALS MOSTLY MONOGAMOUS.

The writer laments that anthropologists and sociologists have overlooked the evolutionary trend toward monogamy in the higher grades of animal life approximate to man. Primitive man did not, as is too often assumed, begin his married life without ages of ancestral experience to guide him. The writer says :

Important as is the part played by polygamy in the development of the animal world, it was never practised by any of the species which are generally believed to have come into the line of descent of man and to form a portion of the stem of his family tree. To trace his experimental pedigree rapidly backward, the anthropoid apes are monogamous to a high degree, probably for life; the higher monkeys are also monogamous, also the lemurs, but the relation is of less duration; the insectivora, although occasionally approaching to promiscuity, were never polygamous; the same is true of our rodent-like marsupial ancestors.

SAVAGES MOSTLY MONOGAMOUS.

This is found to be the case with almost all pure savages. The idea of a primitive promiscuity has been dispelled by the dry light of fact. "It would be safe to say that among savages fully 95 per cent. of all unions are monogamic, and 70 per cent. of these are for life." This is due to the care that must be taken of the children. Far from unlimited license, there is a "well-nigh indecipherable network of restrictions which hedge about the marriage of the savage." Marriage, then, among savages, appears in the form of loose monogamy, lasting at

least during the period of child-bearing, and in the majority of cases for life, since after the wife has ceased to be sexually attractive she is valued as a worker.

Polygamy, like slavery, comes in as a sign and effect of prosperity, but it is either abandoned or it destroys the race that practises it. Dr. Hutchinson makes a strong point when he says :

It may be only a coincidence, but it is true that certain races which have been addicted to neither slavery nor polygamy, like our own Teutonic stocks, are in the van of the world's progress.

THE VERDICT ON HUMAN MONOGAMY.

Having thus cleared the ground, the writer asks what attitude toward monogamy do the facts of biology warrant? He answers :

One of profoundest respect and confidence. Its sanctions are just as binding upon evolutionary grounds as upon ecclesiastical or legal. Its universal sway to-day over the minds and hearts of men rests not upon the fiat of any petty prince, pope, or godlet, but upon its own inherent superiority over any other form of mating, as sternly proved by the experience of millions of past generations, human and pre-human. The right of one man to choose one woman to love and protect all his life long, of the woman to choose her knight and worshiper, and of both to expect of the other unswerving faithfulness and comradeship until death do them part, is founded upon the life of all the ages.

This sanction, he contends, is both ennobling and altruistic in the highest degree, looking to the welfare, not of the individual, but of the race. "To contract a marriage without giving chief regard to the mental and physical vigor, the sanity and efficiency, of the probable offspring thereof is far more profoundly immoral upon biological grounds than upon religious or legal."

BIOLOGY AND LOVE-MATCHES.

Nor do evolutionary ethics fail to favor the higher romance of marriage.

Biology has little hesitation in declaring that as a guide to the probable racial suitability of a mate we have discovered nothing better yet than the sexual instinct, as ennobled and chastened by myriads of generations of monogamy. In other words, marriages should usually be "for love," and very seldom for any other cause. Within reasonable bounds our mating instincts are as much to be trusted as those we possess for food, for air, for water and sunlight. Love-matches result not only in happier homes, but in healthier, brighter, and more beautiful children than unions upon any other basis. Two nations which show by far the largest percentage of unions of this type, and where marital choice is most absolutely free and uncontrolled, America and England, owe no little of their superiority as world-powers to this fact.

THE WRONG AND THE RIGHT OF DIVORCE.

Passing to questions of divorce, the writer declares that divorce founded on caprice is treason to the organic law of the universe. But where there is epilepsy, insanity, moral perversion, incurable viciousness of temper, habitual drunkenness, criminal conduct of any kind, etc., divorce, he says, should be, not merely obtainable, but obligatory, for the sake of the next generation. Any woman who willingly and knowingly bears a child to a drunken or criminal husband is herself committing a crime against the race. In answer to what he calls the terrified shrieks that

the prospect of easier divorce arouses in ecclesiastical and other circles, the writer says that even in the most "divorceful" communities in America the proportion of divorce to marriages has never reached a higher point than that of about 12 per cent.

If by a single stroke all marriage ties now in existence were struck off or declared illegal, eight-tenths of all couples would be remarried within forty-eight hours, and seven-tenths could not be kept asunder with bayonets. Eighty per cent. of all marriages are a success from a biologic point of view.

This testimony from a biologist is refreshing.

THE BARBER SHOP IN SOCIETY.

AFTER outlining the history of barbers and the limitations of their craft, Dr. Isadore Dyer, professor of skin diseases in the medical department of Tulane University, asserts, in the *New Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal*, that the following facts are well known to every medical man who especially deals with skin diseases:

1. Fully 90 per cent. of baldness owes its origin to the barber shop, directly or indirectly.
2. From 10 to 25 per cent. of the practice of a specialist in skin diseases comes from barber-shop infections and their consequences.
3. The list of skin affections arising from the barber shop includes some of the worst, and among parasitic diseases there are a large number which the usual barber-shop practice may spread.

The author claims that baldness is much more general now than it was a few years back, and that in many cases it is due to infection from the common brush in the barber shop. "The man carries the infection home," says he, "uses the brush of some other member of his family when his is not convenient; or his brush is employed on the children; even his wife may find his brush better than hers, and so the story goes. It is quite common for the mother to brush the heads of all the children with a common brush. Once established in the household, the disease remains, and it remains until it is destroyed, for even the loss of the weaker hair does not prevent the nesting of the disease in the other hair on the head.

Dandruff, or seborrheic dermatitis, will develop in seventy-two hours on a healthy scalp. Does this mean anything to the man who is shaved by the barber four or five times a week, and who is brushed with a brush used on dozens of heads before him? For the barber is not particular, and his brush is usually only washed days apart, seldom even once a day.

Dr. Dyer states that fully 20 per cent. of the practice of a dermatologist is derived from the barber shops, the diseases transmitted there, in one way or another, being syphilis, ringworm, ordinary pus infections of the face and the neck, "Indian fire" (*Impetigo contagiosa*), lice, lupus, herpes, etc. In view of the above, the doctor contends that the barber shop in modern society is a menace so long as the conditions which govern its management are allowed to exist. "Many shops strive toward cleanliness," is the way he puts it, "because their customers have demanded it; but all shops are dirty, some worse than others."

A crusade has been started against the evils of the barber shops, and in some countries legislative action has followed. In a recent paper in the *British Medical Journal*, Collingridge reviews the status of the question at the time of his writing. There are no regulations in the British colonies. In Germany, four cities, Hamburg, Anhalt, Waldeck, and Dantzic, have restrictions. Lausanne, Vevey, and Rolle, in Switzerland, have laws; Sweden, Turkey, Japan, Bolivia, Salvador, and Uruguay, also. These are named by Dr. Collingridge, who also mentions New York as the only State where the licensed barber must conform to regulations. While Vienna began to legislate rules for barber shops some years back, her action has been followed rather generally in other European countries. In most places regulations are directed at cleanliness, antisepsis, and prevention, and infringement is punishable by fine, sometimes heavy. In Switzerland, barbers with hair or skin diseases are not allowed to carry on their calling.

In 1899, Sweden legislated regarding the prevention of skin diseases transmitted by shaving. In 1901, in Constantinople, regulations were

promulgated regarding cleanliness in the barber shops. Even Guatemala has taken some action aimed at regulating the barber-shop evils. Collingridge considers the present state of things

in London discreditable to a civilized nation, and yet the London barber shops of the better class are far cleaner than those of the same class in the United States.

"RADIOBES" AND THE ORIGIN OF LIFE.

EXPERIMENTS by which, through the action of radium on sterilized bouillon, "radiobes" have been developed continue to be the subject of comment in the English journals. In the *Fortnightly Review* for September, Mr. J. Butler Burke, the discoverer of these radiobes, writes on the origin of life. By spontaneous generation, he says, he means the development of what we have a right to think was living from that which we had hitherto a right to think was not. His preface shows that he has scant sympathy with those who are prepared to trace the presence of life back to the atom, or the electron, or the ether. Mr. Burke then describes the experiments which have been blazoned to the world.

WHAT IS THE RADIOBE?

He distinguishes radiobes at once from crystals and from bacteria. He asks, Can they be described as organisms?

He says:

An organism has a structure, a nucleus, and an external boundary or cell-wall, and its vitality may be described as being a continuous process of adjustment between its internal and its external relations.

Of his radiobes he says:

The continuity of structure, assimilation, and growth, and then subdivision, together with the nucleated structure, as shown in a few of the best specimens, suggests that they are entitled to be classed among living things, in the sense in which we use the words, whether we call them bacteria or not.

As they do not possess all the properties of bacteria they are not what are understood by this name, and are obviously altogether outside the beaten track of living things. This, however, will not prevent such bodies from coming under the realm of biology, and, in fact,

they appear to possess many of the qualities and properties which enable them to be placed in the borderland between crystals and bacteria, organisms in the sense in which we have employed the word, and possibly the missing link between the animate and inanimate.

Thus the gap, apparently insuperable, between the organic and the inorganic world, seems, however roughly, to be bridged over by the presence of these radio-organic organisms which, at least, may give a clue as to the beginning and the end of life, "that vital putrefaction of the dust," to which Dr. Saleeby has recently drawn attention.

IS IT A CLUE TO COSMIC LIFE?

Very diffidently he applies his discovery to the vexed questions as to the origin of all life:

Whether the lowliest forms of life,—so simple that the simplest amoeba as we see it to-day would appear a highly complex form,—whether such elementary types have arisen from inorganic matter by such processes as I have described, I know not. May it not be, however, and does it not seem probable, in the light of these experiments, that the recently dis-

covered processes of instability and decay of inorganic matter, resulting from the unexpected source of energy which gives rise to them, are analogous in many ways to the very inappropriately called "vital force," or really vital energy of living matter? For this idea such physiologists as Johannes Müller so devoutly pleaded more than half a century ago. And may they not also be the source of life upon this planet?

With equal modesty he concludes:

It seems quite beyond hope that even if we had the materials and conditions for producing life in the laboratory, we should be able to produce forms of life as developed as even the simplest amoeba, for the one reason, if for no other, that these are the descendants of almost an indefinite series of ancestors. But it is not beyond hope to produce others, more elementary ones, artificially.



J. BUTLER BURKE.



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Contributions to History.—The October numbers of the American monthlies are notable for the number and range of the historical papers that appear in them. Perhaps the most important of these, from the historian's point of view, is the account, in the *Century Magazine*, of the Empress Eugenie's flight from Paris, in September, 1870, written by the late Dr. Thomas W. Evans, the American dentist, who escorted the Empress to England, and who gives in this narrative the first authentic statement of the memorable events connected with the hurried departure of the Empress from Paris to her new home at Chiselhurst, in England. Dr. Edward A. Crane, who was himself one of the party who accompanied the Empress to the coast, writes an introduction to this chapter of unpublished history, while the story of how the Empress crossed the Channel in the yacht *Gazelle* is told by Col. Sir John M. Burgoyne, Bart.—Another paper of no little historical interest in this number of the *Century* is Gen. Horace Porter's account of "The Recovery of the Body of John Paul Jones." There is appended to General Porter's article a translation of the official certification of the participants and witnesses to the identification of the body.—In *McClure's Magazine*, Mr. Charles F. Lummis contributes the first of a series of articles on "Pioneer Transportation in America."—Some contemporary evidence in regard to the effect on the public mind of the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon, in December, 1851, is contained in a letter written by Dr. Edward Stimson to his father, Dr. Jeremy Stimson, and now published for the first time in the October number of *Scribner's*.—In the same magazine, there is another installment of the letters and diaries of George Bancroft, edited by M. A. DeWolf Howe. These letters contain interesting references to the Marquis de Lafayette, Alexander von Humboldt, and other eminent Europeans of the early twenties of the last century.—A bit of modern history, which we venture to say is quite unfamiliar to most Occidentals, is narrated by Adachi Kinnosuke in an article entitled "How We Lost Saghalien Island," contributed to *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*. This article is of peculiar interest, in view of the important part played by Saghalien in the negotiations resulting in the peace of Portsmouth.—In *Harper's* for October, Prof. John Bassett Moore continues his valuable studies of "American Diplomacy: Its Influences and Tendencies."—*Munsey's* for October contains articles on "One Thousand Years of American History," by Cyrus Townsend Brady; "The Centenary of Trafalgar," by Fred T. Jane; "The Czars of Russia from Ivan to Nicholas," by Edgar Saltus; and "The Cradle of the Republic," by President Edwin A. Alderman, the last-named paper being concerned with the historic Hampton Roads, the site of the proposed exposition to commemorate the founding of Jamestown.

Politics and Business.—In *McClure's Magazine*, Miss Ida M. Tarbell describes last winter's campaign in the Kansas Legislature against the Standard Oil Company.—The relations of the Government to the rail-

roads and insurance companies are discussed in the *World's Work* by Rowland Thomas and Senator John F. Dryden, respectively, the latter writer setting forth his scheme for the federal regulation of insurance.—In *Tom Watson's Magazine*, Mr. W. G. Joerns gives the concluding installment of his plea for effective rate legislation.—A clear analysis of "The Promise and Problems of Reciprocity" is contributed to *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine* by Harold Bolce.—In *Munsey's*, Mr. Herbert N. Casson gives a general survey of the wave of reform in American politics, depicting a few of the personalities which have come to the front as political reformers within the past year or two.

Chapters of Biography.—This month's *Century* contains several contributions to literary biography. "A Romance of the Nineteenth Century" is the title given to a paper by Richard Watson Gilder which grew out of an inquiry as to the direct references by Robert and Elizabeth Barrett Browning to each other in their poetry.—In the same magazine, the story of Shelley's "ghost" is told by Margaret L. Croft. This is followed by "Unknown Pictures of Shelley," by N. P. Dunn, accompanied by reproductions of West's portraits of Byron and Shelley, the latter of which is here published for the first time.—In the field of contemporary biography, the contributions are naturally more numerous. At least three of these are devoted to President Roosevelt. The President himself tells, in his own simple, direct fashion, in *Scribner's* for October, the story of one of his Colorado bear hunts last spring; Pastor Charles Wagner, author of "The Simple Life," writes in *McClure's* of his visit to the White House last year; and in *Success* there is an account by Louis Vliereck of a little-known episode in Mr. Roosevelt's life,—his school days in Germany.—Miss Katharine A. Carl, the American artist who painted the portrait of the Empress-Dowager of China which was exhibited at St. Louis, and the only person from the Western world who has been received into the intimacy of the Chinese imperial palaces, gives in the *Century* an account of her life with the Empress, whom she saw daily for a year, being present at all the state and religious functions that took place during her residence in the imperial palaces.—The tendency in American magazines to exploit the men who are "doing things" is well illustrated in the October numbers. We have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" from Mr. Lefèvre's sketch of "Paul Morton,—Human Dynamo," in the *Cosmopolitan*, and Mr. William R. Stewart's description of "The Real John Weaver," in the same magazine, is also worthy of note. "A Day with Thomas F. Ryan" is the title of an interesting though brief article in *Success*. In the *World's Work*, Mr. M. G. Cunniff contributes a sketch of "Jerome: A Man." Mr. George Hebard Paine writes in *Munsey's* on "The New Chief Engineer at Panama," who is also the subject of a sketch by Henry Kitchell Webster in the *American Illustrated*. In the last-named periodical appear sketches of Henry W. Goode, the president

of the Lewis and Clark Exposition, and of Congressman John J. Esch, of Wisconsin.—Artists are represented in an appreciation of Willard L. Metcalf, by Royal Cortissoz, in *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*, in a paper entitled "My Method of Work," contributed by Marcus Stone, R.A., to the *Grand Magazine*, and in Mr. Caffin's "Story of American Painting" (*American Illustrated Magazine*).

Railroad Topics.—Aside from the discussion of railroad rates and their regulation in the *World's Work*, other phases of the transportation problem are treated in several of the October magazines. "Millions for Minutes" is the suggestive title of an article by Leroy Scott in the *American Illustrated* (formerly *Leslie's*), in which are described the costly preparations necessary to enable the high speed of American railroad trains and the magnificent achievements of our locomotive engineers and other responsible officials connected with the operating service. The same subject is treated in *Success* by Samuel Merwin.—Representative John J. Esch, of Wisconsin, contributes to the *American Illustrated* a statement of reasons for the passage of the federal bill for the compulsory in-

stallation of the block system on all railroads. This magazine has published a great number of articles in its recent issues advocating this measure in the interest of public safety.

Travel Notes.—When the United States troops occupied Porto Rico, the natives had but one answer to every question,—"No spika de Englis'." The soldiers, quick to invent nicknames, at once dubbed the Porto Ricans "Spikadees," and since that time the Americans living on the island have made constant use of the word. It is now used adjectively, and Mr. Alden Arthur Knipe, writing in *Appleton's Booklovers* for October on the manners and customs of the people, gives his article the title, "In Spikadee Land."—Dwight L. Elmendorf describes in *Scribner's* certain "Shrines of the Desert," presenting a number of striking photographs taken in the Sahara.—Henry W. Nevins makes some revelations in *Harper's* of the slave trade actually conducted at the present time on the west coast of Africa. The fact that the system goes under the name of "contracted labor" is of little consequence. Practically all of the labor in Angola is performed by men and women who are bought and sold as chattels.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Renan "The Master Sophist of His Age."—Mr. Edward Wright, in the *Fortnightly Review* (London), studies Renan's character as revealed in his letters. He speaks of his irresolution, and describes him as the master sophist of his age. His sentimental infidelity, or piety without faith, rehabilitated in France the spirit of rationalism. He substituted aesthetics for morality, and what attracted him in men of the highest morality was their exquisite refinement of soul. "Indecisive by nature, he made this indecision an artistic quality."

Public Opinion in the Nineteenth Century.—Mr. Harold Spender, writing in the *Contemporary Review* (London), finds in Professor Dicey's new book on law and opinion in England "an illuminating hypothesis marking a new stage in research," his conclusion, namely, that "English public opinion is always ultimately supreme over English law." Mr. Spender then examines the professor's three great periods of opinion in the nineteenth century: "The Period of Old Toryism or Legislative Quiescence (1800-30). The Period of Benthamism or Individualism (1825-70). The Period of Collectivism (1865-1900)." Mr. Spender suggests that the individualistic and collective ideals of the nineteenth century may yet unite in a new and larger conception of human activity, or that these two essential forms of humanity will always vary with the varying history of man.

What Evolution Teaches for the Individual.—Mr. J. Lionel Tayler, writing in the *Westminster Review* (London) on aspects of individual evolution, lays down as a postulate of evolution that healthy life is bound up with individual life-aim and individual realization, and demands as its first law the study of the individual and the preservation of individuality. In every school, workshop, and public hall he would inscribe what he calls Nature's teaching,—namely: "Live out your life in its fullness and in its strength, but live

so that high is high and low is low. Guard your life-ideals above all else that this world holds worthy. Sell not yourself, for this is prostitution. Sell not yourself, and sell not others."

French Foreign Policy.—The principal paper in the September number of the *National Review* (London) is one by M. Jules Delafosse on the foreign policy of France. The writer is a Conservative Deputy, but the purport of his article is a defense of M. Delcassé. He points out that in respect of officially communicating the terms of the Anglo-French agreement Germany was treated on exactly the same footing as other powers. The real root of bitterness was the Kaiser's resentment of a good understanding between England and France, which shattered his dream of a Russo-Franco-German alliance against England. The Moroccan affair was trumped up to jockey France into some such alliance. M. Delafosse, however, insists that "the wound" of Alsace-Lorraine "still bleeds," and points out that German industry threatens French "with triumphant competition." And, he urges, "behind the Germany of today stands the Germany of to-morrow,—the greater Germany of the Pan-Germans," which is to include a population of eighty millions and to be possessed with "a world-wide ambition." Therefore, he is entirely opposed to any thought of coquetting with Germany. He is enamored of a vaster combination than the Kaiser has worked for,—“an Anglo-Franco-Russian alliance, which, in all probability, Italy, and possibly the United States, might be willing to join.” These allies would, he predicts, possess “the mastery of the world;” “disturbance of peace against their wishes in any part of the world would be physically impossible.”

Canada and Mr. Chamberlain.—Mr. John S. Ewart sets forth quite ruthlessly, in the *Monthly Review* (London), Canada's attitude to Mr. Chamberlain's proposals. He lays down at the outset these four proposals: "1. Mr. Chamberlain advocates the establish-

ment of a protective tariff. To this Canada says nothing. 2. Mr. Chamberlain proposes preferential tariffs within the empire. Canada is almost unanimously in favor of such tariffs. 3. Mr. Chamberlain desires commercial union of the empire. Canada does not. 4. Mr. Chamberlain urges political union of the empire. Canada dissents."

An Appeal for the British Sunday.—Lord Avebury calls attention, in the *Nineteenth Century* (London), to the recent increase in Sunday trading, and to the almost unanimous support which the great shopkeepers' associations have extended to his Sunday-closing shops bill. He will not take its defeat in the Peers as final. His conclusion deserves to be pondered: "One day's rest in seven, rest for the body and rest for the mind, has from time immemorial been found of supreme importance from the point of view of health. But rest of the spirit is even more necessary. Philosophers, theologians, and men of business in all ages have agreed that every man ought to be set free on one day in the week to study, to pray, and to think; to examine his own life, his conduct, and his opinions; to lift his mind and thoughts from the labors and cares, from the petty but harassing worries and troubles of every-day life, and of this splendid but complex and mysterious world, and to raise them to the calmer and nobler, the higher and purer, regions of heaven above."

Need France and Germany Be Enemies?—A writer in the *Fortnightly Review* (London), concealing his identity behind three asterisks, endeavors to stir up bad blood between France and Germany by his "reflections on the anniversary of Sedan." He says that the Franco-German relations are truly described by Professor Treitschke as "a latent state of war." He maintains that this latent state of war is likely to continue until France has regained her natural frontier, by which he means the river Rhine, or until she has become a third-class power, a second Belgium. Why the writer should select the present of all times to asseverate that the age-long purpose of France has been to secure the Rhine frontier is left to conjecture. The writer even asserts that from the French point of view the possession of the Rhine is indispensable for the security of the country. He advises France to strengthen her naval forces as soon as possible, if she would not be outstripped by Germany.

The Problem of British Canals.—Mr. George Turnbull, discussing, in the *World's Work and Play* (London), "What Is to Be Done with Our Canals?" says that once English canals were looked upon as the best in the world. Now those of France, Germany, Belgium, and even the United States and Canada, are altogether superior, England standing nowhere in comparison. In England, the railway has killed the canal, chiefly, it seems, because the great companies bought up the canals. "There are in Great Britain about 3,968 miles of canals, of which 1,264 are under railway control, and 415 are derelict or abandoned. Only about 280 miles are capable of admitting boats carrying over 90 tons, about 2,000 miles will accommodate boats carrying 40 to 60 tons, while the remainder is fit only for tiny barges carrying up to 30 tons. On the waterways of the Continent, however, barges of 250 to 500 tons' capacity, and even larger ones, are used—and it takes as many men to look after a small barge as a large one." French

canals are state-owned, those of Germany and Belgium mainly so; but, whereas England has spent next to nothing on hers, they have not spared money on theirs. Mr. Turnbull rehearses the oft-told tale of the expensiveness of England's carriage of goods as compared with that in Germany and France; but concludes that at last the canal question is in a fair way of being tackled, probably first of all by a royal commission. On the whole, he thinks, the general feeling of experts was voiced by a resolution of the Associated Chambers of Commerce—improving and extending the canal system by means of a public trust, if necessary in combination with local or district trusts, and aided by a government guarantee. Mr. J. L. C. Booth follows up Mr. Turnbull's article by a paper describing the condition of the waterways from London to Liverpool, a journey which he did by motor launch.

A Sociological View of Taxation.—Mr. Walter Howgrave, writing in the *Westminster Review* (London), develops a principle which he thus states at the end: "Society, like every less complex organism, must assure itself of a sufficient provision for bodily sustenance to enable all its parts or members to become developed to a high standard of efficiency. This purpose can be accomplished through its government, the regulating organ, only by taxing the surplus energy of the whole body. Each member, being in itself a productive agent, must be fully nourished; to this end the outcome, or revenue, derived from the energy thus taxed must be scientifically distributed by the regulating organ according to the requirements of the separate members. From the sociological point of view, this seems to be the elementary principle that should govern scientific taxation."

Social Effect of Irish Coöperation.—Mr. J. Dorum describes, in the *Westminster Review* (London), the progress of coöperation in Irish agriculture. He says the new rural societies have, apart from their economic success, proved to be a happy field for the mutual understanding and the reconciliation of the different classes of society. A good number of well-selected libraries for the satisfaction of new rural aspirations have come into existence. To a great extent a truce between Protestants and Roman Catholics has been arrived at. The social gatherings taking place in connection with the associations have become a channel for uniting Unionists and Nationalists, landowners and tenants, rich and poor.

Henry George Anticipated Two Hundred and Fifty Years Ago.—Mr. L. H. Berens revives with ostentatious satisfaction, in the *Westminster Review* (London), the teachings of Gerrard Winstanley, a social reformer of the days of the Commonwealth, one of the "levelers," or "diggers." One excerpt from a pamphlet of this early land-nationalizer may be given, which asserts: "That we may work in righteousness, and lay the Foundation of making the Earth a Common Treasury for All, both Rich and Poor, That every one that is born in the Land may be fed by the Earth his Mother that brought him forth, according to the Reason that rules in the Creation. Not inclosing any part into any particular hand, but all as one man working together and feeding together as Sons of one Father, members of one Family; not one lording over another, but all looking upon each other as equals in the Creation."

How England Rules Egypt.—England's remarkable success in the government of Egypt is reviewed in the *Nation* (Berlin) by Mr. M. Philippson. England does not show the haughty air of the French against the conquered Mohammedans, the writer says. "The common man in Egypt, and also the stranger, does not at all perceive that the real power belongs to England, and not to the natives. The sovereign is said to be the Khedive, commonly called Effendia, and all public acts are proclaimed in his name. The seats in the ministerium, the officials, the police, the army, are Egyptian, and the language of legislation and of the administration of the army is Arabic. The great mass of the people ascribe the betterment of the conditions to the viceroy, to whom they are very thankful for it. The English thus renounce the shadow of the power and are satisfied with the real possession of it. It is the English ambassador, Viscount Cromer,—formerly Sir Evelyn Baring,—who holds the reins of the government. He is the real lord of the country. The army is Egyptian, but the higher officers, though placed in the service of the Khedive and carrying his uniform and titles, are English, and do only obey their English Sirdar or general. There are only a few thousand English soldiers garrisoned in Alexandria and Cairo. At the head of the police and fire departments are also Englishmen in Egyptian disguise. Great Britain is content in possessing the gateway to the Indies. The nominal lord of the country, the Khedive, has ruled since 1892, but is really only a dummy of the English. Nevertheless, Effendia seems quite satisfied with his position, and enriches himself on real estate and horse speculations." The impartial observer is indeed compelled to admit that the English rule has accomplished more and produced better results in Egypt than that of any other European power would have done. Instead of ten and one-half million Egyptian pounds (1 Egyptian pound—five dollars) in 1888, the exports amounted, in 1900, to sixteen and three-quarters million pounds. During the same time, the imports increased from seven and three-quarters to fourteen and three-eighths million pounds. The public revenues rose from £8,850,000 in 1882 to £11,663,000 in 1898. The national debts are somewhat lessened, but are still more than one hundred million Egyptian pounds. They constitute no longer any danger to the nation, as the interest has fallen from 8 per cent. to 3½ per cent. The prosperity of the country can also be seen in the fact that the value of real estate has been fourfolded in the course of twenty years. This has brought a fortune to many an enterpriser. Yet the Englishmen themselves have wisely avoided the temptation to enrich themselves on the land, leaving a wide-open door for all nations to come in.

What Will Norway's Future Be?—In the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, Charles Benoist deals with the secession of Norway, and summarizes the story of the struggle. In conclusion, he asks: If Norway fail to find a king, will she institute a republic? And what will be her attitude to Sweden? Will an alliance replace the union, or will rivalry end in hostility? If an alliance be the result, will it include Norway and Sweden only, or will Denmark also be admitted? In the event of an alliance, what will she do with the three kingdoms and the different nationalities? All unions of states, the writer philosophizes, are very difficult to realize. They are often born in blood, they last but a short time, and they end badly. The Austro-

Hungarian monarchy, for instance, is not in a particularly excellent state of health, and the union of Sweden and Norway was so sick that it died. A union in which the sovereignty is equally divided, in which both parties are equally strong, would be, if politics were geometry, the squaring of the circle.

Unity of Origin of Languages.—Alfredo Trombetti, the linguistic genius of humble origin who has been given some attention by the American press, has published a book, "The Unity of Origin of Language," which serves as a sort of introduction to his future great work, "Genealogical Links Among the Languages of the Ancient World," and gives some of his conclusions from one of the most exhaustive comparisons of languages ever made. These are stated in a review of the book in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). His study was first directed to discovering whether or not there were links between the Semitic and Indo-European languages, however remote. Since the Hamitic languages had been believed akin to the Semitic, he studied, as representative of the former, the Egypto-Coptic, which he decided to be really Semitic. From the two branches of the Hamitic, the Berber and the Cushitic, he passed gradually to the Bantu, and perceived that unless he should relinquish precious elements of comparison he must confront the Indo-European tongues, not solely with Semitic, nor with Hamito-Semitic, but with all the languages of Africa considered as a single group of relatively high rank. Investigating as to what other group the Indo-European was most akin, Professor Trombetti found it to be the Uralic, or Hungarian-Finnic, but this could not be separated from the great Ural-Altaic stem. From this he passed to the languages of the extreme Orient, the Indo-Chinese and "Mon-Khmer." He, as he says himself, "resolutely confronted the problem in all its extent, or almost; since, having had to explore such vast fields, and which in part represented a *terra incognita* for comparative glossology, I undertook to do as much for the immense and until now little-explored field of America." The latter study he has since made, and it only confirms him in his conclusions. Professor Trombetti, then, reduces the linguistic groups to Africa—south, Bantu; north, Hamito-Semitic; Eurasia, Caucasian; Indo-European, Uralo-Altaic, Dravidic, Indo-Chinese, and Mon-Khmer; Oceania, Malay-Polynesian and Andamanese-Papuan-Australian. This investigation throws light on a question outside of linguistics,—the antiquity of man upon the earth,—since the time required for certain modifications of speech can be approximately figured, and the higher the order of an organism, the more restricted the area of its *habitat*. Professor Trombetti thus argues that the precursor of man resided in a limited area in which the final transformation took place. The antiquity of language cannot exceed a certain maximum number of years, or the number of linguistic groups would be larger and their divergence greater. This maximum the professor sets at from thirty thousand to fifty thousand years. If the biologic principle that a species originated where it is found most perfected be true, some point in Eurasia must be taken as the original home of man, and the farther one goes from this, the more degraded are men, as the Hottentots, the Bushmen, the Tierra del Fuegians, the Tasmanians, who speak languages fairly well developed, and the theory is that they have degenerated from unfavorable environment.

Woman's Obedient Life in Japan.—Naomi Tamura, in the *Revue de Paris*, gives a picture of "Women's Life in Japan." The author, after having passed several years in America, returned to Japan and published a book in 1893, but the protests of the press compelled him to leave his post as pastor. His ideas had become Americanized, and he judged his country in anything but an impartial spirit. It is not a charming picture that we get. The writer says that Japanese virtue is very pharisaical, very external. Love-marriages do not exist in Japan, and when young married people chance to get on together they are congratulated on their happiness. The idea of race is the principle on which marriage rests in Japan. A youth is expected to marry at the age of eighteen and follow the profession of his father. Girls are brought up to consider themselves as inferior to boys, and the woman's position is certainly not a desirable one. Filial love, as we understand it, is not known; the Japanese honor and respect their parents. Obedience is the chief domestic virtue. For a woman there are three kinds of obedience. When she is young, she must obey her father; married, she must obey her husband; and when she is a widow, she has to obey her eldest son.

Italian Municipal Bakeries.—Reference has been made in previous numbers of this REVIEW to the experiments in municipal baking in Italy. In the two August numbers of the *Riforma Sociale* (Rome-Turin), Prof. F. G. Tenerelli, of the Royal University of Catania, analyzes the whole question, chiefly on the data furnished by Catania and Palermo, taking into account every subsidiary circumstance. He concludes that every municipalization should be studied with respect to its particular local conditions. In Catania, a municipal monopoly was set up, all bakers being expropriated and indemnified. There, the writer says, "The monopolistic régime instituted and exercised by the socialistic party in power has resulted in economic and political damage to the commune, to almost all the taxpayers, and to the great majority of the consumers. The damages have been diminished by the effect of the coöperative bread company, which has drawn the baking from its original exclusively monopolistic character and has, in a measure, tended toward a régime of competition. It is likewise proved,—(1) that the present conditions in Sicily are not favorable to the good administration of public affairs, and hence for the development of municipal industrialism; (2) that the exercise of power, and hence the management of a municipal enterprise, can easily transform itself, given the conditions, into an efficacious means by which the political party in power may carry out a class policy to the advantage of a few active ones and the detriment of the numerous unorganized and inert; (3) that the only case in which the municipalization of baking, in a populous and scattered city of the kind and conditions of Catania or Palermo, can with any probability result in advantage to the commune, to the taxpayers, and to the consumers is that of a municipal bakery (with mill) operated in competition with private mills and ovens. The only other feasible plan the professor considers to be to let private enterprise take its course, limiting the action of the commune to a rigorous hygienic surveillance.

Alcoholism in Rural France.—A study of alcoholism in the country districts of France appears in the *Revue Socialiste* (Paris). The writer, M. Bouhey-Al-

lex, declares that, contrary to the general belief, alcoholism is not confined to the urban districts of France, but is a terrible ravage in the country sections. The most persistent optimism, he says, cannot blind our eyes to the terrible danger from this curse. In the small towns throughout the center of the republic, he declares, the number of widows is large and increasing, and their condition is due, in a remarkably high degree, to the alcoholism which has carried off their natural protectors. The men of innumerable French country communes die a decade before their time, from drink. In all these villages, he declares, the number of women is much larger than the number of men, and this is having adverse and permanent effect upon the size and character of the population. It has also made the men incapable of discharging their civic duties. "Esau sold his birthright for a mess of pottage; the French drinker gives up the rights of man and of citizenship in return for his two fingers of absinthe and his glasses of beer." The Socialist party, concludes M. Bouhey-Allex, is awakening to the danger, and realizes its great interest in the work of reclaiming the working class and impressing upon it, as the first of its duties, the duty as well as the right to keep sober.

European Militia.—An anonymous writer in the *Correspondant* has a paper on "The Truth About the Militia." It is a study of the militia in Switzerland, based on an unpublished report about the Swiss military maneuvers. The writer compares the Swiss military with the French, to the detriment of the latter. The French, he says, dislike discipline. The Swiss, on the other hand, have the feeling for discipline inborn. The Swiss army is not merely a material military force,—it constitutes a moral military force. France must be a moral force and something more; the exigencies of modern war require her to be an effective military force. The two years' service system does not find favor with the writer.

The National Movement in Danish Prussia.—A study of the peasant proprietors of small farms in Denmark, by Jürgen Hoff, appears in the *Kringsjaa*, of Christiania. The farm, this writer points out, is the principal economic factor in Danish life. It is for this reason that the attempted "Prussification" of the agricultural districts since the absorption of Schleswig by Germany has been so injurious to Danish national life. The Danish farmers, however, have fought the Prussification campaign, and now see some measure of success. The small peasant farmers in Schleswig recently organized an association for the protection and exploitation of their butter business. In 1904 they exported—chiefly to England—about one hundred and eighty million pounds of butter. They also exported twenty-three million dollars' worth of spirits, and more than thirty million eggs.

Municipal Reforms in Tokio.—The *Chokugen* (Plain Speaker), the organ of the Japanese Socialists, published every Sunday in Tokio, has an article on the street-railway problems of the Japanese capital in which it says: "There are three private companies of street railway in Tokio, making competition with one another in their prolongation of new lines. The fare is three sen uniform on the lines of each company. But the passengers are compelled to pay, according to the cases, twice or thrice of the uniform fare, for they must trav-

erse two or three companies' lines to make a little long journey. The home minister is now persuading the companies to adjust and unify the lines between them, and suggesting that they amalgamate themselves to one company, if possible. The citizens are wishing at least to have the uniform fare all common between the three companies. And we, the Socialists, are insisting upon the municipalization of all the street railways, but in vain." It was necessary, in connection with this problem, the *Chokugen* continues, to remove all the slums to the suburbs of the city. "If the railway lines are prolonged regularly, they say, the laborers and poor people may live in the suburbs and attend to the factories and offices from there, taking advantage of special commutation fare. The municipality then will build tenement-houses for the poor, with two or three small rooms, in the suburbs, taking great care in ventilation and construction, and rent them at a moderate rent. Private building of these tenements may be also allowed if conditions are according to the regulations. These plans are mainly caused from the sanitary necessity to destroy the pest and other plagues, which always germinate in the slum quarters."

How We Americanize Immigrants.—M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, who last year lectured in many American cities, gave some impressions of this country at a joint meeting of the Social Economy Society and the Union of Social Peace at Paris, which were published in the *Riforma Sociale* (Rome), and are just reproduced in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence). He called special attention to the perpetual pioneer spirit existent in America. "The national character is formed about a domestic tradition that always begins with a pioneer. The extension of territory, the fertility of a virgin soil, the richness of the subsoil, have certainly aided to form it, but the principal cause consists in America's being a country of colonists weaned of prejudices and uncompromised with the past. From a sincere cult of liberty springs an essentially democratic education, that guarantees in every respect the expression of individuality. Now, if it be considered that in this country sacred to liberty the hardy and adventurous spirit of the first immigrants passes from one generation to another, it is easy to understand how from such elements should spring such a rapid economic, industrial, and political development." The lecturer refers to the deterioration in the quality of the raw material, from Puritans to Polacks and from Quakers to Calabrians, but notes that no coercive measures are taken to metamorphose even these refractory elements. "The transformation of the immigrants must be the effect of moral causes, and among these are to be noted the religious sects, principally the Catholic Church, which has never tolerated, even at the cost of schisms, as has happened in the case of Ruthenians and Poles, that the immigrants should have bishops of their own nationality. The Americans purpose that benefits, and not fear, shall draw the immigrants to the new state. In their conception, national unity does not consist in

a religious *credo*, imposed by force on all, but in public utility in harmony with the traditions of the nation, and in the conviction that in no other country are the rights of man so guaranteed as in the United States. For this reason, the immigrants divest themselves promptly of the old nationalities, which ordinarily remind them of a period of suffering, and take on the customs and imbibe the principles of America. As a recent country, America has not our religious, political, and social, or even ethnic, prejudices, perhaps because she herself is, to a certain extent, the product of crossing of races. Thus, while turning no hostile face to any novelty, the Americans have a prejudice that condemns as a whole what is old, simply because it is old." Referring to the part the schools play in Americanization, M. Leroy-Beaulieu notes that we neglect no means to produce effect, even those called puerile by some, such as causing pupils to "render homage every day, with a set ceremony, to the starry banner, symbol of the glorious American people, and every day the Declaration of Independence is not only read, but commented upon."

Compulsory Education in India.—In *East and West*, Mr. Hargovind D. Kantavala tells how, as director of vernacular instruction, he introduced, by order of the Maharajah Gaekwar, compulsory education for both sexes into certain districts of Baroda. He states the result thus: "I was able to introduce compulsory education in the most backward part of the Baroda state within a very short time; but I had to pay special attention for months in order to work out the scheme successfully. By the end of the year, almost all children within the age of compulsion,—i.e., over 90 per cent.,—entered school, a result which even in England and other advanced countries is not achieved. The successful working of the measure induced his highness to extend compulsory education by taking up a fresh group of ten villages at a time. Compulsory education in the Amreli Taluka has stood the test of more than a dozen years, showing always that nearly cent. per cent. of the children attend school, and that people have never raised any complaint of a serious nature against it. His highness has recently sanctioned a scheme for applying in all parts of his territories the law of compulsory education to those children whose parents have a certain annual income." He concludes by saying that, from his long experience as an educationist, compulsory education is practicable in India if the requisite funds are available and if the measure is carried out with consideration, caution, and tact. The people of India are generally loyal, obedient, and law-abiding. The amount of cost is reckoned at the rate of four rupees per child per annum for rural districts; for cities, about 50 per cent. more. The city of Bombay would require from six to eight lakhs of rupees. For the whole of British India, the cost would be about 10 per cent. of the state revenue. The need of some such step is shown by the fact that in the census of 1901 it was found that only one in ten of the male, and only seven in a thousand of the female, population were literate.



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

THE third volume of Mr. Herbert Paul's "History of Modern England" (Macmillan) covers the period of Gladstone's ministerial triumphs and of Disraeli's vigorous leadership of the opposition,—the years 1865-76. To this period are assigned some of the great landmarks of English Liberal legislation,—the disestablishment of the Irish Church, army reform, the secret ballot, public education, the settlement of the *Alabama* claims, and other great measures. Mr. Paul gives a thoroughly readable review of this important period. His estimates of character have been seriously criticised in England, while other features of his work seem to have met with general approbation. On the whole, it is an invaluable political history of the past sixty years. It will be completed in five volumes.

Mr. P. P. Iverslee has written an historical summary of "The Events Leading to the Separation of Norway and Denmark" (from 1801 to 1814) which is really an exposition and justification of Norwegian politics during the century just passed. The work is published by the Augsburg Publishing House, of Minneapolis.

With the aim of setting forth the character of Napoleon in a more favorable light than it is usually regarded in, Mr. Oscar Browning has written "Napoleon the First Phase" (John Lane), which is a study of the boyhood and youth of the great soldier-statesman from 1769 to 1798. The volume is illustrated with portraits.

The latest issue of the series entitled "The World's Epoch Makers" treats of Socrates (Scribners), and is by the Rev. J. T. Forbes.

A monumental work recently published by the C. A. Nichols Company (Springfield, Mass.) is "Seventy Centuries of the Life of Mankind," a work in two volumes, appropriately illustrated, and best described by the legend on its title page: "A survey of history from the earliest known records through all stages of civilization, in all important countries, down to the present time, with an introductory account of prehistoric peoples, and with character sketches of the chief personages of each historic epoch, by J. N. Larned, editor of 'History for Ready Reference,' and author of 'A History of the United States for Secondary Schools,' 'A History of England for Schools,' etc. Illustrated by about one hundred and fifty reproductions of famous historical paintings and portraits in black and white, and colors."

"The Honorable Peter White," by Ralph D. Williams (Cleveland: Penton Publishing Company), is not a novel; neither is it, strictly speaking, a biography, but it contains the elements of a story quite as interesting as one usually finds in the modern American novel, combined with the materials requisite for a biographical sketch of unusual force and interest. The Honorable Peter White himself, as no resident of the upper peninsula of Michigan needs to be told, is a real person. He began, sixty years ago, as a humble worker in the Lake Superior iron industry, and to-day he is perhaps the foremost citizen of that region. This immense industry has been developed wholly within the

span of a single life. Mr. Williams has incorporated in his book a sketch of that development, which is greatly assisted by sidelights from the careers of pioneers among the miners and navigators of the Great Lakes. Much of this material is now made accessible to the general reader for the first time. From first to last, it is a story of thrilling interest.

In "A Study of John D. Rockefeller," Mr. Marcus M. Brown, a neighbor and friend of the great oil-refiner and philanthropist, summarizes a defense of Mr. Rockefeller from the attacks recently made upon him in the press. He includes statements of attorneys and others in defense of Mr. Rockefeller's conduct in specific cases, and concludes with a plea for justice to the man of whom it is said that with his name left out the history of education and religion could not be written.

Edward Fitz Gerald, the English poet who won fame as the translator of a great Persian poem, the "Rubáiyat" of Omar Khayyám, is the subject of several quite elaborate biographies, while two or three separate editions of his letters have appeared within a few years. These publications are now supplemented by a brief sketch of Fitz Gerald which Mr. A. C. Benson contributes to the "English Men of Letters" series (Macmillan). Quiet and uneventful as Fitz Gerald's life was, his personality has always exerted a curious fascination on other literary men. Mr. Benson sets forth very clearly and succinctly the noteworthy facts in a career that was decidedly lacking in the spectacular, whatever may be said of its deeper notes.

At last there has been written a "Life of St. Patrick." This volume, which considers the place in history of the famous Irishman—who, by the way, was an Englishman, born under the Roman dominion—is by Dr. J. B. Bury, regius professor of modern history at Cambridge. It is published by the Macmillans. His conclusions, he tells us, "tend to show that the Roman Catholic conception of St. Patrick's work is, generally, nearer to historical fact than the views of some anti-Papal divines." There is a voluminous appendix to this volume, consisting of notes, explanations, and supporting quotations.

Three recent additions to the "Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Scientists," by Elbert Hubbard, are "Haeckel," "Linnæus," and "Huxley." These are issued in paper covers, but the typography is delightful, and each is accompanied by a portrait of the scientist considered.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL TREATISES.

Prof. Frederick A. Cleveland, of the New York University, has written "The Bank and the Treasury" (Longmans),—an exposition of the principles on which our currency system is founded, with special reference to the problem of "elasticity" of current credit-funds. Professor Cleveland was already widely known as the author of "Funds and Their Uses," the first book on the list recommended by the American Bank Clerks' Association. He has given special attention to financial and currency questions for many years.

Jack London's "War of the Classes" (Macmillan) is a Socialist's frank comment on the social phenomena of the day. We may or may not accept Mr. London's definition of a "scab" as "one who gives more value for the same price than another," but his demonstration that nearly everybody is at times a "scab" is at least interesting, and rather flattering to our national sense of superior efficiency. We lack the space to point out the various details of premise and conclusion in respect to which the orthodox economist will differ with Mr. London; but every one who is at all interested in social problems would do well to peruse his breezy and piquant essays and judge for himself as to the weight and accuracy of his statements and the validity of his reasoning.

Dr. William F. Willoughby, treasurer of Porto Rico, contributes to the "American State" series (Century) a study of the "Territories and Dependencies of the United States: Their Government and Administration." This volume is concerned with the actual policy pursued and the action taken by the United States in relation to its dependent territories. Like the other volumes in the same series, it is largely descriptive in character. The author has made no attempt to discuss colonial problems as such, but frequently calls attention to the existence of such problems, and indicates the main considerations involved.

Prof. A. V. Dicey's new book on "Law and Public Opinion in England" (Macmillan) contains the lectures delivered by him at the Harvard Law School in 1898, and since delivered at Oxford. In these lectures Professor Dicey attempts to follow out the connection or relation between a century of English legislation and successive currents of opinion. The lectures take up facts in political, social, and legal history and deduce from them conclusions which, though obvious enough, may be easily overlooked by the superficial student of political science.

The second volume of Prof. William A. Dunning's "History of Political Theories" (Macmillan) carries forward to the middle of the eighteenth century the work begun in the former volume, which was confined to ancient and medieval history. The sub-title of the present volume, "From Luther to Montesquieu," clearly defines the period. Beginning with the Reformation, Professor Dunning traces the history of anti-monarchic doctrines of the sixteenth century, the work of the Catholic controversialists and jurists, the law of nations as developed by Hugo Grotius, English political philosophy before and during the Puritan revolution, Continental theory during the age of Louis XIV., and, finally, the epoch-marking work of Montesquieu himself.

A translation of Levasseur's "Elements of Political Economy," by Theodore Marburg (Macmillan), has recently appeared. It is stated that portions of the treatise were rewritten by the author for the translator, while other additions and changes made by the translator himself were approved by the author. This work is regarded as valuable chiefly for its sound and well-balanced statements of economic truths, and for its clear discrimination in dealing with new theories.

BOOKS OF DESCRIPTION AND STATISTICS.

A new edition of Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace's "Russia," enlarged and revised, has been issued by Holt. The first edition of this work appeared in 1877, and was the result of Sir Donald's studies during a residence of six or seven years in the Russian Empire.

Since that time he has visited Russia several times and spent many months in her Central Asian provinces. His observations and studies of Russia and Russian conditions extend over a period of more than thirty-five years. This present edition is really a new work, thoroughly revised, and in great part rewritten. Five new chapters deal with the revolutionary movement, industrial progress, and the present situation,—meaning up to June 1 of the present year. Mr. Wallace has an admirable style, and his work is one of those authoritative, illuminating ones which the general reader, as well as the student, cannot afford to be without. During the past twenty-five years, he declares, there have been only two strong men in Russia, representing almost radically opposed methods of thought,—Plehve and Witte. The work is a large and exhaustive one. It is regarded by many Russians as the best work about their country ever written by a foreigner.

Mr. Alexander Ular (which, by the way, is the *nom de plume* of a very clever French writer on politics and economics, whose real name has not yet been revealed) has written a fascinating study of "Russia from Within," which has been translated and published in the United States by Henry Holt. This writer believes that the Russian revolution has actually begun, and this book, he hopes, will serve as "a sweeping of the ground" for the intelligent reader of the signs of the times. He attempts no prophecy as to the result of the present crisis. The picture he paints is a gloomy one, and a very desperate case is made out for what the writer calls "contemporary Czardom." The headings of the four chapters which make up the book will give an idea of its contents,—"The Dynasty and the Court," "The Advent of the Bureaucracy," "Witte's Régime," and "The National Awakening."

"Chinese Life in Town and Country," by Emile Bard (of course, a translation and adaptation), is the latest issue of the series "Our Asiatic Neighbors," which Mr. William Harbutt Dawson is editing for the Putnams. The translation and adaptation is by Mr. H. Twitchell, and there are a number of photographic reproductions by way of illustration.

A thorough study of the legal and commercial relations of China and the Chinese people with the rest of the world, and an analysis of the legal and commercial aspects of life in the Celestial Empire, is presented by Mr. T. R. Jernigan in a scholarly volume entitled "China in Law and Commerce" (Macmillan). Mr. Jernigan has been for years a resident of Shanghai, and has studied China's life and customs from perhaps unusually favorable points of vantage. There are chapters on the physical features; the government; law; the courts; the guilds; business customs; banks; weights, measures, and currency; and transit by land and water.

"The Lands of the Eastern Caliphate" is the last issue of the Cambridge Geographical Series which Dr. F. H. H. Guilmard is editing. This volume, which is by Gaston Le Strange, treats of Mesopotamia, Persia, and Central Asia. It is issued by the Cambridge University Press, in England, and imported by the Macmillans. Several detailed maps complete the volume.

A worthy tribute to his *alma mater* is Mr. John Rogers Williams' "Handbook of Princeton" (The Grafton Press). Mr. Williams, who is the present editor of the Princeton Historical Association, is, of course, saturated with the importance and traditions of his subject, and has compiled a very readable manual, which is appropriately illustrated, and which has a

sympathetic introduction by Dr. Woodrow Wilson, president of the university.

Mr. Horace S. Hudson's "Dictionary of Minneapolis and Vicinity" (Minneapolis: Hudson Publishing Company) is a model guide-book of its kind. Other cities would do well to profit by the example so well set by Mr. Hudson's publication. The facts about the city of Minneapolis which strangers most care to know, as well as those which are always useful in a handbook for the residents of the city, are collected in this little work under an alphabetical arrangement, thus affording a descriptive index to the buildings, institutions, parks, streets, churches, resorts, amusements, and commercial enterprises of the city.

Mr. Louis P. McCarthy's "Statistician and Economist" (San Francisco: published by the compiler), a biennial publication, has been issued for the current year. We have had occasion to refer to this excellent handbook in years past. It is an excellent compilation of authoritative political, commercial, and industrial statistics.

A valuable "Statistical Year-Book of Canada" (Ottawa: Department of Agriculture) has reached its twentieth year of issue. It contains much important data relating to Canadian agriculture, trade, and commerce.

ESSAYS AND LITERATURE.

Edward H. Cooper, the English novelist, is responsible for an entertaining book of essays and sketches entitled "The Twentieth Century Child" (John Lane). This writer maintains, along with other original propositions, that under modern conditions the mother is not the proper person to have charge of the bringing up of the child. His demand, then, is for a new calling, or profession,—"the deputy mother," a guardian with plenary powers. Mr. Cooper has included in his book an autobiography written by an eleven-year-old English girl and several original tales by other children of about that age. The volume as a whole is a clever and unusual combination of anecdote, fiction, biography, and serious discussion.

Mr. Richard Le Gallienne has rendered into English blank-verse a number of the "Odes from the Divan of Hafiz" (L. C. Page). His renderings, which are in his own musical English style, have been made on the basis of two literal English translations of the Persian poet by Col. Wilberforce Clarke and Mr. John Payne. The term *divan*, it will be remembered, in Persian is used in much the same way as in English we employ the words *garland* or *treasury*. The difference between Oriental and Occidental poetry is plainly evident in these odes, in which one can see the distinction which Mr. Le Gallienne puts thus: "Where we seek a thread of meaning, the Persian demands only a thread of meter."

"In Bohemia" (H. M. Caldwell Company), by James Clarence Harvey, is a *mélange* of prose and verse of the sort suggested by its title, with artistic, original illustrations, full-page and marginal, by A. Mucha, Hy. Myer, Outcault, and others. It is excellently printed.

In the "Belles-Lettres Series," which is being published by Heath,—"*Literature for Literature's Sake*,"—the aim is to present the most significant works in English literature from the very beginning to the present, in uniform style, particularly for lovers of literature and students. The series is edited by a number of American and English university professors, and the

three latest issues are: "Selected Poems," by Algernon Charles Swinburne, edited, with introduction and notes, by William Morton Payne, LL.D.; "Bussy D'Ambois," and "The Revenge of Bussy D'Ambois," by George Chapman, edited by Frederick S. Boas, M.A.; and "Society" and "Caste," by T. W. Robertson, edited by T. Edgar Pemberton.

The Lippincotts have brought out, in their "French Men of Letters" series, which is edited by Dr. Alexander Jessup, a study of Montaigne, by Dr. Edward Dowden. This volume has as a frontispiece a reproduction of an old print of the famous French essayist.

To a collection of "Old English Love Songs" (Macmillan) Dr. Hamilton Wright Mabie has written an introduction, and George Wharton Edwards has added "An Accompaniment of Decorative Drawings." Almost all of the very famous old English love-songs are included in this brief collection.

BOOKS ON MUSIC AND ART.

A very thorough and illuminating work on the development of music is Prof. Edward Dickinson's "Study of the History of Music" (Scribners). This book, which is based upon the plan and method followed in the courses of lectures on musical history and criticism at the Oberlin Conservatory of Music, is really an annotated guide to the entire literature of the musical art. Mr. Dickinson is professor of the history of music at Oberlin, and has already, it will be remembered, brought out a volume, "Music in the History of the Western Church." The biographical and explanatory notes to this volume are very valuable, supplying, with the text, a consecutive narrative of the history of music.

In the important series of works on music being issued by Ditson under the general title "The Musician's Library" we now have "Fifty Piano Compositions by Robert Schumann," edited by Xaver Scharwenka. There is an autograph portrait of Schumann, and an introductory study of Schumann in German, which has been "Englished" by Frederic Field Bullard. There is also a bibliography in English, German, and French. The collection opens with the famous "Papillons." The volume is uniform with those already issued, excellent in typography, engraving, and artistic appearance.

A study of the Italian and Spanish "Paintings of the Louvre" (Doubleday, Page) has been compiled by Dr. Arthur Mahler, in collaboration with Carlos Blacker and W. A. Slater. Reproductions of the famous paintings of Italian and French art, from Cimabue to Veronese, which are in the famous French gallery add to the attractiveness of the volume. They are considered in historical order.

Reproductions of thirteen historical marine paintings by Edward Moran have been assembled by Mr. Theodore Sutro in an attractive volume, under the title "Thirteen Chapters of American History" (Baker, Taylor). Around these illustrations Mr. Sutro has written a running comment on American history as illustrated in the paintings. There is also an introduction and a biographical memoir of Moran. The reproductions are excellent.

A new edition of Louis Lombard's "Observations d'un Musicien Américain," translated from the original English by Raoul de Lagenardière, has been issued by the house of Theuveny, of Paris. It is dedicated to Massenet.

RELIGIOUS WORKS.

An analysis of "The Church of Christ" from the standpoint of a layman has just been published in book form by Funk & Wagnalls. This layman, who has decided convictions and has had a wide commercial and political experience, believes that the non-official membership of the Church should make itself heard in exposition, if not in defense, of Christianity. The author compares Jesus Christ with all other religious teachers, and maintains that he is, by his record of achievement, infinitely superior to them all.

A study of the late Welsh revival and some of the national characteristics of the emotional Welsh people has been written by Mrs. Penn-Lewis, under the title "The Awakening in Wales and Some of the Hidden Springs" (Revell), with an introduction on Welsh revivals by the Rev. J. Cynddylan Jones.

The Open Court Publishing Company has put its imprint on a monograph issued by the Yuhokwan Pub-

lishing House, in Tokio, entitled "Buddhist and Christian Gospels: Being Gospel Parallels from Pali Texts Now First Compared with the Originals." This is the work of Albert J. Edmunds, American representative of the International Buddhist Society and translator of the Dhammapada. The present edition, which is the third and complete one, has been edited, with notes, by M. Anesaki, professor of the science of religion in the Imperial University of Tokio.

The third annual issue of "The Christian Movement in Its Relation to the New Life in Japan" has been published by the Standing Committee of the Coöperating Christian Missions in Tokio.

A little book on "Self-Control," which is sub-headed "Its Kingship and Majesty" (Revell), by William George Jordan, consists of a series of "robust little essays on a right attitude toward life." Mr. Jordan has a trenchant style and a shrewd, kindly philosophy.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

Apple of Discord, The. By "A Roman Catholic." Apple of Discord Company, Buffalo.

Catherine de Medici and the French Reformation. By Edith Sichel. Dutton.

Certainty of the Kingdom, The. By Heber D. Ketcham, D.D. Jennings & Graham.

Christ of To-day: What? Whence? Whither? The. By G. Campbell Morgan. Revell.

College Text-Book of Botany, A. By George F. Atkinson. Holt.

Elementary English Composition. By Frederick H. Sykes. Scribners.

Emigrazione Italiana della Repubblica Argentina (Italian Emigration to the Argentine Republic). By Giovanni Graziani.

Ethics of Imperialism, The. By Albert R. Carman. H. B. Turner & Co., Boston.

Facts and Ideas. By Philip Gibbs. Edward Arnold, London.

Folks Next Door. By W. A. Croffut. Eastside Publishing Company, Washington.

Geology of Western Ore Deposits. By Arthur Lakes. Kendrick Book Company, Denver.

Good Form for Men. By Charles Harcourt. John C. Winston Company.

Harvard Lectures on the Revival of Learning. By John E. Sandys. Macmillan.

Homes of the First Franciscans. By Beryl D. de Selincourt. Dutton.

How to Obtain Happiness and Health. By John J. Snyder. Chicago.

Human Submission (II.). By Morrison I. Swift. Liberty Press, Philadelphia.

Hume's Treatise and Inquiry. By W. B. Elkin. Macmillan.

King in Exile, The. By Eva Scott. Dutton.

Kobo: A Story of the Russo-Japanese War. By Herbert Strang. Putnam.

La Neuvaïne de Colette. By Jeanne Schultz. William R. Jenkins.

Lessons in Hygienic Physiology. By Walter M. Coleman. Macmillan.

Letters of a Self-Made President. By James J. Neville. Ogilvie Publishing Company.

Little Journeys to Homes of Great Scientists: Darwin. By Elbert Hubbard. Roycrofters.

Lodowick Carlell: His Life and Plays. By Charles H. Gray, Ph.D. University of Chicago Press.

Man Limitless. By Floyd M. Wilson. R. F. Fenno & Co.

Manual of Elocution and Expression. By Rev. A. F. Tenney. Dutton.

Middle English Reader, A. By Oliver Farrar Emerson. Macmillan.

Nation and State: A Text-Book on Civil Government. By G. M. Phillips. Christopher Sower Company, Philadelphia.

Noblest Quest, The. By Charles Bayard Mitchell. Jennings & Graham.

Old Tales and Modern Ideals. By John Herbert Phillips. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Personal Story of the Upper House, The. By Kosmo Wilkinson. Dutton.

Plea for Universal Peace, A. By Chokel Yoshimura.

Practical Commercial Speller, A. By Elizabeth F. Atwood. Ginn.

Principles of Rhetoric. By Elizabeth H. Spaulding, A.B. Heath.

Problems in Maneuver Tactics. By Maj. J. H. V. Crowe. Macmillan.

Proceedings of the American Forest Congress. H. M. Suter Publishing Company. Washington.

Redeemed Life After Death, The. By Charles Cuthbert Hall. Revell.

Seat Work and Industrial Occupations. By Mary L. Gilman and Elizabeth B. Williams. Macmillan.

Secret of the Circle and the Square, The. By J. C. Willmon. McBride Press, Los Angeles.

Seneca Indian Legends. By John W. Sanborn. Friendship, N. Y.

Their Godfather from Paris: A Comedy. By Lillian Pleasant. E. A. Fink, New York.

The Mind of Methodism.—A Brief. By Rev. Harvey Reeves Calkins. Jennings & Graham.

Wandewana's Prophecy and Fragments in Verse. By Eliza M. Mulcahy. John Murphy Company, Baltimore.

Webster's New Standard Dictionary (Library Edition) Laird & Lee.



THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME IN HIS OFFICE.

(Mr. Jerome, the New York district attorney, who is an independent candidate for reelection, represents in a typical way the spirit of the present political season, as shown from New York and Philadelphia to San Francisco, which is one of revolt against bossism, graft, and dishonesty.)

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*A Stirring
Election
Season.*

The 7th of November is election day. A year ago we elected a President of the United States and a new Congress. A year hence we shall elect another national House of Representatives. Last year there were also many important State elections, and next year there will again be many. This year, the important State elections are relatively few. There are, however, local elections pending in all parts of the country, and it would be a great mistake to regard this "off year" as an unimportant one from the standpoint of American political life and progress. The truth is that the present political season is proving itself to be one of the most significant that the country has ever known. The very fact that—from the standpoint of party organization and conspicuous personal leadership—the national political pot is not furiously boiling has given better opportunity for a presentation of some of the principles underlying popular government, and a study of actual conditions.

*An
Independent
Mood.*

The press of the country has perhaps never shown itself more virile or more independent in its treatment of public questions, and the people have never shown a more active disposition to think for themselves and to vote along the line of their convictions. Bold and outspoken local leadership against machine politics, or against corrupt or inefficient methods, has never found such widespread encouragement as has been given to it almost everywhere this year. The remarkable rise of the people of Philadelphia, against the fraud and corruption that have so long dominated that city, is contributing a more important chapter to American political history than an ordinary Congressional or even a Presidential election, for it is symptomatic of profound changes for the better. The details, to which we shall make further allusion in subsequent paragraphs, are too local for outsiders to follow, nor is it necessary that they should be understood in other

States. The main facts, however, are of the highest importance for people in every part of the Union. It is of national consequence that the people of Philadelphia have found honest leadership, have awakened from their lethargy, and have been able to deal a series of fatal blows at the seemingly invulnerable ring of corrupt Republican politicians who had for so long a time ruled the city and the State for purposes of private plunder.

*The Money
Power in
Politics.*

Everywhere the people are studying the relation of money to politics and administration. Rascality is under exposure as at no previous time in our political annals. The revelations of the insurance investigations in New York City have startled the whole country, as they have furnished object-lessons to illustrate the way in which the great corporations have been influencing legislation at the State capitals. Many of us have long understood the nature of the system under which the political machines have made themselves strong; but in order to strike effectively against such methods, it is necessary to bring out concrete facts. Thus, the outlook for a revival of honesty and of personal independence in politics is brighter, in view of the state of the public mind in this political season of 1905, than it has been for a great many years. The chief value, therefore, of the political season lies in its educational effect; and this is irrespective of the result in any particular electoral situation.

*The Contest
in
New York.*

Thus, it is wholly uncertain what the outcome of the great municipal contest in New York City will have proved to be when the votes are counted on the evening of November 7. Yet the campaign itself will have been one of the most instructive and important in the history of the city. In the earlier stages it seemed absolutely certain that Mayor McClellan and a full Tammany ticket would be elected,—unless all the opposition ele-



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HON. WILLIAM M. IVINS, REPUBLICAN NOMINEE FOR MAYOR OF NEW YORK.

ments should combine in good faith to support a remarkably strong candidate for mayor. Such a candidate was available in the person of the Hon. William Travers Jerome, with whose record as district attorney our readers are familiar. But the Citizens' Union could not prevail upon the Republicans, on the one hand, and the Municipal Ownership League, on the other, to join them in nominating Mr. Jerome. After repeated conferences, the fusion movement, which had in previous municipal campaigns accomplished so much for the city, fell to pieces. The Republicans, who are in a hopeless minority in New York City, determined to go their own way, having cut loose from the Citizens' Union, and having failed to agree upon a ticket with the Municipal Ownership League. The Citizens' Union, under the circumstances, did not attempt to bring forward a full municipal ticket, while the Republicans and the Municipal Ownership League proceeded separately.

Mr. Ivins as a Candidate. The Republicans, after repeated failures to secure a candidate for mayor—no prominent Republican wishing to lead so hopeless a cause—met with unexpected good-fortune in a quarter that had not at first

been thought of. Mr. William M. Ivins, returning from a trip abroad, was asked if he would take the nomination, and he promptly accepted. Mr. Ivins for ten or twelve years had been unknown in politics, but previous to that time he was exceedingly active and was regarded as the best-informed man in New York touching municipal affairs. He had served as City Chamberlain as an anti-Tammany Democrat, and had fought Tammany with great ability and success. While in recent years on national issues he has acted with the Republicans, he is as independent a man in politics as the country possesses; and from the very moment of his nomination, on October 12, he proceeded to assert his independence and to lay down his principles with refreshing candor and surprising vigor. It was not many hours before the whole city was aware that the Republicans had found a great candidate. Mr. Ivins did everything in his power to have the Republicans indorse Mr. Jerome for district attorney; but malign influences were at work which caused the machine organization of the one party, as of the other, to reject Mr. Jerome, who is the very embodiment of revolt against bossism and machine methods. Mr. Jerome's renomination for district attorney was

brought about by the filing of petitions, many thousands of names having been secured for that purpose. If Mr. Ivins' name could have been presented early in the attempt to unite upon a fusion ticket, there is much reason to believe he would have secured the defeat of Tammany Hall. For Mr. Ivins, as soon as nominated by the Republicans, took bold and radical steps in the direction of municipal ownership, declaring himself in favor of an immediate condemnation of the gas and electric lighting plants of New York City, in order that they might within a month or two after his election be in actual operation as municipal property. And in other matters besides the lighting system he took positions that would have satisfied the Municipal Ownership League with his qualifications as a fusion candidate.

But fusion had failed before Mr. *Mr. Hearst's Public Ownership Party.* Ivins was discovered; and the Municipal Ownership League had meanwhile proceeded on its own account. It persuaded Mr. William R. Hearst, the well-known newspaper proprietor and the real head of the Municipal Ownership League, to accept for himself the mayoralty nomination. It nominated for the comptrollership Mr. John Ford, who as a State Senator had given his name to the famous Ford franchise-tax law. Our readers will remem-



HON. WILLIAM R. HEARST.

(Head of Municipal Ownership League and candidate for mayor.)



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HON. JOHN FORD.

MR. J. G. PHELPS STOKES.

(Mr. Ford and Mr. Stokes are running on the Municipal Ownership League ticket, the one for comptroller and the other for president of the Board of Aldermen.)

ber that this measure, which was approved and signed by Theodore Roosevelt as governor, brings under taxation at their full market value the street railroads, gas companies, and other franchise-holding corporations that had managed to escape their fair share of tax burdens. It soon became evident that the Hearst-Ford ticket, which had several other strong names upon it, was likely to poll a heavy vote, and it was expected that this would be drawn principally from the ranks of voters who would otherwise have supported Mayor McClellan and the Tammany ticket. It was against the McClellan ticket that the Hearst attacks were principally made, and it was the constant endeavor of the managers of the Hearst campaign to fix upon Mr. McClellan the stigma of having favored and supported the gas monopoly in its objectionable franchise schemes.

McClellan's Candidacy.

Undoubtedly Mayor McClellan has been strong with great numbers of the reputable business men of New York. He has, however, given the city a thoroughly Tammany administration, with all that the word implies. Furthermore, it has been



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MAYOR GEORGE B. McCLELLAN.

(On the steps of his house, Washington Square North.)

well understood that in case of Mr. McClellan's success it is a part of the programme that he is to be nominated as the Democratic candidate for governor next year. If he were translated to Albany, the office of mayor would be filled for three long years of the four-year term by a certain Mr. McGowan, wholly unknown to the community at large, who is the Tammany nominee for President of the Board of Aldermen. Under the New York charter, the president of that board becomes mayor for the remainder of the term in case of the death or retirement of the elected mayor. Among conservative people there was evidently a strong desire to prevent

the election of Mr. Hearst, and a feeling at first that perhaps the best way to accomplish this would be to vote for Mr. McClellan.

*A Hard
Triangular
Fight.*

In three-cornered fights of this kind there often lurk great surprises, and it would be useless to make any prediction as to the results. If Mr. Ivins should be elected, the city would be certain of an administration not only brilliant, but so strong and efficient as to command the attention of municipal administrators throughout the world. If Mr. McClellan should be elected, things would go on as at present, with vast public interests exposed to Tammany rapacity. If Mr. Hearst should be elected, there would be a vigorous effort made to municipalize public services and to cripple the power of Tammany; but no one knows how efficient Mr. Hearst would prove to be as an administrator. He would act chiefly through others, and everything would depend upon his finding men of adequate qualities to carry on a successful administration. Mr. Ivins, on the other hand, would be a host in himself, inasmuch as he would probably be found, under the test of

a competitive examination, to possess a greater number of qualifications,—and in higher degree,—for the direction of the business of New York City than any other man of any party who could be named.

*Jerome,—
the Leading
Personality.*

The campaign has been a short one, but full of stirring appeals and genuine enthusiasm. Mr. Ivins, although nominated by the Republicans, proceeded at once to take charge of his own campaign, and he seems to have carried it on entirely at his own expense. The Hearst ticket has not only a group of personalities far above the common-

place running for the offices, such as Mr. John Ford for comptroller, Mr. J. G. Phelps Stokes for the presidency of the Board of Aldermen, Mr. Clarence Shearn for district attorney, and Mr. Bird S. Coler for president of the Borough of Brooklyn, but it is also supported by hosts of men in the ranks of organized labor, and by a considerable number of men of note who believe that the movement represents in a genuine way the cause of the people as against the bosses and the corporations. The most picturesque and impressive figure, however, of the entire campaign is that of District Attorney Jerome, rejected by all parties and factions, yet vastly stronger with the people of all parties than any other man in the city. If he should fail of reelection, it will be due merely to the difficulties that inhere in the voting of a split ticket under the existing arrangement of the ballot paper in party columns.

*A Man of
Heroic
Quality.*

A great many people have believed that the election of Mr. Jerome under all the circumstances was the one supreme issue of the campaign. New York politics for a long period has been cursed by the domination of political machines built upon the foundation of plunder and "graft." These machines may quarrel about the division of the spoils, but in times of distress they stand together as against real reform. The powerful elements that do not want Jerome in the position of prosecuting attorney have been steadily increasing.



MR. HERMAN A. METZ.

MR. PATRICK F. M'GOWAN.

(The Tammany candidates for comptroller and president of the Board of Aldermen.)



MR. CHARLES E. TEALE.

MR. JAMES L. WELLS.

(The Republican candidates for comptroller and president of the Board of Aldermen.)

But the people want him and believe in him, and his personal campaign has been one prolonged ovation. The Citizens' Union has stood firmly by Jerome, and if he should be reelected, this independent movement in politics will have accomplished a notable result. Meanwhile, the Republicans, in making the strong nomination of Mr. Ivins for the mayoralty, made a weak and even farcical nomination for the district attorneyship, as if to render it the easier for the voters to split the ticket and vote for Jerome. This, of course, is what many thousand Republicans will do. Thus, there is strong hope that the most valiant figure in the public life of our American metropolis may come out of the fight victorious. It is a burdensome office that Mr. Jerome holds, and to be willing to take it for another four years' term is an evidence of courage and public spirit, in view of all the facts, that fairly entitles him to be regarded as a man of heroic mold. Mr. Jerome is not a man of cold calculation or of far-seeing ambition. He throws himself each day too recklessly and completely into his fight for public order and the protection of the plain people of New York to have any time left for scheming about his political future. But the harder he works at his tremendous tasks, the more certainly he is making himself a great national character. He is young, and he will carry far. The whole country has been following his gallant fight with sympathy and approval.

The Big Fight in Philadelphia.

Philadelphia, with this month's election, faces the first popular test of the civic revolt led by Mayor Weaver which last May suddenly stripped the local political machine of its control of the city executive. This exposed the operations of the ring, large and small. There was discovered evidence of fraudulent profits of \$2,000,000 to \$3,000,000 in filtration contracts and land speculations in boulevard schemes. Present reductions in the cost of street-cleaning, electric light, and asphalt paving are running from 10 to 25 per cent. below prices paid by the city under the ring's management. To illustrate by one small item—horse feed for fire-engine teams—the bill drops, under free competition, from \$200,000 to \$65,000. Graft ruled all, from assessments on all salaries, teachers included. Indictments, beginning with the filtration bureau head, culminated in evidence brought before the police court of collusion and conspiracy by "unbalanced" bids on tiling in a hospital building by the former Director of Public Safety and a brother-in-law of the local boss, who was unblushingly and flagrantly given all city building. The profits due to excessive prices, fraudulent contracts, or loose inspection are placed by competent judges at not less than \$3,000,000 to \$4,000,000 a year, distributed in various ways. No myth is more baseless than the view that these sums are absorbed by the little group of political leaders which figures before the public. These doubtless made fortunes; but they are but almoners and paymasters for the two allied forces which render their rule possible,—the public-service corporations and the army of political workers and ward leaders, which constitute a political condottiere, as directly engaged in plunder as any supporting an Italian city tyrant in the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries.

Corporations Involved.

Three public-service corporations,—the United Gas Improvement Company, holding the lease of the city gas works; the local traction, and the local electric light company,—have lost, in the market value of their shares and bonds, some \$40,000,000. Much of this is the fall from exaggerated quotations due to speculative operations based on prospective profits from ring schemes, halted by Mayor Weaver's veto. But much also represents the plain certainty that if the revolt becomes revolution, and the revolution brings a new civic policy and polity, an honest lease will be made for the city's gas works two years hence, reducing gas to the consumer from \$1 per 1,000 cubic feet to 80 cents. The city traction company will be held to its charter obligations and forced

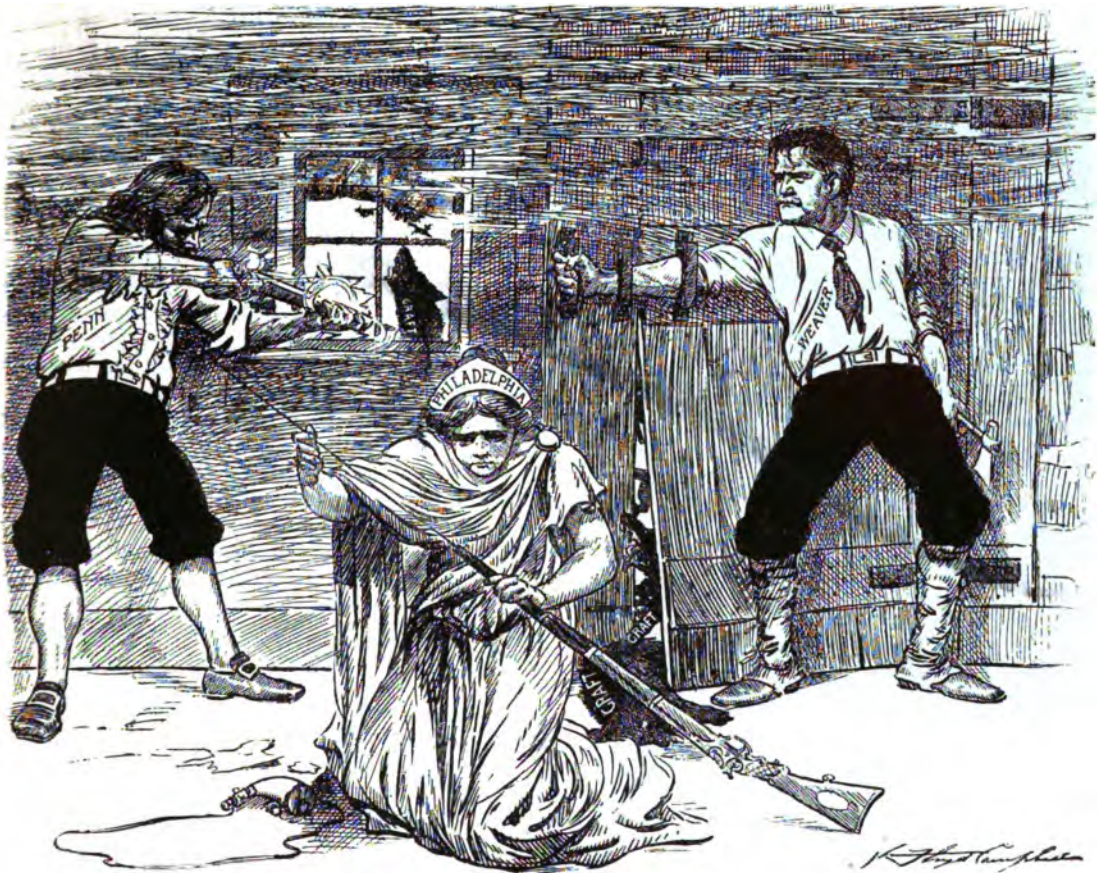
to reduce fares, and city arc lights will be reduced in yearly cost from \$103 to \$65,—a fair rate. The public service corporations' stake is no larger than that of the leading railroads which hold Philadelphia's gateways. They do not ostensibly enter the struggle, but they profit by an alliance with the State and local machines. Five powerful corporations—railroad, gas, transit, and electric—are in touch at every point,—passes, employment, contracts, organized votes, and special favors with the body of twenty thousand voters which works the polls. By places not merely in the city government (now freed), but in these corporations,—by petty grants, and by influencing banking capital, contractors, and professional men,—a strong, compact, disciplined force is supported and paid. Its ramifications penetrate every field,—education and charity (for both are subsidized), the courts, manufactures, and the labor unions.

The Present Issue.

The real issue before Philadelphia in its coming election is no mere struggle to punish fraud, reduce expenditure, and improve administration, though all these are involved, but whether the general body of citizens can free itself from a tyranny based on the alliance of the public-service corporations, the machine leaders, and the ward workers. When sudden revolt first smote the machine, in May, it was confidently expected that the general body of ward workers would follow the city administration and the Republican local organization pass under Mayor Weaver's control. But these workers are as much opposed as their leaders to honest competitive examinations. A check to fraudulent contracts has forced the discharge of some seven thousand to eight thousand men, creating dissatisfaction.

How Reform Is Working.

A reaction was inevitable. It has come in the struggle of the machine to retain power. But it faces for the first time an aroused city. A city party has been formed. It has met a most unexpected success in organizing 1,100 election districts. By concerted effort and the threat of arrest it has swept from the registry 56,000 names plainly fraudulent. With the police suppressing fraud instead of abetting it, an honest election is possible. The City Party convention to nominate a ticket was an amazing exhibition of civic enthusiasm. Most important of all, the small householder, the clerk, and the young professional man rallied to the new crusade. All the forces in the city that make for better things are united as never before. The machine (forced to withdraw a ticket of heelers) has,



HOW MAYOR WEAVER IS FIGHTING THE GANG WOLVES IN PHILADELPHIA.

(Adapted from a famous incident in the career of Davy Crockett).—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

through a "citizens' committee," secured nominees at least personally respectable. Mayor Weaver's policy of gaining money for public improvement by economy and honesty, and refusing new loans for lesser purposes, that the city may be in a position to force a reduction on the price for gas two years hence by having credit enough untouched to take up the United Gas Company's lien on the city works, has made it possible to assert that improvement has been deliberately "obstructed." Should Philadelphia now vote against the ring, next winter's election of City Councils will see the end of the local machine, and the State election next fall, choosing a governor and a legislature, will bring near the defeat of the most powerful State machine in the land. Signs of revolt are already apparent all over the State, and have taken organized shape in several counties.

New Jersey and the Corporations. The State of New Jersey,—which lies between New York and Philadelphia, and which in its political and industrial life is more or less intimately associated

with both of those great cities,—grows constantly in manufacturing wealth and in complex conditions of population; and its public problems have become, in their way, quite as important as those of the two great commonwealths with which it is associated. For the greater part of the time, in recent decades, New Jersey, both in its State affairs and in its municipal and county government, has been held firmly in the grasp of a corrupt ring, but again and again revolt has lifted its head, and sometimes with great success. In recent weeks, millions of people in the eastern half of the country have had their attention called to the fight of a young political leader, Everett Colby by name, against a powerful combination of politics and public-service corporations that has ruled the more populous part of the State from Newark as a center. Mr. Colby is merely running for a seat in the State Senate; but his nomination and his campaign have meant the smashing of a machine that has been one of the most complete in its organization and one of the most powerful in the scope of its operations that the whole country can



HON. EVERETT COLBY, OF NEW JERSEY.

boast. The significance of the situation lies in the fact that Mr. Colby is leading a successful fight against the absolute control of local and State government by rich corporations which have managed party machines as an adjunct of their business. It is a contest that goes to the very foundation principles, and it is therefore to be looked upon as part and parcel of the great national movement which is likely to find its culmination at Washington this winter in the contest over the proposals of President Roosevelt.

Chicago and the Street Railways. In Chicago, municipal elections are held in the spring, and the public issues just now under discussion there are not to be brought this month to the test of the ballot-box. When Mayor Dunne was elected on a ticket demanding the immediate municipal ownership and operation of the street-railroad system of the city, it was the prediction of this magazine that he would find the task beset with too many difficulties for realization. The people of Chicago had fought their fight against corporation influences, and had won the victory. But it does not necessarily follow that municipal ownership and operation constitute the only relief from undue corporation influence, or from inadequacy in the rendering of public services. The City Council of Chicago has failed by a decisive vote to support Mayor Dunne's policy. A test vote of the City Council was had on October 16, and it stood 37 to 27 against municipal ownership. A standing committee of the council had been negotiating with the street-railway companies with a view to granting an extension of their expiring franchises. Mayor Dunne sent to the council an order directing that such negotiations should cease. The vote in question was upon approving the mayor's order, and was taken to indicate that the majority favored the granting of some kind of franchise. The council has, however, pledged itself not to pass any franchise ordinance without first having submitted the measure and secured public approval at the polls. The question has been so thoroughly canvassed that there is no danger that any franchise will be granted for an unduly long term, or that the interests of the city or of the people will be sacrificed. Thus, quite regardless of the question of public ownership and operation, the essential things will have been gained.

The most thoroughgoing municipal contest of this season is being waged in San Francisco. The labor unions have for some years been all-powerful in that city, and they have already given Mayor Schmitz, formerly of the musicians' union, four years at the head of the municipal government. They have now put him in nomination for a third two-year term. At the outset of his first admin-

FOR STATE SENATOR

THIS RAILROAD MAIN STEM
WAS ELEVATED AT A COST TO NEWARK OF
\$1,500,000
AND THE TAXPAYERS WILL HAVE TO RAISE
\$75,000 A YEAR FOR THIRTY YEARS
TO PAY THE PRINCIPAL AND INTEREST OF THIS DEBT.

THIS PROPERTY
IMPROVED BY THE TAXPAYER, PAYS TAX AT THE RATE OF
\$5 PER \$1,000
OF VALUATION.

MAJOR LENTZ AND THE COUNTY COMMISSIONER ENFORCE THE LAW WHICH FIRES THIS BAIT.

FOR STATE SENATOR

THIS TAXPAYER'S HOUSE
WAS BUILT BY THE
THE MONEY OF THE OWNER
THE CITY OF NEWARK CONTRIBUTED
NOT ONE CENT
TO THE BUDGET OF THIS DEBT.

THIS PROPERTY
IMPROVED BY THE OWNER, PAYS TAX AT THE RATE OF
\$22.70 PER \$1,000
OF VALUATION.

EVERETT COLBY LISTEN, I PAY MY TAXES AND PAY THE OTHERS' TAX.

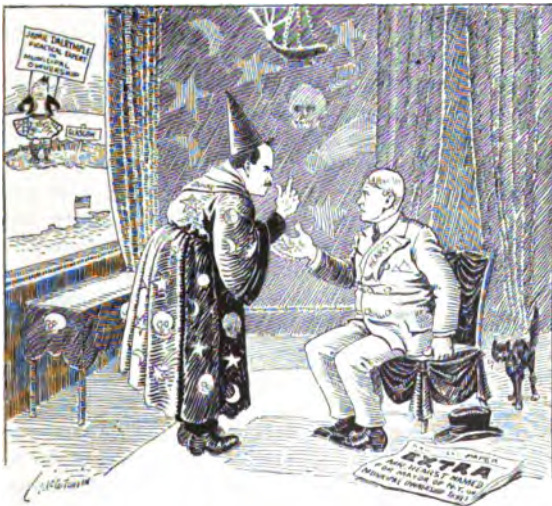
A SAMPLE (REDUCED) OF THE BOLD NEWSPAPER ADVERTISEMENTS AND POSTERS USED IN MR. COLBY'S CAMPAIGN.

istration, it was generally believed that his intentions were excellent. He soon fell, however, under influences that were, to say the least, exceedingly unfortunate. He seemed lacking in independence of judgment and in a stern sense of official duty. In many respects, the affairs of the city have been carried on in a lax and scandalous fashion. It is charged that there has been corruption and graft on a large scale. However that may be, the business men of San Francisco have risen with all their energy to see if a better state of things cannot be brought about. Republicans and Democrats have joined hands in a fusion movement, led by a brilliant young lawyer, John A. Partridge by name, who heads the ticket as candidate for mayor. Mr. Partridge at present holds the office of city attorney, and he is said to be a man of as much fearlessness and independence as Mr. Folk was reputed to have had in St. Louis, or as Mr. Jerome shows in New York. Mr. Partridge's supporters declare that this is a campaign against graft, and nothing else. Every effort is being made to show workingmen that there is no real division between their interests and those of the people who are supporting Mr. Partridge. It is claimed that all those elements of the community that are adverse to decency and order are supporting the existing régime. It is interesting to see the emergence of new men of high character and splendid resources of courage and ability above the political horizon. If Mr. Partridge is elected mayor of San Francisco, he will soon become a man of mark, and the whole country will find itself hopefully



HON. JOHN S. PARTRIDGE, OF SAN FRANCISCO, FUSION CANDIDATE FOR MAYOR.

watching his career. The real control of the Union Labor party which backs Mayor Schmitz is in the hands of a shrewd lawyer named Abraham Ruef. The success of that party in two previous elections was due to the manner in which the electoral situation was split up with several tickets in the field. This year the support of Partridge as against Schmitz is so general and solid that there seems a strong probability of success.



MAYOR DUNNE, OF CHICAGO, AS A FORTUNE-TELLER IS GIVING MR. HEARST SOME LIGHT ON THE SUBJECT OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

*The
Ohio
Contest.*

There has been manifest in the State campaigns an endeavor to utilize the uprising of the people against bossism and corporation influence in politics for the benefit of one candidate or another. Thus, in the Ohio contest, the Democratic candidate for governor, Hon. John M. Pattison, opened his campaign with a declaration as follows: "It is a battle on State issues alone. It is a battle for clean politics, honest and economical administration of public affairs, and against bossism and graft." Mr. Pattison arraigned Governor Herrick "for his subservience to the great boss of Ohio." It is certainly true that the Republican party of Ohio is not benefited in the estimation of good Buckeye citizens any more than it is en-

joying enhanced respect from the country at large by reason of the control of its affairs which has now been gained by Mr. Cox, who was formerly the boss of Cincinnati alone. Ohio Republicanism has produced some great men, and has much in its history and record to be honestly commended, and Governor Herrick is personally an attractive figure, both in public and in private, who wins the hearts of men by his estimable qualities. But there has come about a condition of affairs in Ohio Republicanism that has led many a judicious member of the Republican party in other States to remark that a "thorough licking" would be the best thing that could happen to the organization over which Mr. George B. Cox now exercises his dictatorship.

The Malign Cox Machine. It is Governor Herrick's misfortune to have obtained the support and good-will of the boss at a time when it would have been better on all accounts for him to have stepped out into the open field as the antagonist of bossism and a leader of a movement to deliver the Republican party of Ohio from its present thralldom. It is to be deplored that from the position at first of merely accepting the consent of Cox to Governor Herrick's re-nomination the governor and his friends should have been driven to the step of defending Cox

from the platform and declaring him to be a good Republican and no worse a boss than the Democratic Mayor Johnson, of Cleveland. The attempt of the Republican war-horses to force a campaign on the tariff and other national issues flatly failed, especially in view of the fact that Senators Dick and Foraker were taking positions regarded as out of harmony with the views of President Roosevelt. It is not a good year for Republicans in Ohio or anywhere else to attempt to make election capital by turning their campaign into a rebuke of the President for desiring some revision of the tariff and for standing firmly by his demand for the better regulation of interstate commerce and the control of corporations. Ohio seems to have a normal Republican majority of about two hundred thousand, and it is scarcely to be expected that the Democrats could this year win in the face of that fact, and of President Roosevelt's popularity. But they will make gains. It is not that the Ohio Democrats are better than the Ohio Republicans, but that the Republican party is the one that holds the reins, and is therefore subject to criticism. Sooner or later, the party must rid itself of Cox and all his methods, and start afresh on clean, honest principles, or else go down to deserved and ignominious defeat. That this feeling is strong throughout Ohio there are many evidences. Many of the Republican candidates for local offices feel themselves strongly handicapped by the reproach that the Cox machine has brought upon the once honorable name of their party. Whatever may be the outcome of the voting in Ohio on the seventh day of this month, it is certain that a close analysis will show a strong undercurrent of revolt against the subjection of the Republican party to the domination of an odious boss backed by those corrupting influences that have in so many of our States and communities made politics the servant of business corporations.



SENATOR FORAKER IN A LEGENDARY RÔLE.

"And King Canute, being overpersuaded, fared forth to the shore and in a loud voice spake unto the tide commanding that it should recede. But the waves beat upon the King so that he was forced to flee."—Old Legend.

From the *Leader* (Cleveland.)

Economic Questions in Massachusetts. The campaign in Massachusetts has been comparatively free from the charges of bossism and corruption that have characterized this season's politics elsewhere. Doubtless Massachusetts is not free from the taint of commercialism in politics, but corruption and graft are not in control there, as in some other States. The present contest for the governorship has been marked by a significant discussion of the economic policy of the country as it bears upon the industrial progress of Massachusetts and of New England. The Hon. Charles W. Bartlett, the Democratic candidate for the governorship, is a well-known Boston lawyer. He is making his contest on a demand for prac-



HON. CURTIS GUILD, JR.

(Republican nominee for governor of Massachusetts.)



GEN. CHARLES W. BARTLETT.

(Democratic candidate for governor of Massachusetts.)

tical tariff-revision, and reciprocity with Canada. His views are expressed as follows: "For the benefit of Massachusetts' industries, I believe that Congress should place upon the free list hides, coal, iron ore, lumber, and wood pulp, and that duties upon manufactured and other articles be reduced wherever possible. I am also convinced that reciprocal trade treaties should be made by this country with Canada and other nations." This declaration expresses the sentiments, not only of the Democrats of Massachusetts, but of a great part of the Republicans. There was an effort, indeed, to get something of this specific sort in the Republican platform. A sharp Republican split on the tariff question was, however, averted by the adoption of a somewhat vaguely worded compromise plank, which is regarded as a partial victory for the reformers. The Republican candidate for governor, Hon. Curtis Guild, Jr., is favorable to moderate tariff reform and reciprocity treaties, while the candidate for lieutenant-governor, Mr. Edwin S. Draper, is classed with the uncompromising high-tariff men. The Democratic candidate for lieutenant-governor is Mr. Henry M. Whitney, a prominent business man, whose addresses in the campaign have been influential. He has argued that some of the leading industries of Massachusetts have been at a stand-

still for years past, and that their further development requires free raw materials and better access to foreign markets. Last year, Massachusetts gave the Roosevelt Presidential ticket a rousing majority, while at the same moment piling up a large majority for Mr. Douglas, the Democratic candidate for governor. What it will do this year nobody can clearly foretell.

*The
Issues in
Rhode Island.* Rhode Island is a very small State, but it is venerable, and its political history has from the beginning of the nation's life been of more than local interest. It has on hand this year a campaign that opened late but is full of serious meaning to the people of the little New England commonwealth. There are always two dominating local issues in Rhode Island. One is of fundamental character; and it will always be in the forefront until it is settled in a modern, logical way. That issue has to do with the basis of representation in the Legislature. Rhode Island clings to its early constitutional forms, and its representation by old town divisions has become grossly unequal. It is the sort of condition that existed in England when the Reform Bill of 1832 abolished rotten boroughs and equalized representation in the House of Commons. The State Senate is controlled by members from a number of small rural towns,

having in the aggregate a very small minority of the population of the State. The Democratic candidate for the governorship is Dr. Lucius F. C. Garvin, who has already served two annual terms as governor, but who was defeated last year when the wave of Roosevelt Republicanism saved the local State ticket. It is to be remembered, however, that whereas Roosevelt carried Rhode Island by 16,706 votes, Dr. Garvin came within 856 of reelection. He stands for a new constitution and a modernizing of the representative system.

*Again the
Corporations
as an issue.*

The Republicans have renominated the present governor, George H. Utter, and their entire State ticket of last year. They go so far as to consent to an amendment of the constitution increasing the membership of the lower house to 100 from its present membership of 72. This would give some additional representation to the cities and large towns. But they do not favor any change in the Senate, which is kept securely in Republican control by the political complexion of the rural towns, which now elect a majority of the 38 members. On this issue, Dr. Garvin and the Democrats are unquestionably in the right. The other dominant issue in Rhode Island politics is that of ring rule and undue corporation influence. It is asserted that there is a close working alliance between Senator Aldrich and the group of Republican leaders and the powerful street-railway and other concentrated corporation interests that have their center at Providence. The Democrats, under Dr. Garvin's lead, are waging war upon this combination. It is a rather curious sign of the times that Democrats in many parts of the country have been openly indorsing President Roosevelt's leading policies. Thus, the Rhode Island Democratic platform offers Democratic support to President Roosevelt in any plans he may have for tariff-revision, and congratulates him upon his policy for the better control of the railroads. This platform, apropos of recent disclosures in New York, comes out strongly for State as well as national legislation to prevent the corporations from contributing to political funds. It also favors the election of United States Senators by direct vote.

*The
Maryland
Situation.*

In Maryland, the campaign does not turn chiefly upon the candidates for office, nor yet upon national issues, but almost wholly upon one question, which has taken a powerful hold upon the convictions or the prejudices of the voters. The issue is embodied in the so-called Poe amendment to the State constitution. This amendment, if adopted, would

probably disfranchise about thirty thousand negro voters. It would also make it possible for those in authority to exclude many thousands of naturalized voters from the franchise if election boards chose to exercise their powers arbitrarily. Under this amendment, which is to be accepted or rejected by the voters on the 7th of November, the candidate who appears for registration on the election rolls must be able to read the constitution, or at least to explain its provisions when read to him. Any person, however, can be registered regardless of the reading test if he was entitled to vote on the 1st of January, 1869, or if he is descended from any such voter. This, obviously, is meant to shut out negroes, who were not entitled to vote in the beginning of 1869, and also strikes at men of foreign birth or descent, whose rights are imperiled. It will be remembered that Governor Warfield objected strongly to this amendment, but the Democrats in both houses of the Legislature, by a three-fifths majority, voted in favor of its submission to the people. The governor is still opposed to it, and is leading a considerable element of intelligent Democrats in fighting it on the stump. The conspicuous leader of the campaign for the amendment is Senator Gorman. The accepted leader of the Republican opposition is the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, now Secretary of the Navy. The Hebrew voters and most of those who are naturalized or of foreign-born parentage are against the amendment, either for personal reasons or on general principles. As the campaign has advanced, it has seemed probable that the amendment will be defeated, in which case Senator Gorman's authority would have suffered much, while Secretary Bonaparte would have come out with a greatly enhanced political prestige and with the likelihood of being sent to the United States Senate to succeed Mr. Gorman.

*The
Insurance
Discussion.*

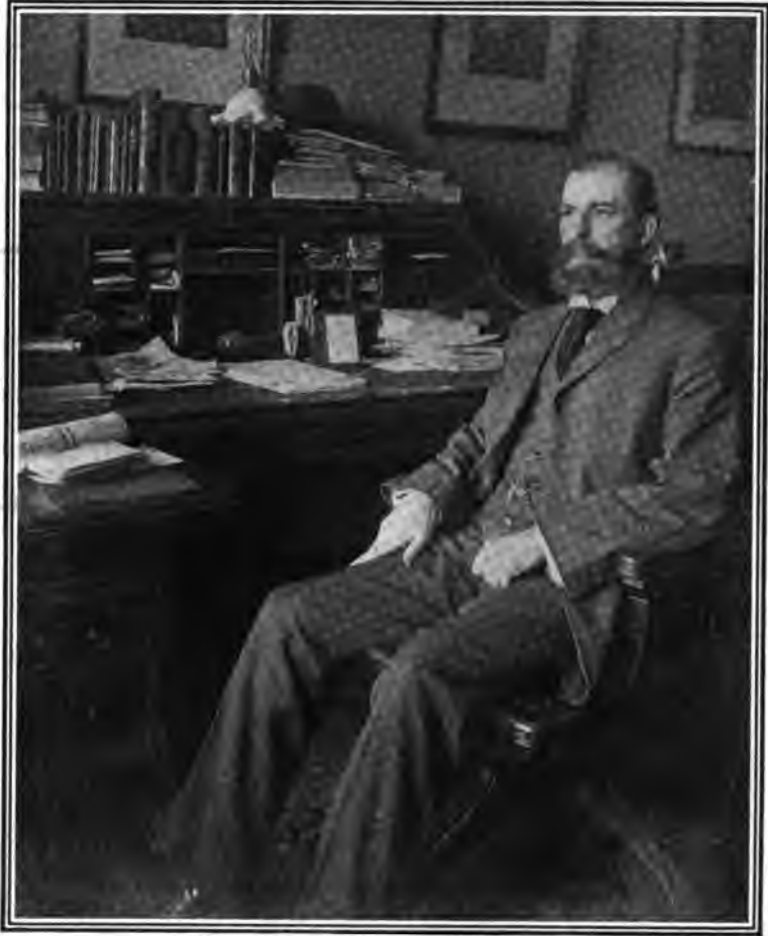
We publish elsewhere a contribution to the pending insurance discussion, written frankly from the standpoint of the great companies. The discussion which began last winter with the Equitable revelations and has continued with unabated interest through the summer and fall has been of great profit to the American people. Never before were the principles of life insurance so thoroughly examined and analyzed from every point of view. The first phase of the discussion, as it was developed in the newspapers and in many of the magazines, was aptly characterized in the *Atlantic Monthly* as "the literature of exposure." But after certain abuses of management had been revealed there arose a persistent demand for the "inside" facts of the insurance business. The

public wanted to know all there was to be known about the management of the big companies, but it also began to take a keen interest in the principles on which the life-insurance system is based and the economic justification of the system. The busy American public had never before paused to inquire into these things. During the past six months an immense mass of material relating to these subjects has been issued from the press in one form or another. Much of it, doubtless, has been crude and ill-digested, some of it perhaps misleading, but, take it all in all, we cannot doubt that the general output has been useful. Quotations from some of the more important of the current magazine articles will be found in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. Several of the more valuable papers have appeared in the special journals devoted to political science and economics. Such topics as deferred dividends and the cost of insurance have been scientifically treated in these journals. The September issue of the *Annals*, published by the American Academy of Political and Social Science at Philadelphia, was

wholly given up to insurance topics, several experienced actuaries contributing able expositions of modern company methods. The newspaper press is constantly reprinting and recirculating much of this material, so that the great mass of Americans are benefiting from this insurance agitation in ways that nobody anticipated.

*Good
Results
to Be Gained.*

One result of the insurance exposures of the year is an educational campaign such as all the insurance companies together could not have organized. It is creditable to the national sanity and poise of judgment that in all this flurry we have not lost our heads or given up our faith in the essential soundness of conservative insurance methods



Stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

MR. CHARLES E. HUGHES.

(As chief counsel for the Armstrong legislative committee, Mr. Hughes is carrying on the investigation of life insurance companies in New York. He was nominated for mayor by the Republicans last month, but declined on account of the great work yet before him in the insurance inquiry. He has gained the admiration and unbounded confidence of the whole community.)

and practice. Thus, in the end, more people will be taking out policies, agency "missionary" endeavor will be less needed, and almost everybody will be benefited. The insurance laws of the States will be improved, public inspection will be more thorough, and the national government will undertake some sort of oversight. The companies will observe the spirit of trusteeship more carefully, and they will cease to maintain scandalous and corrupt lobbies at the seats of State government. Mr. Hughes and the New York investigating committee are rendering a great national service. Life insurance will not be discredited, and the great companies will not be brought to grief. But the business will be improved in its methods.

*The President
in the South.*

If this were not decidedly an "off" year as respects national politics, a Republican President would hardly have chosen the last two weeks of October for a visit to a number of the solid Democratic States of the South, where he was everywhere to receive official courtesies and enthusiastic welcome. Next year, with the Congressional elections on hand, it would not be so feasible for President Roosevelt to make a Southern tour in October; but as matters stood the President's trip last month was entered upon with every promise of its being successful and useful. It was well known in advance that the President could count upon good-will wherever he was going, and it was also quite certain that the conditions were favorable for the expression by the President to Southern audiences of his well-known views upon desired legislation. He left Washington on the morning of October 18, and on the same day was received with great acclaim at Richmond, where he made an address of fine temper, from the standpoint of broad American nationality.

*Telling
Speeches and
Warm Welcomes.*

On the following day, he was welcomed at Raleigh and other towns in North Carolina, and spoke impressively upon the economic conditions of the country and the necessity for the regulation of the highways of commerce in the interest of a fair and equal treatment of all citizens. On the 20th, he was in Georgia, and was received at Atlanta with popular enthusiasm and every mark of respect and honor. In that city he spoke upon industry, corporate activity and business honesty, and found opportunity to discuss the cotton crop, cotton exports, and our Oriental trade. And so he proceeded, day after day, addressing great audiences and winning favor which will count for practical purposes when his more urgent measures of policy are brought before Congress in the approaching session. It was his expectation, after visiting several points in Alabama, Little Rock in Arkansas, and Memphis in Tennessee, to proceed to New Orleans to spend Thursday, October 26. From that port he was to return North by water, sailing on the *West Virginia*, and arriving in Washington on the morning of the last day of October.

*Panama
Affairs.*

The board of consulting engineers returned from their trip to Panama last month, but are not expected to make a report until after further study and consultation. There were afloat rumors to the effect that the State Department would take over the direction of Panama affairs, and that thus

Secretary Root instead of Secretary Taft would become the cabinet officer more especially charged with the canal. It has been decided, however, to leave the business where it has been, and the canal commission will be kept in association with the War Department. It is expected that canal matters will be much discussed at Washington this winter. All the opponents of the Panama project are preparing to enter upon a formidable campaign of obstruction. There will probably be some kind of a Congressional investigation. It is suggested, by the way, that the whole cost of the canal should be defrayed by the sale of bonds, and that the payments thus far made—chiefly to the French company and to the republic of Panama—should be included in a bond issue, thus allowing the sum of \$60,000,000, in round figures, to be returned to the Treasury.

*Measures
for
Congress.*

It is plain from the President's speeches that he has not given up the intention of presenting his railroad-rate measure as the foremost subject for legislation during the coming session of Congress. The railroad men are admitting the evils of rebates, private-car lines, and various other devices by which the holders of railway shares, on the one hand, and the general public, on the other, are, to a greater or less degree, defrauded



SO THOUGHTFUL OF EACH OTHER.

SECRETARY ROOT: "No, you keep it, William; you need the exercise to reduce your weight."

SECRETARY TAFT: "You take it, Elihu! It's just the job to make you strong with the people."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

RICHMOND, VA., ON THE OCCASION OF THE VISIT OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

of their just dues. But, as a rule, the railroads are strongly opposing the idea of granting any extension of the general rate-making power to the Interstate Commerce Commission, or to any other public body. On that point there is likely to be a great contest at Washington. One of the subjects certain to be brought forward in a prominent way is that of the control by the federal government of insurance business in its larger aspects. Congress will also have its attention brought to the evil of political contributions by corporations.

Some Foreign Questions. As respects foreign affairs, the Venezuelan question will also probably in some form claim the attention of Congress. The same thing may be said of Santo Domingo, where the President has entered upon a policy that, in our opinion, should have the full support of the Senate. Arbitration treaties will be urged upon the Senate, and to some extent the question of tariff-revision and reciprocity must be brought under discussion. Our Oriental trade, our relations with China, phases

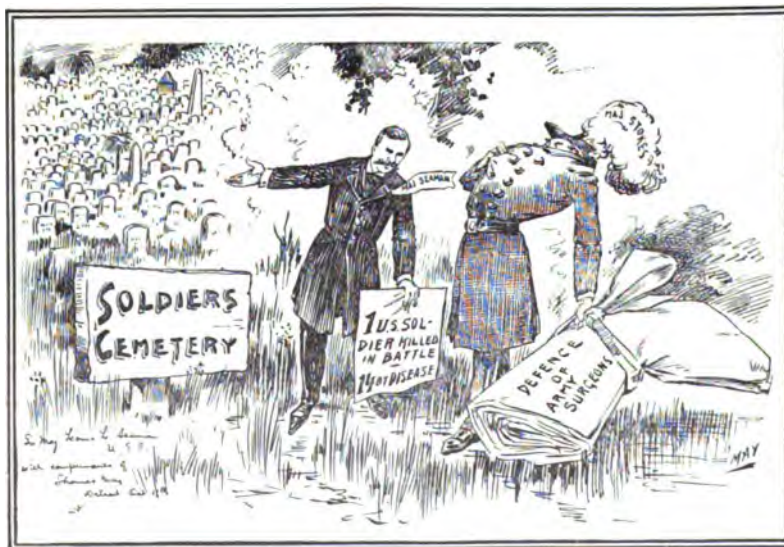
of the immigration problem, and many other matters of great importance will be pressed upon the attention of the law-making body.

Again the Statehood Controversy. It is with regret that it becomes necessary to call attention again to the desperate effort that will be made to force Arizona and New Mexico into the Union as separate States. At this moment, when the political activities of the corporations are arousing so much indignant criticism, it would be well if certain railway and other corporate interests should confine themselves to their proper functions and cease their endeavor to determine results in a constitutional matter of such profound importance as the admission of new States to the Union. Arizona and New Mexico ought under no circumstances to be admitted separately. As one State, they should now be brought into the Union at the earliest possible date, in order to end the agitation, and in order to enable them to adjust themselves to the new situation. The same thing is true of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory.

Remembering the yellow-fever experience of New Orleans, and the delay of the work at Panama because of unfavorable sanitary conditions on the Isthmus, our readers, we believe, will find particularly timely the two articles which we present this month on the sanitary methods by which Japan has preserved the health of her fighting men. Dr. S. Suzuki, who is one of the surgeon-generals in the imperial Japanese navy, addressing the American Military Surgeons' Association at Detroit, on September 26, ascribed Japan's military success more to her skill in preventing disease than to the fighting qualities of her men. Dr. Suzuki tells us in detail the methods of sanitation employed in the Japanese navy. Dr. Louis L. Seaman, in his address at Detroit, made a plea for better-equipped and more thorough medical service. The accompanying cartoon, which was printed at the



DR. LOUIS L. SEAMAN.



MAJOR SEAMAN (replying to the "Defense of American Army Surgeons"):
"There's the proof."—From the *Journal* (Detroit).

time, refers to his indictment of Occidental medical army service. Dr. Seaman, in his tribute to the health equipment of the Japanese army, found on another page this month, makes a few comparisons which are not to the credit of conditions in our own military forces. Dr. Seaman maintains that red tape has tied the hands of Colonel Gorgas, the able sanitary expert at Panama, and so far rendered almost futile his best efforts. It is gratifying to note here that President Roosevelt is quite aware of the state of affairs at Panama, and that in the reorganization of the commission the importance of

Colonel Gorgas' work has been recognized. The announcement at the recent Paris Tuberculosis Congress of a new actual cure for tuberculosis, the discovery of Dr. Behring, a German professor, while not yet definitely described, promises much for mankind. An important meeting in Washington, early in October, was the International Sanitary Congress, at which were represented twelve American republics, and at which the subject of uniform quarantine regulations was discussed. This congress is treated further on another page this month.

*Zionism
and American
Judaism.*

When the recent Zionist congress at Basel accepted the report of its special committee declining Great Britain's Uganda colony offer (the report was outlined in this department for July) and voted that the proposed autonomous Jewish state must be in Palestine, that eminent Jewish writer, Israel Zangwill, and a number of his friends announced their secession and declared that a new organization would be formed. They have now formed, in London, the Jewish Territorial Organization, which will have branches throughout the world, and which has for its object, not an attempt to reoccupy Palestine, but the creation of an autonomous Jewish colony (preferably under the British flag) where it will have some chance of success,—if not in Uganda, then elsewhere. While this project is interesting Hebrews all over the world, but British Hebrews in particular, American Judaism is preparing to celebrate the two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the settlement of Jews in the United States. Noteworthy as has been the success of the American Hebrew in commerce and finance, his contributions to the more ideal phases of American citizenship have been no less remarkable, and there is very interesting reading in the survey of the achievements of the American Jew for two centuries and a half, by Mr. Max J. Kohler, honorary secretary of the working committee on the celebration and a prominent Hebrew lawyer of New York, which forms one of our features this month (page 556). In addition to the special services of a secular nature in connection with this celebration, appropriate religious exercises are to be held throughout the United States, in every Jewish Sabbath school, on the Jewish Sabbath immediately preceding Thanksgiving Day.

*Cuba's
Political
Quarrels.*

Intervention by the United States Government in the domestic politics of Cuba, to restore order and tranquillity in the presidential election campaign, was a possibility discussed by both Cubans and

Americans last month, but particularly by the former. The arrival in New York of José Miguel Gomez, governor of Santa Clara province and candidate of the so-called Liberal party for the presidency, in flight from what he terms the assassination policy of the government, has called attention anew to the unsettled political conditions in the island republic. Mr. Gomez subsequently withdrew his name from the Liberal ticket, because, as he asserts, it is useless to oppose the methods of the government, which are "those of South America, in opposing to peaceful citizens the rifles of the public forces." The local elections which recently took place in Cuba, preliminary to the presidential election of December, indicate that President Palma will be rechosen by a substantial majority. Mr. Gomez, however, charges President Palma and the government party in general with intimidation and assassination. The Palma government, he continues, has brought the island to the verge of financial ruin, and since there is no hope for fair play at the election in December, the United States, empowered by the Platt amendment, should intervene in the interest of civilization and the Cubans themselves. Americans who have followed the acts of President Palma, however, and know his character will be slow to believe that he has any designs to put down by force of arms any legitimate opposition to himself. Riots and improper agitation methods there undoubtedly have been on both sides, but there will have to be more serious proof of the existence of anarchy or tyranny before the United States Government can be brought to even consider interference in Cuban politics. A matter of real interest to Americans, as has already been set forth in these pages, is Cuba's pending trade treaty with Great Britain and the agitation on the part of powerful commercial interests in the island for the establishment of closer trade relations with the United States.

*South
American
Affairs.*

It would appear as if the Venezuelan tangle were about to receive another twist. President Castro is at last in serious difficulties with France, and it was announced in the middle of October that a flying squadron, consisting of several cruisers from France's Caribbean fleet, under the command of Admiral Bevoe de Lapeyrere, would make a demonstration against La Guayra. France has real interests in Venezuela, which have been jeopardized by President Castro's recent actions, and it is understood that our own government is in complete accord with France's purpose in this matter. From the rest of the continent of South America come reports of

peace and prosperity, with the exception (only a temporary one) of the city of Buenos Ayres, which has been for weeks the center of a serious strike of street-railway employees. Chile and Bolivia have come to a complete agreement with regard to the province of Antofagasta, taken from the latter country in the Chilean-Peruvian-Bolivian war ending in 1883. The Peruvians still smart under the loss of their two provinces of Tacna and Arica, but are beginning to recognize that these are finally lost to them, and are coming into more friendly relations with their former enemies, the Chileños. Ecuador has a new president, who took office in September. He is Señor Don Lizardo Garcia, who some years ago attained international fame by his dexterity, while in London, in converting the external national debt of his country. We print his portrait herewith, as that of a representative, progressive South American statesman. We ought to know more about Ecuador, and, indeed, about the whole Pacific coast of South America. This republic, which is about the size of the State of New Mexico, furnishes the greater part of the world's supply of cocoa. It also makes the well-known Panama hat, which takes its name from the fact that it passes through the Isthmus to the markets of the world.

*Affairs in
the United
Kingdom.*

In British politics, the burning question is still the approaching dissolution of Parliament and the advent of the new ministry. One of the most significant indications that the Unionist government is fearful of its fate is the announcement recently made by the British treasury officials that the government would provide, before the end of the current year, an additional \$10,000,000, and would issue land stock during 1906 in amounts to produce \$50,000,000 in cash, in order to facilitate the operation of the Wyndham Land Purchase Act in Ireland. This is probably with a view to conciliating the landlords, who are mostly moderate Unionists. The act of 1903, fathered and carried through by Mr. Wyndham, who preceded Mr. Walter Hume Long as secretary for Ireland, aimed to bring about the restoration to the Irish peasantry of the land now held almost exclusively by absentee landlords. This project has not been a success, chiefly for reasons which are set forth by Mr. Thomas W. Russell, M.P., on page 572 of this issue of the REVIEW. A graphic description of the deplorable condition of rural Ireland to-day is set forth by Mr. Plummer F. Jones in this number of the REVIEW, to which we refer our readers for a full statement of the Irish problem.



SEÑOR DON LIZARDO GARCIA, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF ECUADOR.

An interesting campaign for the institution of a universal penny postage has been launched in England by Mr. J. Henniker Heaton, M.P., and supported by a number of the most influential British public men. Mr. Heaton, in his plea (appearing in the *London Times*) for the reduction of what he calls "a tax on commerce," hopes that President Roosevelt will take the initiative in the matter. The death roll of the month in England contains the names of three men whose title to greatness will not be disputed. Dr. Thomas John Barnardo, "the father of nobody's children," was one of the most ideal of humanitarians. The veteran novelist, George Macdonald, was a writer of dramatic strength, and his sincere spiritual nature was devoted to the cause of reform in society and theology. Sir Henry Irving, the first English-speaking actor to receive knighthood, was an artist of sincerity and virility. We print an excellent recent portrait of him on another page this month.

*Britain's
Larger
Politics.*

In the readjustment of international politics consequent upon the conclusion of peace in the far East, Great Britain finds herself in possession of several points of distinct advantage. The renewal of the alliance with Japan (we give the exact terms on page 600 of this issue of the REVIEW) strengthens her hands in Asia and practically

precludes any danger of a Russian attack upon India. The *rapprochement* with France, while it has been regarded with dislike and suspicion in Germany, has distinctly improved the British status on the Continent and has been largely instrumental in what is coming to be regarded as the next dramatic movement on the international chessboard,—an Anglo-Russian understanding which shall finally fix the general status of Asia and make some significant changes in the situation in the near East. There is Russian support for this. The *Novoe Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, has even suggested that Russia, France, Germany, and the United States should join with Japan and Great Britain in maintaining the *status quo* in China, and that the affairs of central Asia should become subject to a mutual guarantee between Great Britain and Russia. It is surmised that the object of the Russian Government in thus securing a permanent settlement of Asiatic questions is to give her a free hand for nearer projects.

*Australian
and Indian
Problems.*

In Asia and the Pacific, there are several thorny points awaiting settlement by King Edward's government, prominent among which are the so-called Japanese "peril" to Australia and the intense feeling in India over the division of the Bengal presidency into two provinces. It is believed that the Japanese Government has presented to Foreign Secretary Lansdowne a protest against the Australian immigration restrictions, which close to the teeming population of the island empire the fertile, sparsely populated island continent of Australia. The British Government, however, can do nothing further than refer the

matter to the Australian federal ministers, for it was the Australian Parliament that passed the law. Unfortunately, Great Britain cannot satisfy Japan, because she cannot coerce Australia. There is, however, an increasing number of Australians who believe that, in view of her need for plentiful and cheap labor, Japanese and Chinese should be admitted without restriction to the Commonwealth. The Bengal question is a racial one. The Bengalese resent the British Government's intention to cut the presidency in two, since it would divide their race politically. The Indian Office, however, claims that, as now constituted, the province is too large (its present population is over 40,000,000). The proclamation of partition was issued on September 1. Since then, indignation has grown, and last month it culminated in a serious trade boycott of British goods.

*An
Agreement on
Morocco.*

'After three months' negotiations, France and Germany, it was announced from Berlin and Paris on September 26, have come into complete agreement on the Moroccan question. The Kaiser's objects in these negotiations are officially declared to have been: (1) In general European councils to assert German influence; (2) in general African interests to establish a precedent that nothing could be disposed of without first consulting Germany; and (3) as to Morocco in particular, to impress the Sultan of that country with Germany's power to challenge anything done by other nations. Somewhat over a year ago, it will be remembered, France, England, and Spain agreed that French influence should be predominant in Morocco. Germany, however, although informed of this agreement, waited a year before protesting. Then the Kaiser went to Tangier and informed the Moroccan Sultan that as one of the signatories of the Madrid treaty he would defend the rights of Morocco. During the negotiations, the relations between France and Germany, and the general peace of Europe, were threatened with rupture. Indeed, according to some sensational revelations in several Paris newspapers during the past month, the French ex-premier, Delcassé, had sought and obtained formal assurances of British coöperation with France against Germany if



AN ITALIAN VIEW OF HOW RUSSIA WILL BE AFFECTED BY THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.—FROM FIECHETTO (Turin).

the question involved open rupture. By the agreement just reached, Germany wins certain points. In general, however, the victory rests with France, since—(1) the Franco-Anglo-Spanish agreement is untouched; (2) at the forthcoming international conference Germany agrees not to oppose legitimate French interests; (3) Germany recognizes the special rights of France to police the Moroccan-Algerian frontier; and (4) Morocco gives France the preference in financial operations. The conference, it is announced, will be held some time late in November, at Algeciras, in Spain.

*Sweden
and Norway
Separate.*

Following closely upon the conclusion of the treaty of Portsmouth came another historic event, the treaty of Karlstad, by which Norway and Sweden agree to dissolve the union which has bound them for over ninety years and settle all their differences. On September 23, the Norwegian and Swedish commissioners, in session at the little town of Karlstad, about midway between Christiania and Stockholm, after many mutual concessions,



GEN. O. HANSEN.
(Commander-in-chief of the
Norwegian army.)

signed a treaty which was afterward approved by both the Norwegian Storting (October 9) and the Swedish Riksdag (October 16). The document contains five articles, under the following heads: First.—Arbitration. For ten years all differences arising between the two countries which they are unable to settle by direct diplomatic negotiation shall be referred to the Hague court of arbitration, provided such differ-

ences do not concern the independence, integrity, or vital interests of either country. The Hague court, moreover, is itself to be judge of its own competency in this matter. Second.—A neutral zone. This to be established on either side of the frontier, subject to perpetual neutrality, except when the two countries are engaged in warfare against a common foe. The existing Norwegian forts within this zone are to be destroyed or rendered useless. Third.—Grazing rights. For humane reasons, Swedish Laplanders are to be allowed to retain their ancient right to graze



PRINCE CHARLES OF DENMARK.

(Who has decided to accept the crown of Norway.)

their reindeer alternately in each country. Fourth.—Transit traffic. For thirty years there is to be no obstruction to import or export traffic from one country to the other, contraband of war alone excepted. Fifth.—Waterways. The laws of each country shall be applicable to these highways within their respective territories, but vested rights are to be respected in both.

*As to
Possible
Russian
Aggression.*

The treaty of Karlstad further binds the rulers not to cede any Swedish Norwegian territory to Russia, or to grant Russia any coast privileges. Sweden dreads possible foreign alliances of Norway, particularly a future understanding with Russia, which would place the Swedes between two fires. For a long time the great question confronting Norway was that as to the form of her future government. There were many advocates of a republic. After much discussion, however, and without waiting to submit the question to a plebiscite, late in October the Storting passed a bill actually offering the crown to Prince Charles of Denmark. This prince, who is the second son of the Danish heir-apparent, is thirty-three years of age, and his wife is the youngest daughter of King Edward of England. His election will have to be confirmed by popular vote.

What is
Austria-
Hungary?

It was Lord Palmerston, if we remember correctly, who once declared that the Schleswig-Holstein question had been mastered by only one person,—an erudite German professor, who died shortly afterward in a lunatic asylum. The Austro-Hungarian question is even worse than this. No one has ever yet been known to master it. To establish a union and political harmony out of a mixture of some fifteen different races, all cordially hating one another, by means of an alliance between two ostensibly liberal constitutions (one of which is really an absolutism), on the basis of keeping down the majority of the population through an understanding between two mutually hostile minorities, and all under conditions which absolutely preclude any logical evolution of a national character,—such has been the Austro-Hungarian problem since the famous *Ausgleich*, or compromise, of 1867. It may be helpful at the present moment, when the long-expected rupture between Austria and Hungary seems to be nearer than ever before, to recall a few of the often forgotten facts about this dual monarchy which Americans (incorrectly) designate Austria. The Austro-Hungarian Empire is made up of two coördinate states, Austria and Hungary. Austria proper contains seventeen states, each with its own local legislature and representatives in the imperial parliament, or Reichsrath, at Vienna. Hungary is not one of these constituent states. She has her own parliament, or Diet, at Budapest, and no representatives at Vienna. Austria contains, approximately, 116,000 square miles (the State of Arizona contains 113,000), and its population is a little over 26,000,000. Hungary contains 125,000 square miles (the State of New Mexico contains 122,000), and has a population of slightly over 19,000,000. Hungary is, therefore, larger in area, Austria in population. More radically different races and religions are within the dual monarchy than in any other political division of the earth's surface. The composite character of these populations is shown in our diagram.



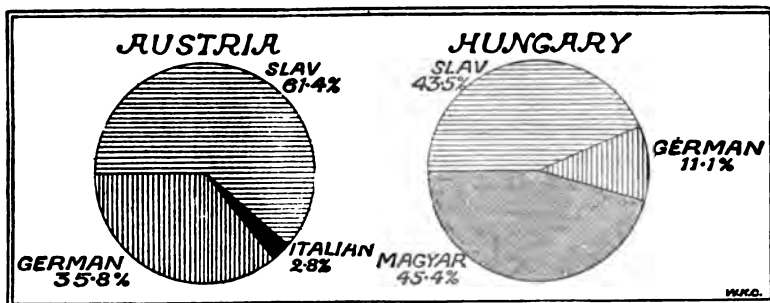
HIS MAJESTY FRANCIS JOSEPH, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND KING OF HUNGARY.

(He has recently celebrated his seventy-fifth birthday.)

Constitution
of the Dual
Monarchy.

The imperial parliament at Vienna, in which Hungary has no part, enacts laws for the rest of the empire. The Diet at Budapest enacts laws for Hungary only. The national courts are also separate. There is an Austrian legislature, system of laws, and judiciary, and there is an Hungarian legislature, system of laws, and judiciary, but there is no Austro-Hungarian legislature, system of laws, and judiciary. The matters of foreign relations and common defense are under the supervision of one department and one army. To make this effective, a committee from each parliament has been called into existence, consisting of sixty members from the Austrian and sixty members from the Hungarian parliament. These

committees, known as the Delegations, meet annually, at Vienna and Budapest alternately, always holding their sessions separately. In the event of failure to agree upon a war appropriation, they may come together to vote, but there can be no discussion in joint session. Even after the matter of war appropriation has been decided, it cannot become binding on Hun-



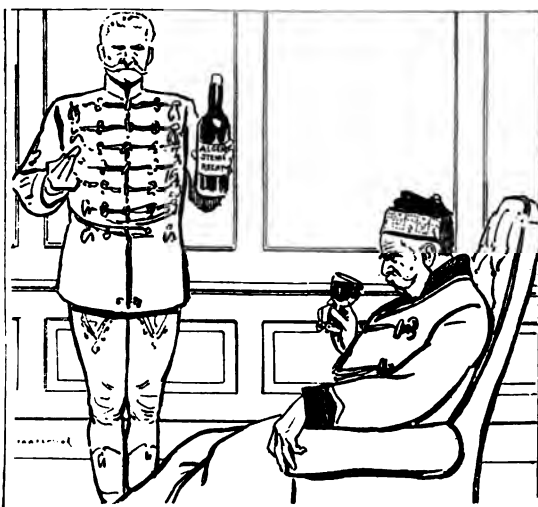
THE RELATIVE PROPORTION OF THE VARIOUS RACES IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

gary until ratified by the Hungarian parliament. The Emperor of Austria is King of Hungary, and it is in this,—which to Americans seems artificial,—relation that the difficulty lies. Even so experienced and able a monarch as Francis Joseph finds it impossible to be at the same time constitutional king of a country which regards all authority as proceeding from the people and virtually absolute monarch of a conglomeration of almost feudal states which look upon every popular right as a concession from the crown.

The present difficulty arises from the deadlock in the Hungarian parliament, owing principally to the refusal of the Emperor King to recognize the justice of the Hungarian demand for the use of the Magyar language in the Hungarian army. The Fejervary cabinet was forced to resign, in the middle of September, owing to the united opposition, which impeached the ministry for unconstitutional appropriation of public funds and the conclusion of commercial treaties without the approval of the Hungarian nation—only to be reappointed in October, with a new minister of agriculture. A coalition of the five opposition parties under Francis Kossuth, son of the great leader of 1848, now seems to control the situation. A proposition advanced by some of the minor nationalities under Hungarian rule, and enthusiastically supported by

the Socialists, to bring about universal suffrage has complicated the situation, as the idea is opposed by the Magyars, who would be outvoted if universal suffrage were enacted. The Emperor is opposed to the universal-suffrage idea, but, as the only means of defeating the Magyar opposition, he may be forced to permit its adoption. By the prorogation of the Hungarian Diet, on October 10 (to reassemble December 19), Hungary finds herself in a very unfortunate situation. Owing to the deadlock, the country has been without a budget since January. Taxes may not be collected, nor recruits for the army voted. It is evident that some way out of the present situation must be found at an early date, for the lack of funds makes very difficult the payment of railway men, public teachers, and government officials generally. All the able men of the nation are with the opposition. Besides Francis Kossuth, the best-known leaders of the national forces (now heading the parties which have united under the leadership of Kossuth) are: Count Albert Apponyi, leader of the ultra-opposition; Baron Banffy, ex-premier; Count Zichy, leader of the clerical People's Party, and Count Julius Andrassy, son of the late premier.

The second week in October saw the actual ratification of the Russo-Japanese treaty by the Emperors of both countries. This historic document, the exact terms of which we reproduce this month, is now binding, and while the phraseology is slightly different from the guesses beforehand, yet in no important particular has the newspaper forecast been proved incorrect. The peace treaty leaves two immense armies in the far East, which, however, are being slowly withdrawn from the seat of war, as the two commanders can arrange it. The closer the terms of peace and the actual situation are considered, the more evident does it become to the unprejudiced observer and well-wisher of both countries that the peace of Portsmouth was made at the opportune time, and that it is just, and destined to be lasting. All the world is certainly to be congratulated on the results. The American people should be proud of their President for the part he played, and Germans will certainly remember with much gratification the patient and persistent efforts of Kaiser Wilhelm to bring about peace. Both warring nations needed peace. The financial and economic resources of Japan, while not exhausted, were in such condition as to make peace highly desirable—even necessary. The internal unrest in Russia had rendered imperative the cessation of hostilities in



A GOOD MEDICINE, THOUGH BITTER.

KING OF HUNGARY (Francis Joseph): "And must I come to this?"

PREMIER BARON FEJERVARY (offering the "Universal Suffrage" tonic): "Yes, your majesty. It is a bitter dose, but our last remedy."—From *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

order to bring about domestic reforms. Indeed, Count Witte's next great task,—a greater one than he accomplished at Portsmouth,—would appear to be the negotiation of a real treaty of peace between the Russian Government and the Russian people.

"All the Russians" Demand Reforms. All Russia awaits with intense interest and anxiety the assembling, in January, of the Duma, or national parliament. Meanwhile, the campaign of political education goes on, despite all that the reactionaries and bureaucrats can do to prevent it. During the last week in September, three distinct classes of Russian society put themselves on record as in favor of radical reforms,—the nobles, the zemstvoists, and the peasants. At their meeting at St. Petersburg, the nobles unanimously adopted resolutions demanding the separation of the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of the government; equal justice for all classes; coöperation in the work of state ministers, who should be held responsible for their acts; education for the masses, with absolute freedom to establish schools; and entire freedom of assembly, organization, and the press. The aristocracy of Russia and the Liberal

movement in general, however, suffered a severe loss last month in the death of Prince Sergius Trubetskoi, a reform leader of great breadth of view and ability. The Peasants' Union, an organization of only a year's growth but now numbering hundreds of thousands, in its delegate meeting at Moscow, announced that it would enter the Duma chiefly to proclaim its demands for electoral reform and to organize an agrarian movement. Most of the peasants believe that it is the duty of the Russian state to take from private owners the land and divide it among the landless peasants.

Radical Attitude of the Zemstvos. Most significant and important, however, was the All-Russian Congress of Zemstvoists, which met at Moscow, on September 26, in conjunction with representatives of municipal councils. Nearly two hundred delegates attended, and the presiding officer was Count Heyden, who had presided over the previous congresses. The first notable fact about this gathering was that the imperial government actually abolished the censorship on reports of its proceedings. While holding that the Duma will not give national representation in the true sense, the zemstvo representatives decided to enter the new assembly in the largest numbers possible, "for the purpose of forming a united group, with the object of obtaining guarantees of personal liberty and equality." Mr. W. T. Stead writes from Moscow an interesting account of the election campaign for this Duma, which we print on another page. This stand evidently indicates the election of a large faction of the Liberals,—such men as Count Heyden, Ivan Petrunkevitch, the radical leader Naboukov, and others,—in this first Russian national assembly. In the opinion of the zemstvoists, the fundamental defect of the Czar's scheme lies in the absence of personal guarantees; and, in their programme, they, in common with the nobles, make demands for such guarantees. They ask responsibility before the law for all private individuals and officials alike; immediate recognition of the inviolability of person and domicile; guarantee of the freedom of conscience, speech, assembly, and the press; abolition of the passport system; trial by jury; the separation of the department of justice from the other branches of administration; the irremovability of judges; the abolition of capital punishment; drastic land-tenure reform; thorough reorganization of popular education, and the establishment of state insurance for workingmen. There is prospect of a tactical struggle in this coming assembly such as has not been seen for a century in Europe.



LINEVITCH THE UNDEFEATED.

(In this way, the German cartoon paper, *Ulk*, humorously sums up the present situation in Manchuria.)

*Japan Still
Dissatisfied
with the Peace
Terms.*

It is still felt by a large proportion of the Japanese people that the empire has really failed in what she set out to do when she went to war with Russia. After all the sufferings, burdens, and bereavements of two bloody and victorious campaigns, the Japanese people believed that they were entitled to dictate a peace the terms of which would be severe enough to effectually cripple Russian power in eastern Asia and to give the whole



DR. S. SUZUKI, SURGEON-GENERAL IN THE JAPANESE NAVY.

(See article on page 587.)

empire a feeling of security for the future. They contended that they do not want to have to fight Russia again, but they now fear that they may have to, although they are aware of the fact that probably never again will Japan be able to fight Russia under such favorable conditions. Many of the more progressive leaders condemn the government for its use of force in attempting to suppress the popular agitation over the unsatisfactory peace terms. In the light of editorial comment in the journals of Tokio, Yokohama, and Osaka during the past month, it is evident that the people hold the ministry responsible and will demand the downfall of the Katsura cabinet as the penalty for its ill-advised attempt to throttle public opinion by force. The government, it would seem, made a great mistake in adding to the natural dissatisfaction over the peace terms in Tokio by attempting to prevent the expression of this dis-

satisfaction in a legal and orderly manner. If the ministry had at once furnished the nation with a general summary of the peace terms and a statement of its reasons for acceding to them,—if it had published the provisions of the new Anglo-Japanese alliance, or had even informed the people that this alliance would insure future peace against the aggressions of Russia,—it is highly probable that serious trouble would have been averted. The Katsura cabinet, however, which has conducted a great war with such conspicuous ability and brilliant success, has not succeeded in the more difficult and more important question of satisfying the Japanese people.

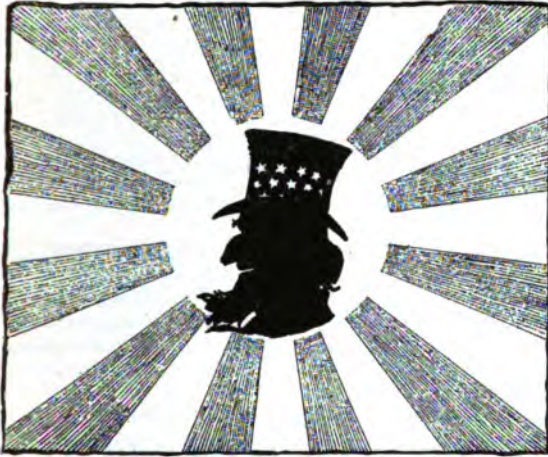
*—but Accepts
Them Philo-
sophically.* Friends of Japan all over the world, however, are strongly of the opinion that she took the wisest, shrewdest step possible when she came to peace with Russia on the terms agreed upon at Portsmouth. The Japanese people themselves, also, have evidently accepted philosophically what is already an accomplished fact. In an imperial rescript published upon the day of the ratification of the treaty, the Japanese Emperor warns the nation against pride, and asks his people not to show vainglorious boasting. He says further :

While maintaining military efficiency in full vigor, even in time of peace, it is desirable that an earnest endeavor should be made to attain success in peaceful pursuits, so that, in equal measure with its power, the prosperity of the country may be maintained and its permanent progress assured.

Martial law has now been abrogated throughout the empire, and the capital has resumed its wonted cheerful appearance,—a result to which the friendly visit of the British fleet, under Vice-Admiral Sir Gerald Noel, has contributed in no small degree. Late in October, Admiral Togo reached Tokio, and was received with great demonstrations, and the Japanese capital is preparing a splendid naval review in his honor.

*Japan
After the
Peace.*

Economic and commercial questions of vital import are now pressing for the consideration of the Mikado's government. It is now announced that, despite the claims of the Tokio government to be financially capable of a long war, the struggle has proved more costly than was calculated. Moreover, in view of the unfavorable weather during the past summer, the rice and cereal crops are expected to be smaller than the average, thus bringing real hard times to the masses of the people. According to her own official reports, also, the war cost her 72,400 dead, of which, thanks to her excellent sanitary arrangements and hospital service, only 26,400 perished of



AS ASIA NOW SEES THE RISING SUN.
From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).

disease and wounds. Dr. Suzuki, one of the Japanese naval surgeons, tells, on another page this month, how these splendid results were attained. According to a statement made by Count Okuma, leader of the Progressive party and formerly prime minister, before the Chamber of Commerce of Tokio, early in October, Japan will have a debt of \$1,250,000,000 as soon as she has withdrawn her troops from the continent. On this the interest alone will be, approximately, \$75,000,000 a year, nearly twice as much as the entire revenue of Japan a decade ago, and necessitating an additional *per capita* taxation of \$6. To lift this heavy burden from the shoulders of the people, Count Okuma and Baron Shibusawa, president of the National Bank and chairman of the Tokio Chamber of Commerce, have recommended to the government a number of measures for the advancement of international trade, industry, and finance, including the appointment of government commercial agents, the establishment of floating exhibitions of samples and museums in foreign ports, retrenchment of government expenses, and the establishment of a Chino-Japanese bank. A number of the Mikado's statesmen are known to favor a diversion of Japanese immigration from this country to Korea and Manchuria. The former country is now swarming with Japanese commercial agents, and it is generally believed that a real, exclusive Japanese protectorate will soon be established over the Hermit Kingdom.

Nothing more significant or impressive has happened as the result of the war between Russia and Japan than the slow but unmistakable awakening of China

to a national consciousness. As has been stated several times before in these pages, a widespread and well-organized propaganda of Western education under Japanese influence is being conducted in China, and the empire is filled with Japanese who are educating the nation. The national progressive movement is spreading rapidly, and is generally of an anti-foreign character, this being evidenced by the recent boycott against American goods. The boycott was directed against the United States ostensibly because of immigration restrictions, but, to those who know China and the Chinese, its deeper significance is that of the awakening of the vast empire to a national idea and to a conception, not merely of China for the yellow race, but of China for the Chinese. The imperial edict of July last authorized four missions to visit the principal countries of Europe and America to study their government, educational methods, and industries. These missions are now on their way through Japan. They had intended to study American conditions most thoroughly, but whether or not they will visit this country will be determined by the possibility of a relaxation in the strict exclusion laws of the United States.

A Modern
Chinese
Army.

Of great interest and moment to the Western world is the plan recently adopted for the complete reorganization of the Chinese army. This plan contemplates the division of the empire into military districts, and a service of nine years for all able-bodied males, who will be thoroughly drilled and equipped by modern methods. Within five years, this plan is expected to give China a modern army of half a million men. During the last week in October a review of 40,000 well-drilled, well-equipped Chinese troops was held not far from Peking, at which many foreign *attachés* and newspaper correspondents were present. With this in view, it is significant to note the formal protest made to the Russian and Japanese governments by the Chinese foreign office against those provisions of the Portsmouth treaty which provide for the evacuation of Manchuria in eighteen months and the right of both Japan and Russia to protect their respective holdings of the Chinese Eastern Railway by a guard of fifteen soldiers per kilometer. China regards eighteen months as entirely too long a period for the evacuation, and, moreover, considers herself quite competent to maintain order in Manchuria. She therefore objects to the permanent maintenance of such a number of foreign soldiers as this provision would permit.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From September 21 to October 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

September 21.—In the government prosecutions of the packers at Chicago, four officials of the Schwartzschild & Sulzberger Company plead guilty to the charge of conspiring to accept railroad rebates.

September 22.—United States District Attorney Morrison, at Chicago, announces that the Government will prosecute the railroads for giving rebates to shippers.

September 23.—Vice-President Fairbanks, Senator Foraker, and Governor Herrick open the Ohio Republican campaign with speeches.

September 25.—The health authorities of Mississippi and Tennessee agree to waive quarantine regulations to permit President Roosevelt to visit New Orleans.

September 28.—Representative John M. Williamson, of Oregon, is found guilty of conspiracy to defraud the Government in land deals....In an address before the Ohio Bankers' Association, Secretary Shaw urges a more elastic currency system.

September 30.—President Roosevelt returns to Washington after a summer vacation.

October 2.—Secretary Root assumes charge of the State Department and Secretary Taft returns to the War Department.

October 3.—The first cabinet meeting held at the White House since the summer vacation discusses the Chinese exclusion law.

October 4.—President John A. McCall, of the New York Life Insurance Company, testifies before the legislative investigating committee that his company has paid \$885,000 in five years to influence State legislatures.

October 5.—New York City Democrats (Tammany) renominate Mayor George B. McClellan.

October 6.—Massachusetts Republicans nominate Curtis Guild, Jr., for governor.

October 7.—Massachusetts Democrats nominate Charles W. Bartlett for governor.

October 9.—Charles E. Hughes, chief counsel in the legislative insurance investigation, declines the Republican nomination for mayor of New York.

October 12.—Rhode Island Democrats nominate ex-Governor Garvin for governor....William M. Ivis accepts the Republican nomination for mayor of New York City...William Randolph Hearst is nominated for mayor of New York City on a municipal ownership platform; John Ford receives the nomination for comptroller, and J. G. Phelps Stokes for president of the Board of Aldermen.

October 14.—President Roosevelt accepts the resignation of William F. Powell, United States minister to Haiti....Congressman Williams, of Oregon, is found guilty of subornation of perjury in connection with land frauds and sentenced to serve ten months in prison and to pay a fine of \$500.

October 16.—Arguments are heard by the United States Supreme Court in the appeal of ex-Senator Greene, of Binghamton, charged with conspiracy to defraud the Government in the postal cases.

October 17.—President Roosevelt issues an order which enables heads of government departments to discharge civil-service employees without filing charges and giving hearings.

October 18.—President Roosevelt leaves Washington on his Southern trip; he meets with an enthusiastic reception at Richmond, Va.... United States Senator Penrose, of Pennsylvania, makes a bitter attack on John Wanamaker and ex-Judge Gordon at a political meeting in Philadelphia.... District Attorney Jerome opens his campaign for reelection in New York City.... Rhode Island Republicans renominate Governor Utter.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

September 21.—It is announced that public meetings will be authorized in Russia, in view of the elections to the Duma; Mr. W. T. Stead obtains permission from the Czar to assist in organizing the meeting.... Additional Russian troops are ordered to the Baku district.

September 22.—Repressive measures against Finland are being carried out by the Russian Government.... The budget for Holland shows a deficit of nearly \$5,000,000.... In a political affray in Cienfuegos, Cuba, Colonel Dillundas, the Liberal leader, and the chief of police are killed, and several of their adherents wounded.

September 23.—In the Hungarian crisis, the Emperor's ultimatum to the coalition leaders is rejected by them.... The Cuban elections result in a sweeping victory for President Palma and the Moderate party.

September 25.—A political congress, consisting of three hundred delegates representing all parts of the Russian Empire, assembles in a private house at Moscow, with the consent of the authorities.... The Spanish senatorial elections take place.... The zemstvo congress at Moscow votes to aid the plan for the national assembly to force the government to grant real liberty.... The executive committee of the Hungarian opposition decides to summon a general conference to frame a reply to the Emperor.

September 26.—The Austrian Reichsrath reassembles.... The zemstvo congress at Moscow discusses the electoral organization and programme.

September 27.—In Hungary, the leaders of the coalition declare that some points of the programme laid before them by the Emperor are not in conformity with the constitution.... The zemstvo congress at Moscow demands sweeping reforms in the department of justice, and discusses the proposal for economy among all the nationalities in the empire.

September 29.—Alderman Vaughan Morgan is elected Lord Mayor of London.

October 2.—Hungarians demand of the Austrian premier an unequivocal explanation of his interference in electoral reforms.

October 3.—The Hungarian ministers discuss universal suffrage with the Emperor at Vienna.

October 5.—The total present debt of Japan is stated at \$1,250,000,000; annual interest, \$75,000,000.

October 8.—Rioting is renewed in Moscow.... The Workmen's Federation having declared a general strike

in Argentina, the national congress resolves to declare martial law throughout the country for ninety days.

October 10.—Emperor Francis Joseph again proclaims the Hungarian parliament; the coalition party presents its protests.

October 16.—Leaders of the Liberal party in Cuba urge their adherents not to vote at the coming election.

October 17.—Strike disorders are reported from many points in Russia....Baron Fejervary is reappointed Hungarian premier.

October 18.—Cossacks are employed to clear the streets of St. Petersburg.

October 19.—The new Hungarian cabinet is named.

October 20.—Troops are called on to disperse crowds at Moscow, where the railway employees are on strike.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

September 21.—The Cuban Government apologizes to the United States for the defilement of an American escutcheon on December 19....Norwegian and Swedish commissioners resume their conference....French and German authorities resume the Moroccan negotiations.

September 22.—More than forty memorials against the ratification of the peace treaty with Russia are laid before the Emperor of Japan....The Venezuelan Government refuses to hold further intercourse with the present French minister, on account of his protest in the cable case.

September 23.—A complete agreement is reached between the Swedish and Norwegian delegates at Karlstad.

September 24.—The Armenians and the Tatars sign a preliminary treaty of peace at Baku under the presidency of Prince Louis Napoleon, governor-general of the Caucasus.

September 25.—The draft agreement between Sweden and Norway is published in both capitals; Norway practically concedes the demand for the abandonment of the fortifications.

September 26.—The text of the new Anglo-Japanese alliance is made public....The Franco-German negotiations over Morocco are concluded and an agreement is signed....The six great powers notify Turkey that their decision to assume financial control of Macedonia is unalterable....Great Britain and China agree to a conference to conclude a new Tibetan treaty.

September 29.—Turkey expresses regret to Serbia for the arrest of Serbian subjects, but takes no notice of the demand for indemnity....St. Petersburg reports the signing of a new Franco-Russian commercial convention, becoming effective on March 1, 1906.

September 30.—Turkey seeks permission of Great Britain to expel from Macedonia Mr. James Bryce, who is journeying there.

October 2.—Turkey formally opposes the scheme of the six powers for the financial control of Macedonia....The Canadian authorities finally sign a warrant for extradition to the United States of Messrs. Gaynor and Greene.

October 4.—The Japanese proposal for the exchange of prisoners of war is accepted by Russia.

October 5.—A British cruiser forces the settlement of claims against Turkey for the piratical attacks of Arabs.



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPEAKING AT RICHMOND, VA.,
OCTOBER 18.

October 6.—The Japanese and Russian commanders in northern Korea are reported as unable to agree on terms of armistice.

October 8.—It is announced that the United States Government will oppose the ratification by Cuba of the new commercial treaty with Great Britain, as detrimental to American interests.

October 9.—The Norwegian Storthing, by a vote of 101 to 16, accepts the agreement for the dissolution of the union with Sweden....Germany and Great Britain agree to accept conditionally the invitation to a second peace conference....Chinese merchants agree to suspend the boycott on American goods, pending Congressional legislation on the exclusion laws.

October 12.—Fishermen from Gloucester complain that Newfoundland fishermen are interfering with their treaty rights.

October 14.—The Panama Government announces that it will pay only its share of the Colombian debt in proportion to the population of the Isthmus at the time when independence was declared and conditionally on Colombia's agreement to repay sums borrowed from Panama....Final ratifications of the Russo-Japanese peace treaty are exchanged between the Czar and the Mikado.

October 16.—The full text of the Russo-Japanese peace treaty is published at Tokio (see page 506).

October 17.—Business men of Cuba urge a commercial treaty with the United States.

October 19.—The Czar of Russia issues a manifesto on the ratification of peace with Japan.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

September 21.—Mount San Paolino, in Sicily, collapses owing to sulphur-mining operations; the town of Sutena is buried.

September 22.—A great lockout in the works of the two principal electrical engineering firms in Berlin, Germany, affects 8,000 workingmen....Twenty thousand workingmen go on strike in Łódź, Poland.

September 24.—Fire at Butte, Mont., destroys the public library and property worth \$1,250,000.

September 26.—The Corporation of the City of London votes to confer the freedom of the city on General William Booth, of the Salvation Army.

September 27.—Secretary Taft and most of his party arrive at San Francisco from their journey to the far East.

September 28.—The sunken steamship *Chatham*, which had on board ninety tons of dynamite, is successfully blown up in the Suez Canal....A reservoir with a capacity of 2,750,000,000 gallons is opened at Talla, in Peebleshire, giving Edinburgh a new supply of water....Mr. Witte arrives at St. Petersburg.

September 29.—The second of the twin tunnel tubes under the Hudson River, between New York and Jersey City, is completed....Heavy losses in life and property result from a typhoon in the Philippines.



DR. EMIL BERRING.

(The German bacteriologist, whose discovery of a cure for tuberculosis has caused a sensation in Europe.)

September 30.—The United States battleship *Mississippi* is launched at Philadelphia....The number of men out of employment because of the electrical lock-out in Berlin, Germany, is estimated at 33,000.

October 3.—The International Tuberculosis Congress meets in Paris.

October 8.—Yellow fever breaks out in Pensacola, Fla.

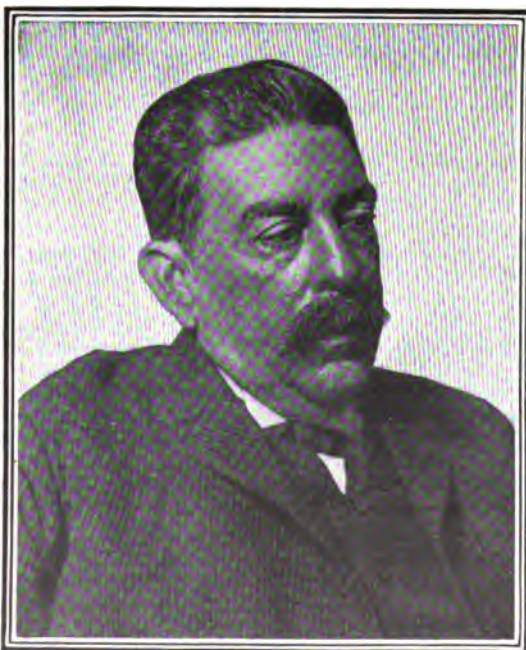
October 9.—President Roosevelt confers with leaders in college athletics with a view to improving standards....The committee on the selection of names for the Hall of Fame in New York elect James Russell Lowell, John Greenleaf Whittier, and Gen. William T. Sherman....A sanitary conference of American republics opens in Washington (see page 549).

October 11.—The American Bankers' Association meets in Washington.

October 14.—Hemery, of the French team, wins the second automobile race for the Vanderbilt Cup, over the Mineola, Long Island, course, covering the 283 miles in 4 hours, 36 minutes, and 8 seconds.

October 17.—Andrew Carnegie is installed as Lord Rector of St. Andrews....The Cotton Manufacturers' Association of Fall River, Mass., announces an advance in wages.

October 18.—After the death by suicide of its cashier, the Enterprise National Bank of Allegheny, Pa., is closed by order of the Comptroller of the Currency; prominent Republican politicians of Pennsylvania are implicated in the disaster to the bank.



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JOSÉ MIGUEL GOMEZ.

(The Cuban Liberal leader, now in the United States.)

October 20.—The ashes of Sir Henry Irving are interred in Westminster Abbey....President Roosevelt is welcomed by 100,000 people at Atlanta, and visits the birthplace of his mother at Roswell, Ga.

OBITUARY.

September 21.—Dr. Francisco Garcia Calderon, former president of Peru, 71....Frederick Flores Galindo, the Peruvian poet....Col. Frank Rhodes, 54.

September 22.—Ex-Gov. Charles T. O'Ferrall, of Virginia, 65....Col. Ivan N. Walker, formerly commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 66....Francis H. Peabody, the Boston banker, 74....Ex-Gov. Henry Howard, of Rhode Island, 78....Rudolf Baumbach, the German poet, 64.

September 23.—Ex-Gov. John M. Hamilton, of Illinois.

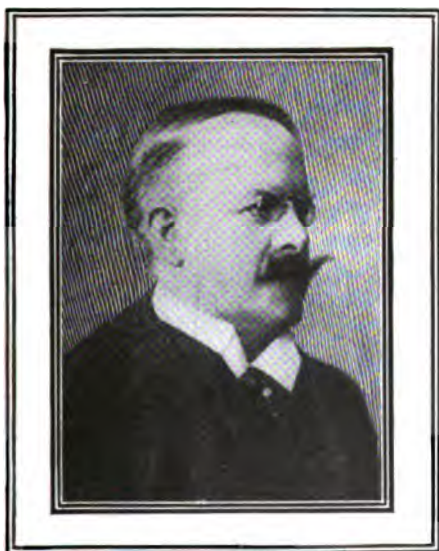
September 24.—The Very Rev. Dr. Henderson, Dean of Carlisle, 86....Rt. Rev. Dr. W. K. Macrori, late Bishop of Maritzburg and Canon of Ely, 74....Dr. Hamilton, Canon of Durham, 82.

September 25.—M. Godefroy Cavaignac, former French minister of war, 52.

September 26.—Prof. Mortimer L. Earle, of Columbia University, 41.

September 27.—Wheeler H. Peckham, an eminent New York lawyer and reformer, 73....Jacob Litt, the theatrical manager, 48.

September 28.—Frank Beard, the well-known Amer-



THE LATE DR. THOMAS J. BARNARDO.

(The great London philanthropist. See Mr. W. T. Stead's article on "The Father of Nobody's Children" in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for August, 1896.)

ican illustrator, 63....T. Edgar Pemberton, the English dramatist, 56....Miss Flora Stevenson, chairman since 1900 of the Edinburgh school board, 65.

September 29.—Dr. Theodore Woolsey Heermance, director of the American School at Athens, 30.

October 3.—Associate Justice James Madison Barker,



"CURTAIN!"

(A characteristic tribute from Cartoonist Bush, of the New York World, to the late Sir Henry Irving.)

of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, 66....José Maria de Heredia, poet and member of the French Academy, 63....Dr. William P. Tonry, the well-known chemist and toxicologist of Baltimore, 65.

October 4.—Dr. Henry D. Didama, of the Syracuse University Medical College, 82.

October 5.—Senator Carlos Walker Martinez, leader of the Conservative party in Chile, 63.

October 6.—Edhem Pacha, commander-in-chief of the Turkish army in the war with Greece, 54.

October 7.—Baron Ferdinand von Richthofen, the German geographer, 72.

October 8.—Lord Inverclyde, chairman of the Cunard Steamship Company, 44.

October 9.—Dr. John A. Ouchterlony, of Louisville, Ky., 67.

October 10.—Samuel Frederick Nixon, Speaker of the New York Assembly, 45.

October 12.—Gen. William T. Clark, one of the last surviving major-generals of the Civil War, 74....Ex-Chief Justice Edwin M. Paxson, of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, 81....Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell, for many years active in New York philanthropic movements, 63....Prince Sergius Troubetskoï, Russian Liberal leader, 43.

October 13.—Sir Henry Irving, 67 (see page 550).

October 15.—Rev. George Thomas Packard, of Jamaica Plain, Mass., 61....William M. Armstrong, who was attorney-general of the Hawaiian Islands during the reign of King Kalakua.

October 16.—Stephen Francis Gale, one of the oldest settlers in Chicago, 93....William Lewis Fraser, formerly art manager of the *Century Magazine*, 64.

October 17.—Thomas Mills Day, a member of the famous Yale class of 1837, 87.

SOME POLITICAL CARTOONS OF THE
SEASON.

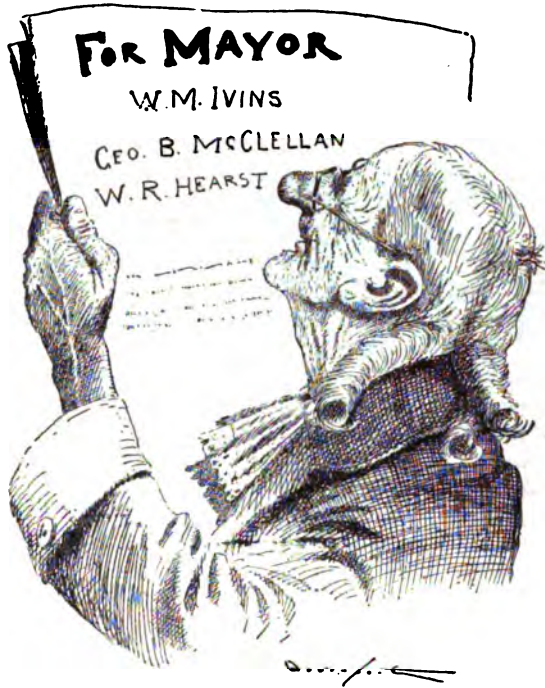


NEW YORK'S DISTRICT ATTORNEY, WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME, IN THE BOSSES' DEN.

From the *World* (New York).



TAMMANY LEADER MURPHY "SEEIN' THINGS AT NIGHT."
(His visitors are Ivins, Hearst, and Jerome.)
From the *Press* (New York).



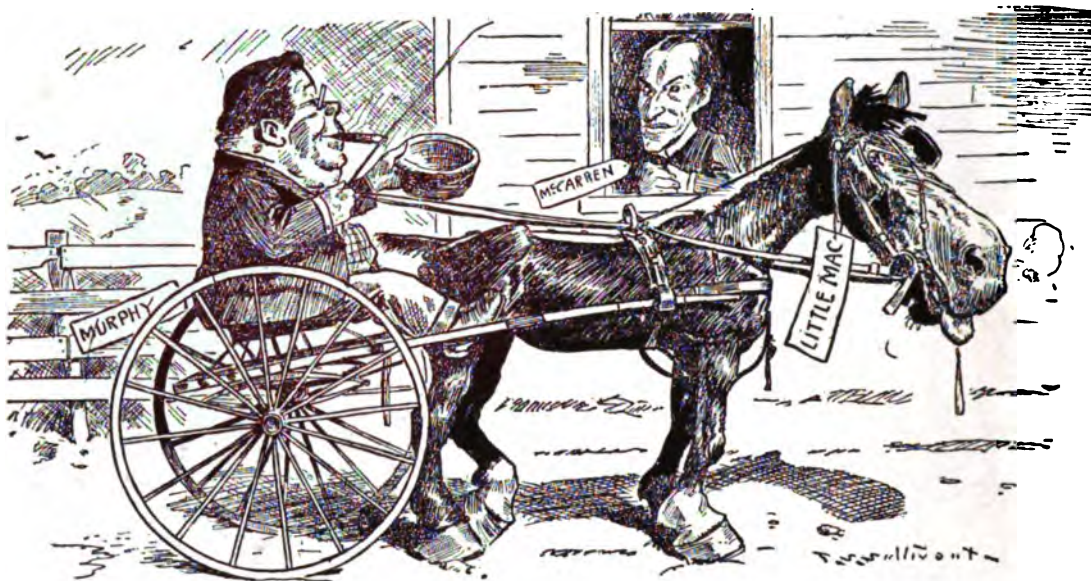
FATHER KNICKERBOCKER PUZZLED AS TO HIS CHOICE FOR MAYOR.—From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



THANK YOU, NO!
(Chief Counsel Hughes declines the nomination for mayor.)
From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).

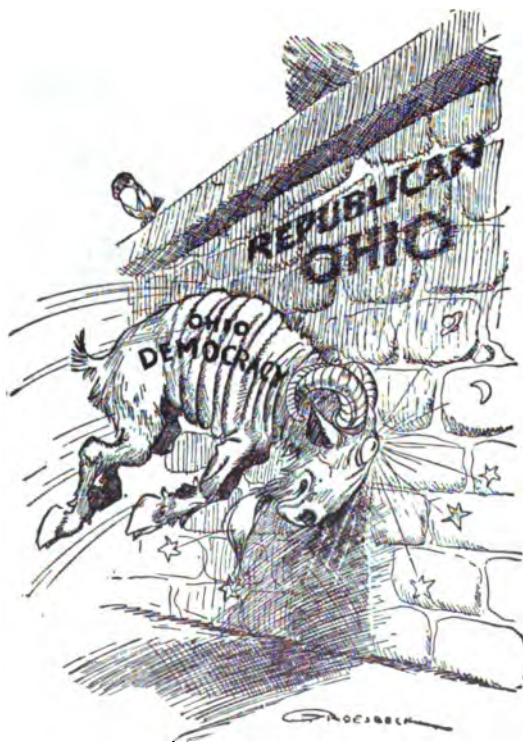


IVINS AS THE MAILED KNIGHT WHO FEARS NO FOR.
From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).



DAVID HARUM UP TO DATE.

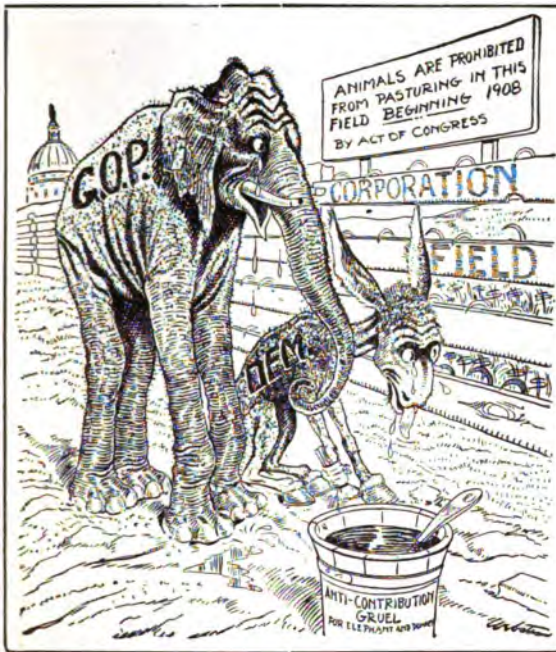
LEADER MURPHY: "That hoes aint got a scratch ner a pimple on him. He's sound an' kind an' 'ill stand without hitchin', an' a lady c'd drive him as well's a man."—From the *American* (New York).



THE OHIO DEMOCRACY UP AGAINST IT AGAIN.
From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).

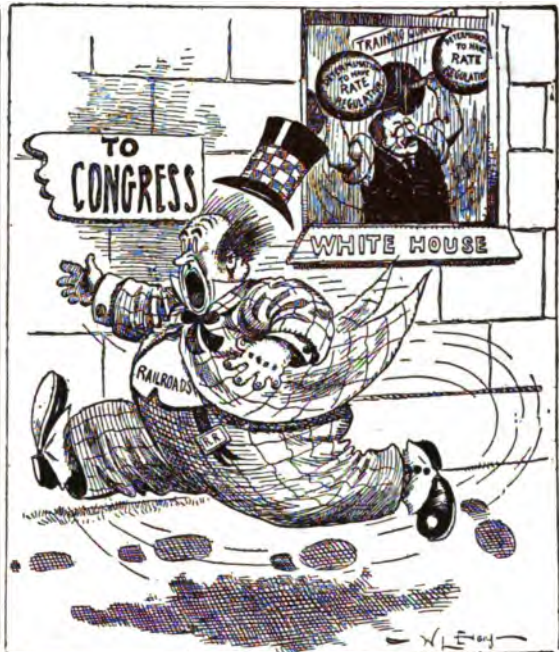


MAYOR DUNNE, OF CHICAGO, SORELY IN NEED OF HELP.
From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



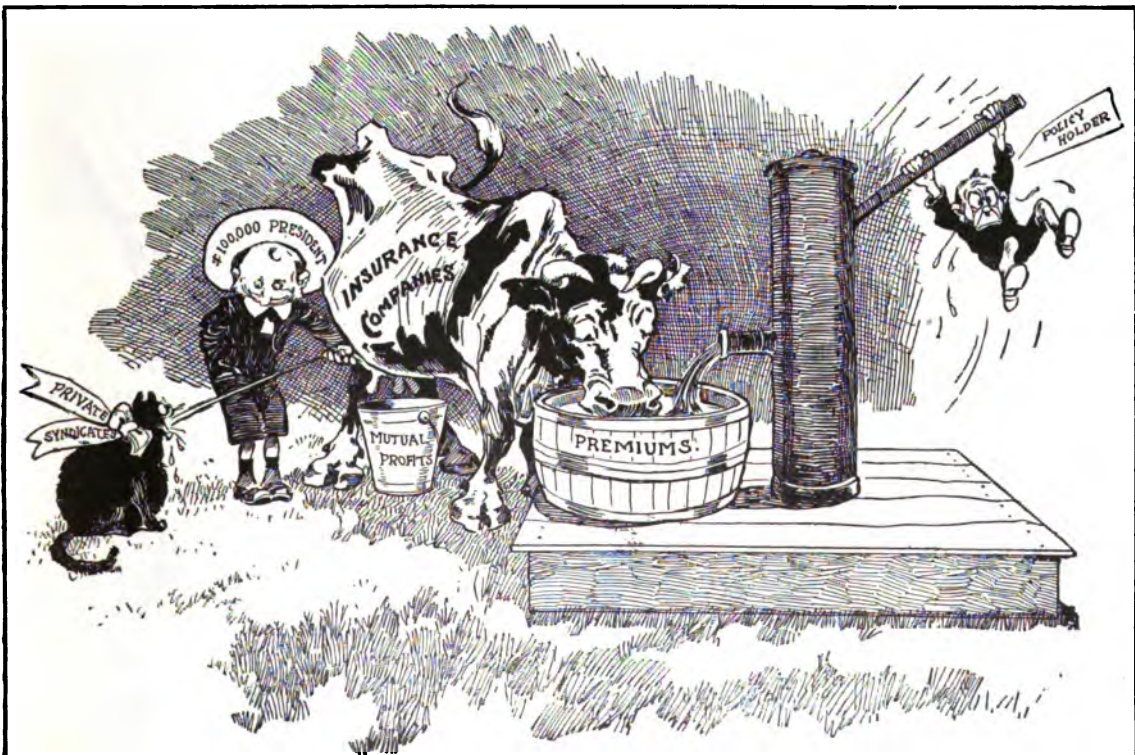
A GLOOMY OUTLOOK FOR THE ANIMALS IN THE NEXT NATIONAL CAMPAIGN.

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



THE PRESIDENT'S DETERMINATION TO HAVE RATE REGULATION CAUSES WORRY TO THE RAILROAD MAGNATES.

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



THE INSURANCE SITUATION.—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE THREE R'S.

Professor Roosevelt will impress them upon the pupils of the Congress School.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT BEING WELCOMED TO DIXIE LAND.
From the *Post* (Washington).

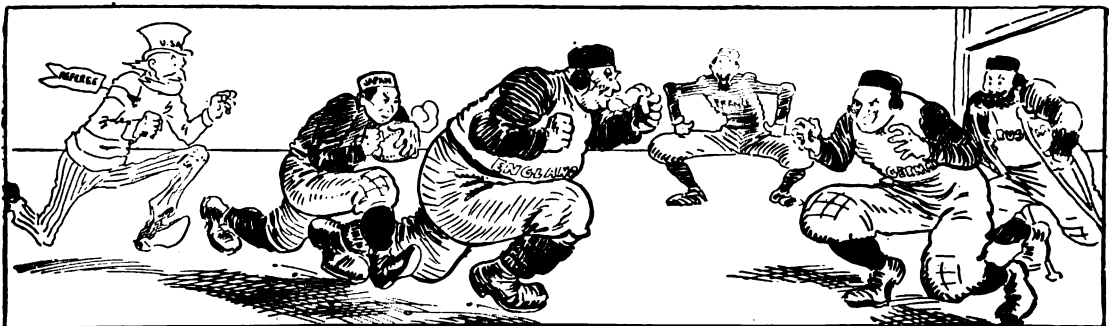


WHAT IT MAY COME TO.

(Peace Missionary Roosevelt in a new rôle.)
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



CHORUS OF GRAFTERS AT THE WINDOW: "I wonder what he's going to say about us?"—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



THE NEW TANDEM IN THE INTERNATIONAL GAME.—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



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MEMBERS OF THE INTERNATIONAL SANITARY CONGRESS.

(Seated, reading from left to right: Dr. Joaquín Yela [Guatemala]; Dr. D. E. Laverria [Peru]; Hon. Williams C. Fox [United States]; Dr. Eduardo Moore [Chile]; Surgeon-General Walter Wyman [United States], president of the congress; Dr. Juan J. Ulloa [Costa Rica]; Dr. Juan Guiteras [Cuba]; Dr. E. B. Barnet [Cuba]; Dr. H. L. E. Johnson [United States].)

THE INTERNATIONAL SANITARY CONGRESS AT WASHINGTON.

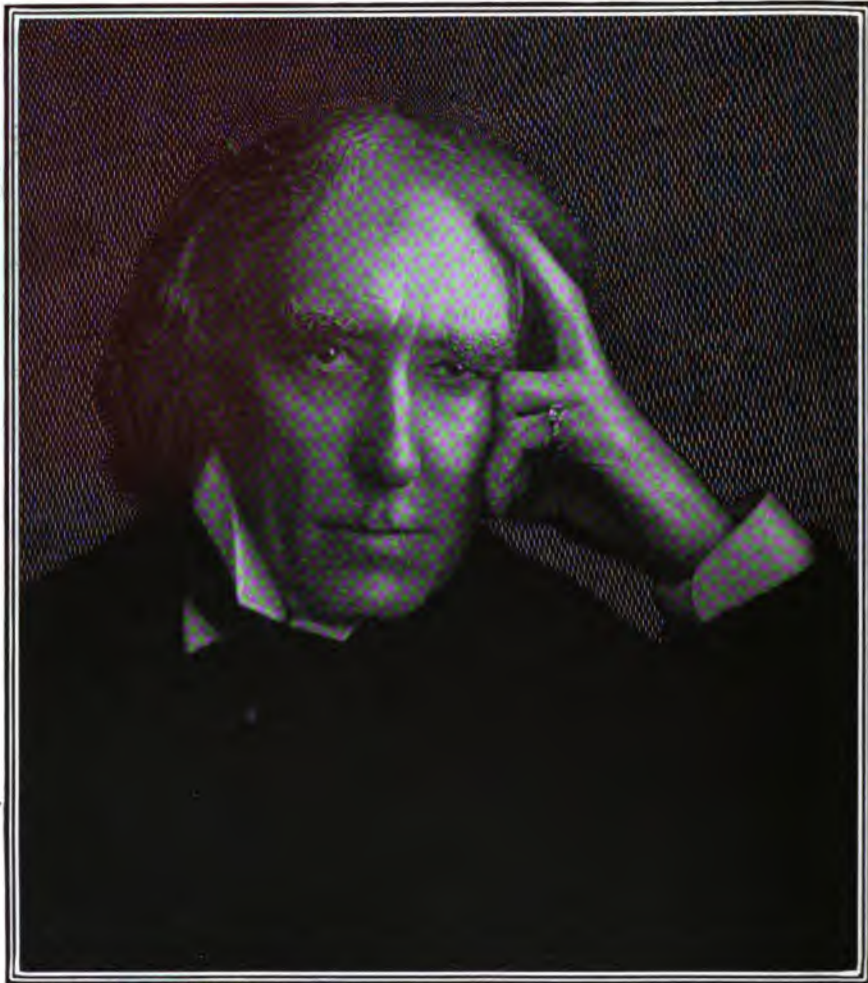
THE recent outbreak of yellow fever in the South, and especially at New Orleans, followed by the bitter controversy between the sovereign States of Mississippi and Louisiana regarding the enforcement of what the latter looked upon as unjust and harsh quarantine measures, tends to add increased importance and interest to the meeting of the International Sanitary Congress, held at Washington, October 9-14. This body met, representing twelve American republics, with a view to formulating some uniform quarantine regulation which would be acceptable to the respective governments represented, and which, while affording absolute protection against infection, would do away with unnecessary expense and hardship. The result of the conference was a convention of forty-nine articles which the several American republics will be asked to ratify and enact into a law.

While the convention deals with sanitary problems generally and other matters properly coming before such a body, those sections relating to quarantine regulation are undoubtedly the most important and of greatest interest to the public at the present time. Accepting the widely circulated mosquito-transmission theory, the con-

vention replaces the shotgun with a mosquito net and substitutes citronelli oil and kerosene for the noisome fumigant.

It provides, further, that upon the entrance of an infected vessel into a port all fever patients shall be at once removed and screened in gauze cages, the mosquitoes on board destroyed, and the cargo unloaded by immune dock hands, or, lacking these, that the laborers who do this work shall remain under the eye of the medical inspector six days. After these precautions have been taken, there is no further detention of the vessel. One inspection of a ship suffices. The mails are to be allowed free transmission between the different countries, regardless of the health conditions at the points from which they are sent, and the convention provides that there shall be no interference with trains at boundary lines or frontiers.

To Surgeon-General Walter A. Wyman, president of the congress, the credit is largely due for its existence and the results it has achieved. The Hon. Williams C. Fox, director of the Bureau of American Republics, has also taken a very active interest in the work of the congress, acting as host.



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SIR HENRY IRVING.

SIR HENRY IRVING, who died suddenly after a performance at Bradford, England, on the night of October 13, at the age of sixty-seven, was universally recognized as the foremost English-speaking actor. He was, moreover, a great stage manager,—certainly the greatest, from the artistic standpoint, of modern times. Born in poverty and known in early life as John Henry Brodribb, without influential friends, surrounded in the early years of his professional career with difficulties innumerable, he rose by sheer force of his own unaided abilities to the highest place upon the English stage. He rose rapidly, too, all things considered. He began as a youth of eighteen. Long before he was forty his complete triumph was acknowledged. That triumph came, after more than one failure, with Irving's rendition of the part of *Mathias* in

"The Bells,"—a part which he acted on the last night but one of his life. Taking the management of the Lyceum Theater, in London, Irving soon put that playhouse in the first rank, making it notable for all time as the scene of his productions of "The Merchant of Venice," "Faust," "Macbeth," "Henry VIII.," "King Lear," "Becket," and scores of other successful plays. Miss Ellen Terry acted *Ophelia* to Irving's *Hamlet*, and *Portia* to his *Shylock* in the "Merchant of Venice." Together, Irving and Terry acted in the latter play for two hundred and fifty consecutive nights at the Lyceum. Their repeated tours of the United States made them the favorites of the American play-going public. Irving was knighted by Queen Victoria in 1895,—an unprecedented distinction for an actor. His ashes repose in Westminster Abbey.

THE DRIVING POWER OF LIFE INSURANCE.

BY D. P. KINGSLEY.

(Vice-President of the New York Life Insurance Company.)

[Last month there appeared in this magazine Mr. Walter Wellman's review of the life-insurance situation, with his criticisms upon the general methods employed by the great companies. We then informed our readers that in this month's issue there would appear an article written from the standpoint of the expert insurance man who believes in the general principles and methods that have built up the business of several of the insurance societies to stupendous dimensions. The following article, written by Mr. Kingsley, vice-president of the New York Life Insurance Company, undertakes to state affirmatively what the great companies have achieved, and to defend,—not the abuses or faults that may have come to light,—but what he deems the soundness of the policies which have brought the great companies where they are to-day. It is an article that will be read with interest by all who are following the pending discussion.—THE EDITOR.]

THE great American life insurance companies have moved with the spirit of the age. They have made mistakes, but they have not trifled. They have sometimes followed bad judgment, but they have worked incessantly. In common with every great organized human enterprise, they have occasionally developed incompetent and dishonest men; but, on the other hand, the extent and quality of their achievements show to the satisfaction of every fair mind that fine integrity, as well as ability of a high order, has controlled and guided them first and last. Upon the whole, they have kept pace with the very best developments of a marvelous age.

The thing to consider in estimating the work of these companies is not chiefly what mistakes they have made, or wherein they have been wrong, although in a life insurance company mistakes and wrongdoing are subjects for more serious consideration than in any other style of corporation. Still, the real question to consider is, What have the companies really done? Has it been worth while? Has it added something to the sum of human comfort and human advancement? Does it overtop and overwhelm the errors, the bad judgment, which are admitted?

ACHIEVEMENTS OF A DECADE.

Let us glance at a few of the things that three companies located in New York City have done alone within ten years:

First.—They have induced millions of people, drawn from every race, religion, and nationality, to forget their prejudices and remember their duties. Coöperating under a system of mutual protection and investment, these people have paid in cash into a common fund more than \$1,400,000,000.

Second.—They have made their invested funds earn over \$377,000,000.

Third.—They have paid claims by death amounting to over \$430,000,000.

Fourth.—They have paid other benefits to policy-holders amounting to over \$365,000,000.

Fifth.—They have paid altogether to the policy-holders more than \$796,000,000.

Sixth.—They have in ten years increased the number of people insured by over 1,200,000.

Seventh.—They have added to the amount of the insurance protection of the world nearly \$2,400,000,000.

Eighth.—They have increased their resources by over \$696,000,000, and now hold over \$1,244,000,000 for the security and ultimate payment of their contracts.

Ninth.—They have over 2,100,000 living contracts, which will provide their holders, in case of death, with nearly \$5,000,000,000.

Tenth.—By their energy and desire to enforce the principle of mutuality, they have reformed the life-insurance contracts of the world. The life policy of to-day is as unlike the policy of a few years ago as the machinery of the modern cotton factory is unlike the old spinning-jenny. As the result of this—

Eleventh.—They have increased loans to their policy-holders, which ten years ago amounted to \$5,000,000, to over \$86,000,000 at the end of 1904.

Twelfth.—Two of the three companies have devised thoroughly scientific methods of insuring sub-standard lives. One of the three within nine years has issued and placed \$190,000,000 of insurance on lives more or less impaired, lives on which little, if any, insurance could have been obtained elsewhere. This was as distinct an achievement, as definite an addition to the sum of human helpfulness, as a discovery in medical science or improvements in methods of transportation would be. Only a large company could have done it; only a large company,

and the spirit that made it large, would have done it.

Thirteenth.—In spite of all criticism, there is not the slightest doubt in the mind of any intelligent man of their solvency, of the existence of large surpluses, and of their ability to meet obligations greatly in excess of all liabilities.

Fourteenth.—At the present time, they are paying on deferred-dividend contracts, maturing during the lifetime of the insured, from 20 to 100 per cent. more than is guaranteed in the contract itself.

Fifteenth.—The ratio of expenses to premium receipts, notwithstanding an enormously greater new business, was less in 1904 than it was in 1894.

Sixteenth.—The ratio of expenses, taking into account the new business done, is less than that of the smaller companies.

Seventeenth.—Finally, they have handled nearly \$2,000,000,000 in cash with losses through faults of administration so small that it is hardly possible to make a ratio.

THE AGENCY SYSTEM JUSTIFIED BY RESULTS.

These results are large, but they are more wonderful for their quality than for their size. They have been achieved through the methods of ordinary business, by dealings with men in the general world of affairs. These methods are now under fire. The criticisms run along these lines:

We are told that *a company should have no agents*. As well attempt to establish a church without preachers. Few people go directly to a church and ask to be enrolled. Few people will go to a life insurance company and ask membership. The reason is the same in each case. No religion has ever reached and served humanity without organization, without devotees, without the contagious example of enthusiastic advocates. No life insurance company has ever achieved anything worth while without driving its principles home through men—through agents. The attempt has been frequently made to do a life business by intellectual processes merely. The result has always been respectable inanition. There is a sort of Unitarianism in life insurance. There is also a Methodism; and the fire of Roman Catholicism. The great companies are all akin, in their methods, to the aggressive churches. They have followed the same methods, and, in their determination to reach the people, they may even be said at times to have been as undignified and as useful as the Salvation Army.

A DEFENSE OF DEFERRED DIVIDENDS.

We are told that *the deferred-dividend plan is vicious*. Yet it has been as effective in propagat-

ing this gospel as the doctrine of rewards and punishments has been in spreading Christianity. It has been effective because it meets most perfectly the two functions of good life insurance,—protection for dependents and protection against advancing age. The second is just as legitimate and just as necessary as the first. Under the deferred-dividend plan, men agree to help one another as against advancing age, just as they agree to help one another, through insurance, as against the contingency of death. Insurance is necessary because no man knows when he will die; he cannot afford to take the risk alone. Just as no man knows who of a group of men will die within twenty years, so no man knows who of the group will live twenty years. All who live beyond that period will have moved a long way toward that part of life where physical and mental weakness begins. Here is a hazard and a weakness as definite as the hazard of death. By coöperation in the use and distribution of surplus payments and earnings and mortality savings,—which is only another way of describing the deferred-dividend system,—men measurably meet this hazard. The system is juster, stronger, more attractive, and more efficient than the system which distributes surplus annually. It appeals to men. It furnishes capital with which to spread the gospel of insurance. It has done more, perhaps, than any other single device to make life insurance the factor it has come to be in the economic development of the world.

ARE EXPENSES TOO HIGH?

We are told that *the business has cost too much*. Generally speaking, it has cost most in the companies that have done least. The test applied by current criticism is to find out what the ratio is between expenses and total income. This ratio is supposed by its size to indicate extravagance or economy. As a matter of fact, there are few tests so inconclusive, few that prove so little as to the wisdom or unwisdom of a company's management. This ratio is certain to be high in any active, successful company, however wisely managed. This arises from the fact that while new business ultimately pays its own acquisition expense and is not a charge on business done in previous years, still the initial expense always exceeds the expense-loading in the first year's premium. Practically all new business anticipates and uses some portion of the loading of future premiums. The loading is added for that purpose. The portion anticipated is returned as future premiums are paid; but it follows inevitably that a large new business, however soundly done, means that this style of ratio will be high. A company in which this

ratio is 25 per cent. may be managed wisely ; and another in which this ratio is 18 per cent. may be managed extravagantly ; and another in which the ratio is only 10 per cent. may be paying excessive prices for business. The real question is : What does a company get for the money it spends ? If a company spends 25 per cent. of its income in a year and gets in return a large, well-selected business, done under reasonable contracts with agents, it has done well, it is growing—growing both in strength and usefulness. If a company spends 18 per cent. of its income annually and gets a very small business, done under extravagant contracts and haphazard management, it has not done well—it is not growing either in strength or usefulness. If a company spends only 10 per cent. of its income annually, that fact alone is almost conclusive proof that it is passing into a condition of inanition and relative uselessness. The little business that such a company does is likely to be done at a heavier cost than the business done by a company with a virile organization. Sound organization generally means economy ; success breeds success. A just study of expenses must include a consideration of what expenditure brings. In the great companies, it has brought enormous development, the widest usefulness, the vigor of an almost immeasurable strength, and returns to the insured which with proper allowance for the cost of indemnity surpass the returns realized during the same time on conservative investments. The ratio under discussion is higher here than abroad because of the larger relative volume of business done here. It is higher now than it was thirty years ago, chiefly because of the greater activities of the companies, their rapid growth and increasing usefulness through the acquisition of new business.

PREMIUMS LOWER HERE THAN ABROAD.

We are told that *premiums are too high*. This indicates a short memory. We are just clear of a period in the development of life insurance full of scandals, losses, and sufferings, caused by attempts to do business with inadequate premiums. Assessment insurance flourished on the cry that the level-premium companies were robbers ; but the operation of a law as inexorable as the law of gravitation answered all such charges and shut the doors of all such enterprises. Premium rates are singularly uniform all over the world. They have been arrived at by using both theory and practice. They have not to any extent been fixed by agreement. The surprising fact, as against this criticism, is that rates are lowest where life insurance is most vigorous, where "expenses," so called, are heavi-

est. The rates of the great American companies are lower than the rates of the English or the German or the French companies. For example, the rate charged for a life policy at age 35 by the New York Life is \$28.11 ; by the Gotha, of Germany, \$29.60 ; by the Equitable, of London (which employs no agents), \$29.92 ; by the Générale, of France, \$30.70. A sufficient premium rate is the very foundation of life insurance. That the great companies have not cut rates in the keen competition for business shows that they have not made such a god of new business as the critics of the hour claim. To reduce premiums would be the first device of weakness, the first resort of irresponsible ambition. With a falling rate of interest, with the adoption of more equitable and liberal policy conditions, premium rates in this country have steadily moved toward a higher level. It would be as fatuous to fix a maximum premium rate by law as it would have been to fix the relative value of gold and silver by law. France is about to fix a minimum premium rate. She proposes to see that no company makes less than an adequate charge. The new French rates, which are the result of most careful study, will probably be in excess of any corresponding rates used in this country.

SHALL THE COMPANIES STOP GROWING ?

We are told that *the companies have gone mad in their desire for mere bigness*. An explanation of the growth of these companies involves more than ambition, more than the impetus of vanity. It involves an appreciation of an unparalleled opportunity and the inspiration that naturally comes from such an outlook. Even Standard Oil cannot be explained without making a large allowance for brains and hard work.

We are told that *the growth of the companies must be limited by law*. If an intelligent supervision and a sound system of accountability, exercised by the State or by the federal government, results in checking the growth of life insurance companies, no one will complain. But if we fix limits which paternally kill, why not paternally say that people shall have only so many hospitals, only so many schools, only so much sunshine. Any plan which aims to kill, and not rationally to regulate, must be in effect a declaration that coöperation, the great hope of the modern world, has broken down utterly in its first trial. It has not broken down, but it may be possible to break it down. The whole matter will adjust itself without paternal interference. It is probable that the top of the curve expressing the growth of the great life companies has already been passed. The margin

of insurance added each year over insurance lost from all causes is already growing smaller. With any rational limitation of expenses, this margin will very probably soon be wiped out. This would mean the limit of a company's growth in the matter of outstanding insurance, and would in turn necessarily fix a limit to the assets. There could be no objection to a limitation achieved in that way.

We are told that *we should have a standard policy form*. Why not paternally legislate that all women should wear dresses of the same color, made after the same pattern? It would be as American and as rational.

We are told that *such great accumulations of money are dangerous*. Public debts vastly in excess of these accumulations do not seem to alarm us. The waste of the last eighteen months in Manchuria surpasses by more than two to one the combined accumulations of the three great companies at the end of sixty years. Is waste, and loss, and debt, then, a better thing than prudence, and savings, and the vast conservative force which these assets represent?

None of these criticisms really express a comprehensive knowledge of what life insurance is, or why these three companies have made such enormous successes. Few of the suggested reforms are of value, because nearly all of them assume that there is something inherently wrong or evil in life insurance itself.

THE REAL MEANING OF LIFE INSURANCE.

A brief consideration of the fundamental ideas and moving forces which lie back of this development will give us a better view of what life insurance really means.

Life insurance is first of all a conviction. The insurant is almost always a convert. The man who directs a life company with any measure of success is always full of moral as well as physical energy. No man can understand life insurance and believe in it and preach it effectively who does not feel its driving power. The genuine life-insurance man is a descendant of those men who have through all history accomplished something, acting under the force of an impulse which is as much moral as mental.

The idea of life insurance implies, not merely a duty to dependents, but a duty to other men. Life insurance deals with human life, and human life is the most important fact within the range of human knowledge. All organized society is an attempt, in some form, to advance the condition, to improve the outlook, to husband the power of human life. Governments are human life protecting, guarding, and developing itself. Religions are human life struggling with the

problems of origin and end. Philosophies, from the Epicurean to the Spencerian, deal with the same problem.

Life insurance differs from all other attempts to conserve and protect human life in that it realizes from the outset the thing of supreme value. Indirectly, it seeks to advance the interests of the world through sound morals and sound finance and good hygiene and all rational agencies; but, directly, it cuts across all ordinary processes and boldly declares that the one thing of supreme value in this world is human life. With this it deals direct, just as the merchant deals with merchandise and the philosopher with his dreams. Dealing with this precious material, what ought its ambitions to be? What should it seek to accomplish? What ought its development to be? What ideals should it have?

SIGNIFICANCE OF GROWTH.

Most human enterprises are restricted by material or by opportunity. Life insurance has no such limitations. From the beginning, it faced a universal need; it dealt with the source of all values. The wonder is, not that great things have come out of the life-insurance idea, but rather that they did not come sooner. Its ambition could not be small. What it aimed to do, if well done could not be unimportant. Any real development must involve great numbers of men and great values. Ideals which could inspire a wise leadership in such an undertaking must be high.

The growth of a few life insurance companies is perhaps the most striking feature in an age full of remarkable activities. Most of the giants of modern corporate life are the result of amalgamation and combination. They are huge, but their parts existed before. This is particularly true of the great railroad systems and the great industrial enterprises. The tremendous expansion of certain life companies within recent years has been a distinct achievement. The development has been genuine growth. The fact that one company in six years added to its outstanding insurance a thousand million dollars, a sum equal to its outstanding insurance fifty-four years after its organization, makes a startling contrast in achievement; and that the last billion of insurance was secured at a saving of \$20,000,000 over the cost of the first billion makes an even more startling contrast in methods.

THE GREAT COMPANIES AS PIONEERS.

The life companies which have had this prodigious growth have not had an easy time,—the result was no accident. They have had to face all the problems and all the difficulties that

have confronted other corporations. They have had to do pioneer work. In carrying the gospel of life insurance to foreign lands, to countries where our ideas on the subject were almost unknown, where conditions were naturally hostile, they have duplicated much of the story of the early conquest of our own country.

They have been pioneers, too, in another field. They have first presented to the country generally, in concrete form, a definite expression of what coöperation and the modern way of doing things really involve. The ordinary man was not ready for this. He believed in coöperation; he believed that thereby his condition would be bettered; that he could eliminate waste and do away with much injustice. He did not understand, however, what it meant to have a million men combine for a definite purpose, running through a period of years. He wanted the product of coöperation, but with the processes necessary to achieve that product he is even now not familiar. He is more or less afraid of his own programme when it takes practical form.

There are real dangers attending all pioneer work. The men who settled the Ohio Valley, the men who discovered Oregon, made a contribution to the sum of human advancement and human comfort that is literally beyond all calculation; but in doing it, they faced very real dangers. It would be difficult to-day to find any one who would say that what they undertook was not worth while because it was attended with severe effort. The great American life companies, responding to the opportunity and to what may be called the driving power of the life-insurance ideal, faced most complex problems when they went beyond the borders of their own country carrying this gospel. They faced real dangers as they developed in their own country, dangers which will measurably disappear as the people come to comprehend the vast beneficence which these companies have already wrought, the vaster work which they must do, and when they come to understand, in addition, that coöperation does not mean a smaller world, but a larger one; not less power, but more; not a simpler civilization, but one vastly more complex.

One of the current questions is whether the companies were justified in facing these dangers aggressively? Wouldn't it have been better to let things drift? Wouldn't it have been easier to wait?

But suppose George Rogers Clark had waited instead of marching on Kaskaskia and Vincennes? Suppose Robert Livingston and James Monroe had shuffled over Louisiana in 1803? Suppose Lewis and Clark had delayed in fixing our title to the Oregon country? Suppose any

of our great opportunities as a nation had been faced flabbily instead of aggressively?

That the verdict concerning the pioneers and fighting leaders in life insurance will finally be exactly what it is now with regard to the great pioneers who so mightily influenced our destinies as a country is as certain as the future progress of the race. Just now, however, we are face to face with one of the periods of doubt and hesitation in the public mind. This arises—first, from the unfamiliarity of the public with such colossal results; and, second, from the development in the management of these enterprises of that weakness which can be traced in every human enterprise, a weakness which seldom if ever strikes very deep, and never seriously retards the progress of events.

SOME COMPANIES HAVE WASTED THEIR OPPORTUNITIES.

Striking illustrations of the present attitude of people toward life insurance are to be found in the frequent references now made to the Equitable Life Assurance Society of London, and to a gentleman, lately deceased, who was for thirty-five years the president of the Connecticut Mutual of Hartford. These two companies, the Equitable of London and the Connecticut Mutual, represent extreme illustrations of what one ideal of life insurance can produce; while the three great New York City companies are examples of what another ideal has thus far produced. The Equitable of London has been doing business for one hundred and fifty years under the most favorable conditions and in the very center of opportunity. The quality of what it has done is beyond discussion,—it is good. The quantity of its achievements is so pitiful alongside of what its opportunity and duty demanded that people who cite it as a life-insurance model can hardly understand the logic of their own reference. If what this company has done and is make it a model of what a life insurance company ought to do and to be, then we ought to stop using electricity and steam, we ought to substitute the stage-coach for the limited train, we ought to abandon the ocean greyhound and return to the sailing vessel.

The other company offers an equally striking illustration. When Mr. Jacob L. Greene became president of the Connecticut Mutual, in 1869, it was the largest and most prosperous life insurance company in the United States. When he died, recently, the company was smaller than when he took it and doing less than half the business annually that it did forty years earlier. There can be no discussion as to the opportunity which this company enjoyed from

1869 to 1905. We all know the history of our country, and know what has been done within that period. We are all proud of it. We know, in a general way, what it means to the world as well as to us. We know, too, that in working out this development many mistakes have been made. It was a hard tussle, a constant fight. But who, now that the lapse of time gives us a better comprehension of what was done, thinks much about the mistakes, except as they teach lessons for the future? Who doesn't rejoice that there was a struggle? Who isn't proud if it so happened that he or his forbears had a hand in the struggle?

It is difficult to find a man who will say that the railroad development of the country within forty years has not been worth while; there have been times when such men could be found a-plenty. It would be more difficult to find a man who will say that the development of the West during that time has not been worth while. It would be almost impossible to find a man who visited the St. Louis Exposition, faced the great peristyle of the States, and was not overwhelmed with the majesty and utility of a movement which, in spite of dangers, in spite of fears, in spite of mistakes, created those great commonwealths. Yet, we can find numbers of men to-day who look at the achievements of recent years in life insurance and have very grave doubts as to whether it was worth while. They are rather disposed to applaud and praise the trifler—the man who walked through this field of opportunity and did nothing; the men who had placed in

their hands the power to accomplish real things and threw it away. There is a disposition to applaud the record, or rather the lack of record, of a company like the old Equitable of London, and to commend the management of the Connecticut Mutual, both of which ran away from their duty and frittered away a glorious opportunity.

The great life companies have had to face all the dangers that have surrounded corporate development in recent years. The companies have had to deal with men, they have had to deal with legislators, they have had to deal with various laws variously administered by forty-five States, and as many other countries lying beyond our borders. They have made mistakes. They will make other mistakes. It is easy to exaggerate the mistakes; it is easy to refuse to see anything but these mistakes. It may take some time for the great public, which is now harried and alarmed, to comprehend that these stupendous achievements are after all thoroughly sound, and full of promise for the future.

In spite of errors, in spite of mistakes, in spite of some maladministration, the work of the great companies stands high among the things nobly done during this generation.

They have worked out the first great problem in coöperation. They have met a world-wide opportunity and need with adequate plans backed by enormous energy. They have rendered a service which in practical beneficence and usefulness, both to the individual and to the state, has not been surpassed.

THE JEW IN AMERICAN HISTORY.

BY MAX J. KOHLER.

(Corresponding secretary of the American Jewish Historical Society.)

ARRANGEMENTS are being made throughout the United States for the celebration, on Thanksgiving Day, of the two-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the settlement of the Jews in the United States, and representative Jews in every State and Territory are active on committees appointed to take charge of this commemoration. The approaching Thanksgiving Day will thus have a special significance for the million and a quarter of Jews residing in this land, who will then invoke God's blessing on this beloved country, which, first among the nations of modern times, recognized the Jew's title to all the rights of man, and permitted him, in common with all other members of the body politic, to

worship the Almighty Father according to the dictates of his own conscience.

In 1655, at a time when the terrors of the Inquisition threatened the Jew who disregarded Spanish and Portuguese edicts of expulsion, when France and most sections of Germany were closed to him, and when Menasseh ben Israel was about to begin his only partially successful negotiations with Cromwell for a repeal of Edward I.'s edict of expulsion of the Jews from England, the directors of the Dutch West India Company, which governed New York at the time, instructed Governor Stuyvesant, with respect to a petition submitted by professing Jews who had arrived at New Amsterdam from Bra-

zil the year before, that Jews "shall have permission to sail to and trade in New Netherland, and to live and remain there, provided the poor among them shall not become a burden to the Company or the community, but be supported by their own nation." Contemporary construction of this grant shows that it was not intended to be limited by unexpressed conditions, and hence it may be regarded as the first great charter of civil and political rights made to Jews in modern times. But the American Jews emphasize, in this commemoration, also the further fact that they are not mere recent arrivals and interlopers on this continent, but, without reference even to the very material aid they had afforded to Columbus in furtherance of his discoveries and their very extensive settlements in South America and the West Indies during the period immediately following the discovery, have been among the pioneers in this land, entitled to be counted, in priority of settlement, alongside of the Pilgrim Fathers and the Jamestown settlers.

As American precedents in the direction of Jewish emancipation and the good results flowing therefrom were invoked as potent arguments in favor of the bestowal of similar rights by the leaders of the French Revolution as well as by English Liberal leaders, and have been commended to the attention of Russia and Roumania in our own day by President Roosevelt and his late lamented Secretary of State, John Hay, it is obvious that interest in this anniversary is not confined to the Jews living on this side of the Atlantic. Nay more, questions concerning establishment of religious liberty commonly presented themselves in history connected with political consequences, advantageous or disadvantageous, to be apprehended, especially in relation to struggles between Christian and Mohammedan, Catholic and Protestant, High Church and Low Church, so that it may be doubted whether any better example can be found anywhere than in the matter of treatment of the Jew, for the study of the development of religious liberty. In America the Jew first achieved equality before the law. In the beautiful language of David Dudley Field, "the greatest achievement ever made in the cause of human progress is the total and final separation of the state from the Church;" this nation "first rent the shackles that priestly domination had been forging for centuries, and solemnly decreed that no man should dare intercept the radiance of the Almighty upon the human soul."

EARLY JEWISH RELATIONS TO AMERICA.

In spite of prohibitions upon Jewish settlement in Spanish and Portuguese lands, Jews

settled in ever-increasing numbers in South America and the West Indies during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, though the chief sources of our information concerning them are the bloody records of the Inquisition. In singular contrast to the Spanish adventurer, the Jew proved to be a particularly valuable economic acquisition, and we find that it was chiefly through his efforts that Brazil's sugar factories and diamond interests developed, nearly all the profitable centers of these industries being in Jewish hands, and becoming practically valueless after their expulsion, in 1654. Some idea of the enormous number in which Jewish fugitives from the Iberian Peninsula settled in Brazil is afforded by the circumstance that over five thousand resided in the city of Recife alone at the time of its surrender by the Dutch to the Portuguese, shortly before the Dutch grant now being commemorated.

The grant of 1655 expressly recites, among the inducing causes for its promulgation, the heavy losses sustained by the Jews by reason of the surrender of Brazil and the heavy Jewish holdings of stock in the Dutch West India Company, among whose directors they were also to be counted. In fact, the proffer of Jewish assistance in effecting a proposed capture of Brazil was largely instrumental in shaping the character of the charter awarded to the Dutch West India Company on its organization, and the pecuniary returns from these very features made possible such economically unattractive colonizing efforts as the settlement of New Amsterdam. When the Dutch capitulation of Brazil took place, in 1654, thousands of fugitive Jews, frequently despoiled of their property, fled northward to the West Indies, and a small party of twenty-three arrived on the ship *St. Caterina* at New Amsterdam about September 1, 1654. Stuyvesant's reception of them was decidedly unfriendly and hostile, and the grant of 1655 was made in answer to a petition to the directors asking for relief against the measures of the irascible, bigoted governor.

Coming down, then, more specifically to the history of the Jews within the present limits of the United States, it should be noted that we may divide that history into three periods, each of which may be designated as marked by the arrival of a different stream of immigration. The first period, ending about 1812, may be styled the period of Sephardic migration, most of the Jewish settlers being of Spanish or Portuguese stock, and numbering in all only about three thousand at the close of the period for the whole United States, about one-sixth of whom had settled in New York; next came the period

of German migration, running down to about 1880, when the total Jewish population of the country was estimated at about 250,000, of which number about 100,000 resided in New York City. An appreciable number of Austro-Hungarian and Polish immigrants arrived during the closing decades of this period, other nationalities being also represented. It is due chiefly to the heavy migration from Russia and Roumania since 1880, by reason of anti-Semitic persecution, that the Jewish population of the country has increased during the past twenty-five years from about a quarter of a million to a million and a quarter, and of Greater New York from 100,000 to about 750,000.

DEVELOPMENT OF CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS.

After Stuyvesant's plans for the expulsion of a party of these Brazilian Jewish arrivals at New York were frustrated by the instructions of the directors of the company, he continued for a time to block full Jewish enjoyment of civil and political rights, denying to them right to trade in the adjacent districts and to own real estate and to become burghers, but sharp rebukes from his superiors in Holland soon compelled him to grant these privileges. Even the directors, however, in measuring Jewish rights in large degree by those enjoyed in Holland, forbade public Jewish worship while sanctioning private services in individual households, prohibited their engaging in retail trade or holding public office, and even directed the establishment of a Ghetto, though, fortunately, there is no proof that such survival of the Dark Ages ever actually disgraced any section of territory within the limits of the United States. After the British conquest of New York, the rights of Jews, fortunately for them, continued to be governed by the established customs of the colony, instead of by the more illiberal and uncertain British laws, though this resulted in a declaration, in 1685, that Jews were not to be allowed to trade at retail or to hold public worship. Within a very short period thereafter, however, Jewish religious rites were performed so openly that the Jewish synagogue is pictured and described on the Miller map of New York of 1695, and a Jewish cemetery was established as early as 1656, on New Bowery, near Oliver Street, marked to-day by an appropriate tablet erected a few years ago.

A number of years before Parliament passed the Act of 1740, permitting Jews to be naturalized in the British colonies, the New York Colonial Assembly had enacted laws permitting Jews to omit the words "upon the true faith of a Christian" when taking the oath prescribed

upon being naturalized, and Jews were in the enjoyment of all civil and political rights in New York during many years before these were guaranteed to them by such fundamental organic laws as the New York Constitution of 1777 and the federal Constitution. While their treatment was not quite so liberal, in general, in the other colonies where they had settled before the Revolution, which included Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Maryland, South Carolina, and Georgia, New York may be regarded as fairly typical in this respect, and the States admitted into the Union after the Revolution, in which Jews often figured as pioneers, never attempted in the slightest degree to abridge Jewish rights, civil or political, so that from the Revolution on, the United States could be pointed to by the oppressed Jews in Europe as illustrating the advantages resulting from absolute religious liberty. It is, conversely, of interest to note that the influence of the Old Testament and the Hebrew Theocracy were very potent forces in shaping the evolution of the government of the Puritan and our own democracy,—tendencies ably delineated by the Hon. Oscar S. Straus in his work on "The Origin of Republican Form of Government in the United States."

Jews AS CITIZENS AND SOLDIERS.

Reciprocally, the Jews in America have ever rejoiced in the proud privilege of performing all the duties of American citizenship, whether on the battlefield, in public life, or in private ranks. In Stuyvesant's day, they vigorously protested against being compelled to pay a special tax instead of standing guard, like other citizens, and accordingly, we find Jews serving, in far more than their due proportion, in our colonial wars, in the Revolution, in the Civil War, and in the late Spanish-American War. The names of over seven thousand Jewish soldiers who served during our Civil War have been collected by the efforts of the Hon. Simon Wolf, of Washington,—an enormous proportion of the total Jewish population of the time. Earlier still, during the Revolution, two reached the rank of colonel, one being Colonel Baum, of Pennsylvania, the other Col. David S. Franks, who was sent to Europe as bearer of the treaty of peace with England when officially signed, and who figured as one of the marshals in President Washington's inaugural procession.

Similarly, a Jewish rabbi marched alongside of two Christian ministers in the procession of 1788 in Philadelphia in honor of the adoption of the Constitution, this, says Col. Thomas W. Higginson, "really constituting the first Parliament of Religions in this country."

He adds: "It seems strange that no historical painter, up to this time, has selected for his theme that fine incident. It should have been perpetuated in art, like the landing of the Pilgrims or Washington crossing the Delaware." It certainly does not detract from the significance of the incident to observe that the existence of this Jewish congregation in Philadelphia at that time was due to the solemn determination of the patriots of the New York congregation to abandon New York *en masse* at the approach of the British, even though the congregation might be disrupted in consequence. But space does not permit enlarging further on the numerous acts of Jewish patriotism that American Jewish historical students have delighted to chronicle, though passing reference must be made to Haym Solomon, the friend of Robert Morris and Madison, the broker through whom Congress received her French and Dutch loans, and who himself loaned several hundred thousand dollars to his adopted country in the darkest days of the Revolution; to Judah Touro, the distinguished Southern philanthropist, who joined Amos Lawrence in making the Bunker Hill monument possible, and to Commodore Uriah P. Levy, ranking officer of our navy at the outbreak of the Civil War, owner of Jefferson's home at Monticello. Similarly, while Judah P. Benjamin, the "brains of the Confederacy," was still a leading advocate of Southern rights in the Senate, such Jewish Abolitionists as the Rev. Dr. David Einhorn, Michael Heilprin, and Moritz Pinner awakened the Jewish conscience against slavery in the North. The number of Jews who have held high public office in the United States Senate and in Congress, on the State and the federal bench, as representatives of their country abroad, and at the head of their municipal governments,—aye, even as governors of States,—makes a most respectable showing.

JEW IN COMMERCE.

It may be frankly conceded that it is in the field of commerce, however, that the Jews rendered most valuable services to this country, and this was even more true, probably, during the century preceding our Revolutionary War than in our own day. Joseph Addison, writing in his felicitous style in the *Spectator* in 1712 with respect to a matter peculiarly familiar to him as an official of the British colonial office, said of the Jews that "they are, indeed, so disseminated through all the trading parts of the world that they are become the instruments by which the most distant nations converse with one another and by which mankind are knit together in a general correspondence." Before

the days of defined foreign, or even intercolonial, trade, therefore, laws shutting retail trade to the Jews made them pioneers and prime promoters of such newly created trade, which became, not merely profitable, but actually indispensable, for our colonies. Aaron Lopez, of Newport, who owned a fleet of thirty vessels shortly before the Revolution, engaged in trade between Newport, the West Indies, and Africa; Louis Gomez and his sons were exporters of wheat on a very large scale in colonial New York early in the eighteenth century; Jacob Franks, of New York, and David Franks, of Philadelphia, were the royal purveyors of army supplies during the French and Indian War; Hayman Levy, the fur dealer of Revolutionary New York, had close relations with the American Indians, and was at one time the employer of John Jacob Astor, and David Gradis and his sons largely controlled the trade of France with America before our Revolution.

Jews were among the founders of the New York Chamber of Commerce, and one, Sampson Simson, figures on its seal as a member of the committee receiving its charter from the colonial governor. They were also among the founders of the New York Stock Exchange, and ever since that time have been growing in importance in America as bankers, brokers, financiers, and railroad magnates, as well as in such lines of trade as cotton, tobacco, coffee, jewelry, metals, leather, meats, cloak and shirt industries, and department stores. On the other hand, when we turn to a suggestive letter written by Mrs. L. Maria Childs in 1834 with reference to the thousands of Jewish immigrants, practically destitute, then arriving in New York from Germany, to escape unfavorable economic and legal conditions, "not rich as Jews" in the traditional sense, but rich only in hopes and energy and enterprise, and remember how many achieved a competence, if not large fortunes, in a few decades, we note the analogy between these German Jewish immigrants and the Russian of our own day,—the unskilled laborer whom we encounter in our large cities, working with indomitable zeal in order to graduate from the "sweat-shop." Throughout the country we may to-day encounter the descendants of Jewish peddlers of a few decades ago, eager to bring sacrifices for the beloved land that has done so much for them in opening to them the paths leading to comfort and culture.

With schools and colleges welcoming them, the American Jews to-day rejoice in the fact that practically every large American university has important chairs filled by Jewish professors, and that they rank high among this country's

distinguished lawyers and physicians, journalists and artists, inventors and playwrights. Thomas Jefferson, in a letter too little known (directed to Isaac Harby and dated January 6, 1826), pointed out that, on his own initiative, he had abolished the enforced study of Christian theology in the university over which he presided, so that such cruel obstructions to Jewish scholarship should no longer bar Jewish admission to higher secular learning; yet even the unfavorable conditions of our early history permitted Jews to furnish to our country such apostles of culture as Lorenzo da Ponte, the father of Italian literature and Italian opera in America; John Howard Payne, the son of a Jewish mother, who taught us to chant "Home, Sweet Home;" Emma Lazarus, Strakosch, and Leopold Damrosch, and, latest of all, American Jewish scholarship has now created the "Jewish Encyclopædia," the proudest monument of Jewish learning of the last three centuries.

CHARITABLE AND RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS.

The condition imposed at the outset upon Jewish settlement in New York,—to wit, that the poor should not become a public charge,—has been faithfully performed by the successors of the pioneers, usually quite unaware that such pledge was ever exacted, and Jewish organized charity is certainly unsurpassed by that of any other denomination. Throughout the land, noble palaces of benevolence have been erected and maintained, and even the burden of aiding nearly a million persecuted coreligionists who arrived here during the past twenty-five years, beginning at the bottom of the economic ladder, has been cheerfully assumed. Religious and moral exaltation is afforded through the hundreds of synagogues, orthodox and reform, maintained throughout the land, and the two theological seminaries located in New York and Cincinnati, respectively. To mitigate the evils of congestion in the large cities, removal bureaus have been opened, and scientific methods adopted to make the alien fugitive from Russia and Roumania a worthy and valuable, self-respecting and God-fearing, American citizen. Educational alliances and Baron de Hirsch funds and the like supplement ordinary measures to hasten the progress of the "Americanization of the Jewish immigrant." Fortunately, such non-Jews as Peter Cooper, Carnegie, and Phipps have heartily supplemented such efforts for the amelioration of adherents of another race, just as history records that Benjamin Franklin, Thomas McKean, William

Bradford, and others contributed, in 1788, to a Christian fund for the maintenance of a Jewish synagogue in Philadelphia, unconsciously following the example of a little band of New York Jews who contributed their mite, in 1711, to a fund for building a steeple for Trinity Church. The historian of Trinity points out that Jewish subscribers contributed five pounds twelve shillings and threepence to a fund of three hundred and twelve pounds, there being seven subscribers, headed by the rabbi, on a list entitled "The Jews' Contributions."

PLANS FOR THE CELEBRATION.

The plans for the present celebration are meeting with a cordial response in every section of the land, and embrace appropriate exercises to be held on Thanksgiving Day at Carnegie Hall, in New York, and religious services in all the synagogues and Jewish Sabbath schools and similar institutions throughout the land. An appropriate permanent memorial will be erected in New York City in commemoration of the event, with a fund of approximately one hundred thousand dollars being raised by popular subscription among the Jews of the United States. The circumstance that the "General Committee" in charge of the celebration contains representatives from every State and Territory in the Union indicates how completely the Jews have identified themselves with every section of the land. It is not without interest to observe that the committee in charge includes, among others, twelve Jewish judges of the State and federal courts, fifteen college professors, three gentlemen who have occupied seats in the United States Senate and four from the House of Representatives, two attorney-generals of the Empire State, three ex-mayors of important cities, eight well-known editors, two artists, five well-known financiers, twenty-two lawyers, sixty clergymen, seventy-five ministers, and two gentlemen who have represented our country in foreign lands as minister plenipotentiary and consul-general, respectively. The following gentlemen constitute the executive committee in charge of the celebration: Jacob H. Schiff, chairman; Dr. Cyrus Adler, Hon. Samuel Greenbaum, Daniel Guggenheim, Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, Hon. Edward Lauterbach, Adolph Lewi-son, Louis Marshall, Isaac N. Seligman, Rev. Dr. H. Pereira Mendes, Hon. N. Taylor Phillips, Hon. Simon W. Rosendale, William Salomon, Louis Stern, Hon. Oscar S. Straus, Hon. Mayer Sulzberger, and Max J. Kohler, honorary secretary.



A TYPICAL IRISH LANDSCAPE IN COUNTY DONEGAL, SHOWING EVIDENCE OF AN INTENSIVE CULTIVATION IN THE PAST, BUT NOW TURNED OUT IN GRASS. MOST OF THE HOUSES SHOWN ARE NOW DESERTED.

RURAL IRELAND AS IT IS TO-DAY.

BY PLUMMER F. JONES.

IT is largely as a result of the unprecedented loss of half its population in half a century that the present condition of rural Ireland is so interesting a study. The depopulation of Ireland has largely changed the life of the people, and the Ireland of to-day lacks much of being the Ireland of sixty years ago.

Owing to lack of labor, the former intensive cultivation of the soil has ceased. Tillage has been superseded by pasturage. Thousands of acres that in former years were teeming with laborers planting and working potatoes and turnips, and harvesting wheat and oats, are now turned out in grass, and the song of the laborers and the whetting of scythes have been hushed, and in their place can be heard the lowing of cattle and the tinkling of sheep-bells.

THE EXODUS OF IRISH YOUTH.

In all parts of the middle, south, and west of Ireland one sees evidences of this remarkable change,—more remarkable since the signs of former possession and cultivation are still so evident. For sixty years the young and vigorous farm hands have been dropping the hoe and spade and emigrating to America, leaving behind them to attempt their work their infirm old parents and their little brothers and sisters.

The children dream through their boyhood and girlhood of the time when they in turn can go down to Queenstown and sail on the big ship for New York or Boston. Whole villages have thus been robbed of their young people, and vast country sections that once teemed with vigorous farm laborers now contain but a handful of men who are really capable of hard labor.



A PICTURESQUE IRISH VILLAGE WHICH IS PRACTICALLY DESERTED, THE INHABITANTS HAVING LEFT FOR NEW YORK AND BOSTON.

Indeed, one of the most striking, and at the same time most melancholy, sights in rural Ireland to-day is the unusually large number of despondent-looking old men and women who mope absent-mindedly about the roadways of the country-side or the alleys of the hundreds of semi-deserted villages. Their sons and daughters have grown up and gone to seek their for-

root of that evil, the emigration craze alone has been sufficient to demoralize every industry and occupation of Ireland. No country can stand the loss of the vigorous and active half of its people without suffering dreadfully from it. Rural Ireland to-day is the victim of ~~that~~ dread malady which may be termed the survival of the unfittest. Stagnation in business and all kinds



A VIEW FROM THE ROCK OF CASHEL, A NOTED EMINENCE IN THE HEART OF THE "GOLDEN VALE OF TIPPERARY."

(Forty years ago the meadows shown produced thousands of bushels of potatoes, wheat, oats, and barley. The land is now permanently in grass.)

tunes in the West. Not one in a hundred of them will ever return to hoe and spade the rocky old Irish fields again.*

Whatever other obscure evils may be at the

*In 1871, the population of Ireland was 5,412,000; in 1881, this number had decreased to 5,174,000; in 1891, it was 4,704,000; in 1901, the official figures were 4,458,775. From the best estimates obtainable in 1905 the population at this time is about 4,200,000, or about one-half the population of 1845. The next census is expected to show one of the greatest decreases in the recent history of the island. The United States census of 1900 shows that there are more Irish people in New York City alone than there are in the two chief cities of Ireland—Dublin and Belfast—taken together. In the United States there were, according to this census, 1,618,469 people who were born in Ireland, 4,001,461 children both of whose parents were Irish, and 979,586 with one native Irish parent. The total Irish population of the United States, including those with Irish grandparents and great-grandparents, is nearly double that of the mother country to-day. The area of Ireland is 32,583 square miles. This is somewhat less than the area of Indiana, about four times that of Massachusetts, and two-thirds that of New York State.

of labor is the first and most evident result of such a condition.

ULSTER'S PROSPERITY.

There is, however, a section of Ireland which must be excepted from this rule. The island is divided into four great sections which correspond with the kingdoms into which the country was divided at the death of King Brian Boru, —Ulster in the north, Leinster in the east, Munster in the south, and Connaught in the west. Ulster, or at least a portion of it, is so different from the others in almost every way that it has won the term "alien" in all ordinary mention of its characteristics. Here it is that the Scotch and English settled in dispossession of the Irish in the times of Cromwell and James I.; and here they have lived since that time, maintaining their own customs and exercising their charac-



A GROUP OF LABORERS IN COUNTY DONEGAL.

(If these men make ninepence a day and board they are thoroughly satisfied.)

teristic thrift and energy. The counties of Antrim, Down, and Londonderry can hardly be considered as "Ireland" at all.

The farmers of Ulster constitute a strong middle class comparable to that of the United States and England, and they draw large yields from a relatively infertile soil. They live comfortably in substantial houses, and produce large quantities of flax, which is manufactured into linen in the dozens of busy towns situated at their doors. Belfast, the real capital of Ulster, is one of the busiest and most progressive cities in the world. While almost every other city of Ireland decreased greatly in population, Belfast gained at the rate of 27 per cent. during the last decade. All this section is Protestant in religion, and is antagonistic to all that is essentially Irish. In studying Ireland one must remember that it is this Ulster section which makes all the agricultural and commercial statistics, bad at the best, appear as well as they do.

WHERE THE "IRISH QUESTION" IS VITAL.

It is in Leinster and Munster and Connaught that the real Irish question is centered. In this portion of real and typical Ireland, the conditions are most interesting even if in some respects unpleasant to dwell upon. Even in such

wonderfully beautiful and apparently prosperous sections as County Cork and the "Golden Vale of Tipperary" the conditions are yearly growing more acute. It seems but nothing that the soil is rich and the outward conditions favorable. The immense loss of population and the consequent stagnation in business and agriculture has depressed the life of the country, and disheartened those who are left in possession of the soil.

The census of 1901 gives some interesting statistics as to the occupations of the Irish people. Of the 4,458,775, given as to the total population, 131,035 were classed as "professional," 255,144 as "domestic," 83,173 as "commercial," 936,759 as "agricultural," 656,410 as "industrial," and 2,494,958 as "nonproductive and indefinite." The inclusion of considerably more than one-half of the total population of the country in the class of nonproductives tells in no uncertain way the real story of rural Ireland. It is this aimlessness in affairs which has within recent years been furnishing material for so much discussion and agitation for reform on the part of publicists and government experts.

The counties of Kerry, in the southwest; Galway, on the middle western coast; Mayo, the next county to the north of Galway; Sligo

and Roscommon, in the northwest, and some of the counties in the north central portion of the island are among those that present rather remarkable agricultural conditions at this time. In most of the counties named the population is still considerable, and in some cases congested. The soil is in many places rocky, and along the mountain-sides is so rough that the use of elaborate farm machinery, if ever dreamed of by the inhabitants, would be quite impossible. There are no cities and few towns of size in these sections, and there are no mills or factories of any description. The commerce is inconsiderable, though harbors are numerous along the coast; and railroad traffic, as might be expected, is small. The living that the people get must come from the ground.

THE HOUSING OF THE TENANTRY.

Throughout the counties named, as well as in most of south and west Ireland, there are only two classes,—the gentry, who own large portions of the land, and the peasants. The former are seldom seen, while the latter are ubiquitous. The people live generally in one-story stone or mud houses, scattered over the long mountain-sides, or clustered in the little one-street villages peculiar to Ireland. Around these houses one generally finds a small garden patch, in which are raised potatoes and other hardy vegetables. In front of the doors are small inclosures, or yards, walled in with stone, where the family goat, the pigs, the geese, and the chickens are wont to gather, seeking frequent entrance into the dwelling.

The interiors of the houses are too often comfortless and bare. It is seldom that more than one room of a possible two or three has a wooden floor. The others are paved with roughly-fitting flat stones, and are generally damp. There

are no stoves or ranges, and cooking is done over the open fire in large fireplaces. Peat is uniformly used for fuel. The use of coal and wood is generally unknown. There are no verandas or porches to the Irish farmhouses; the windows are small square holes cut through the thick walls and stopped with from four to eight panes of glass. Ventilation is unprovided for. Frequently a pigsty or a stable for the cow is inclosed under the same roof of thatch, which is a coating of straw from six inches to a foot in thickness and fastened down by ropes.



A "THIRD-CLASS" IRISH HOUSE IN COUNTY DONEGAL.

Dwellings such as the above are common all through the farming sections of Ireland. It is rather remarkable how little variation there is from the type. They are termed "third class" by the government. The last census shows that there were 251,606 of such in Ireland. The dwellings called "fourth class" are built entirely of mud, and are of one room with one door and one or two very small windows. There are to-day in remote rural sections of Ireland 9,873 such huts, inhabited by probably thirty or forty thousand people.

The "second-class" houses are found in such cities as Limerick, Cork, Dublin, and Belfast, as well as in the Ulster section and portions of Clare, Tipperary, Kilkenny, and other good farming districts of the south. They are of the general type described in the "third class," when in the country, though they are larger and better kept; and when, in the cities are the comfortable two and three story houses which one sees along the residential streets. Most of the second-class houses are covered with slate or tile, though in the country thatch is still used. There are 500,000 houses of the second class in Ireland. The houses of the "first class" are the "castles" of the gentry and landlords scattered through the country and the houses of the prosperous



A PEASANT'S COTTAGE OF THE "SECOND CLASS" IN SOUTH IRELAND.



THE RIVER SUIR, IN TIPPERARY.

(That might furnish power for thousands of mills and factories. It passes through quiet fields of grass and sleepy villages.)

business men of the cities. There are 75,000 of such in Ireland.

THE RESULTS OF THE NEW LAND LAW.

The landlord question has been the greatest topic in Irish affairs for the past two hundred years. From the time of Cromwell, and before, the Irish have chafed under landlord rule. For many years the tenure system was unregulated by the government, and the landlord had the entire disposition of his estate. The Irish peasantry for generations contended that it was not to their advantage to improve lands upon which heavier rents would be exacted. The government, in 1868, through the first Gladstone land act, recognized the right of the Irish tenant to compensation for improvements effected by him in the soil which he had cultivated, should he be deprived of his holding or should his rent be changed. This was the beginning of legislation, which, through successive acts of Parliament in 1870, 1871, and 1876, modified by more recent enactments, resulted in the passage of a measure, about two years ago, that seems to be in a fair way toward the settlement of the landlord question in Ireland

for all time. The great land act of 1903 provides for the purchase of lands from the landlords by the small farmers and peasants, the government advancing the necessary cash to the purchasers at a nominal rate of interest. Every student of Irish affairs is to-day watching with the closest interest the operations of this gigantic piece of legislation. For the two years since the act has been in force the fullest advantage has been taken of its provisions by the rural Irish, and the large sums set apart by the government to be applied in loans to purchasers were taken up greedily by purchasers in all parts of the country. Many of the priests

of the south and west, quick to recognize the advantages of the offer, have bought land upon the usual terms.

So loud were the demands for additional appropriations to be applied in these land loans that Chief Secretary Long announced, early in September of this year, that the treasury had agreed to provide additional funds amounting to \$10,000,000 before the end of the year, together with such an amount of stock during the year 1906 as will produce \$50,000,000 cash, to facilitate the operations of the act and to remedy



ONE OF THE FEW REMAINING BITS OF WOODLAND IN IRELAND.

the stoppage of sales of land through lack of funds. It is unofficially announced that about one-half the land of Ireland is now absolutely out of the hands of the landlords, and is owned in fee simple by the people who live upon and till the land.

In selling their land to their tenants for the cash advanced for them by the government, the landlords generally demand that amount which the land would produce in rent in twenty-two and one-half years. Some wish more, some less, than this. The average purchase of the tenant is his stone dwelling, sometimes an outbuilding, and from six to twenty acres of land. The price paid, based on the rent value, varies from \$20 to \$60 an acre.

A FARMER'S EXPERIENCE UNDER THE LAW.

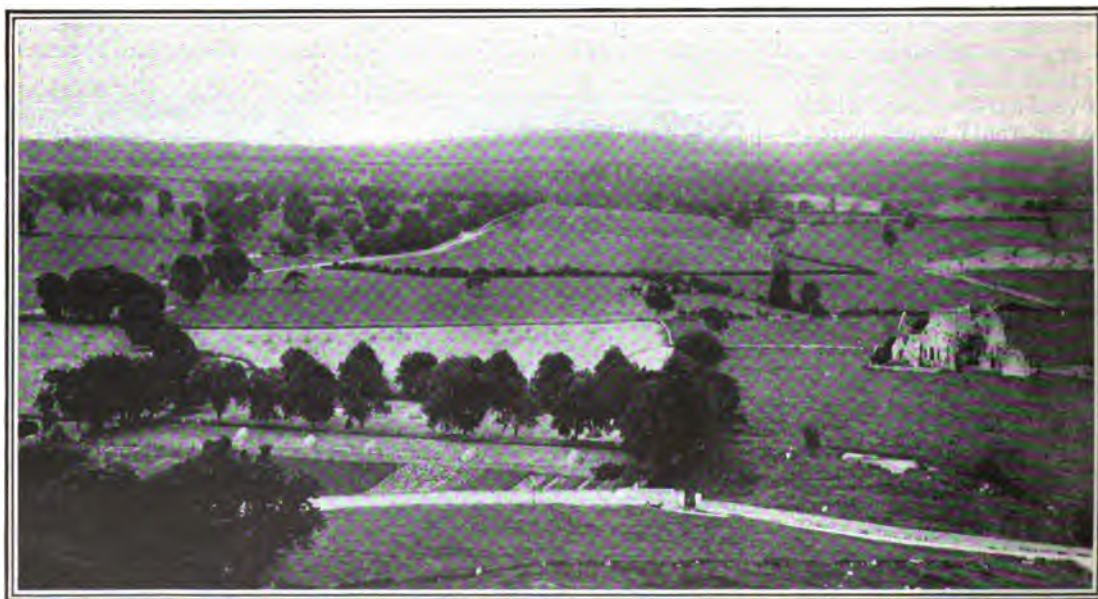
An actual case of purchase is as follows : A small farmer lived upon a tract of 16½ acres of land in County Tipperary, a good agricultural section. For some years past he had been paying to the landlord an annual rent of £6 12s., or about \$33. He wished to purchase the land, and it was offered to him by the landlord for £150, or about \$750. He made the necessary application to the authorities, borrowed the money from the government, and paid the landlord for the place, gaining from him a deed in fee simple. The government retained what might be termed a mortgage upon the place, which is to be released at the expiration of

forty yearly payments of £4 4s., or about \$21. In forty years from 1904 the purchaser will have paid to the government about \$840 for his farm. He began also to pay taxes upon the place as soon as it was listed in his name. His first year's taxes amounted to 26s., or about \$6.50. This amount may be increased or diminished according to the valuation put upon the property and the rate of taxation adopted from year to year.

HOW AMERICAN MONEY GOES TO PAY FOR IRISH LAND.

This, in brief, is an account of the change that is taking place in all parts of Ireland at the present time. The farmer or tenant who buys generally does so with a view of paying his yearly amounts with money sent to him from children or relatives who have emigrated to America. It would be impossible to estimate the amount of money that is sent to Ireland every year from the United States. Private inquiry sometimes reveals the fact that every cent of the rent and taxes paid by certain villages and sections of counties was paid by American Irish.

The Earl of Dunraven, president of the Irish Reform Association, in a recent pamphlet which was strewn broadcast through Ireland, declares that out of 500,000 holdings in rural Ireland fully 200,000 might be classed as uneconomic, or incapable *per se* of maintaining a family. Unless the purchaser has some other means of



A VIEW TAKEN FROM THE TOP OF THE ROCK OF CASHEL, COUNTY TIPPERARY.

(Looking westward, right through the "Golden Vale," and on into County Limerick. To the right is the ruins of "Hoar's Abbey.")



A PROSPEROUS SCENE IN THE SUBURBS OF CORK.

(Showing the splendid results of intensive cultivation where followed. The cultivation of strawberries and early vegetables for the English market would bring enormous returns.)

support besides the proceeds of the land, he will not be able to pay for his property or live except in the most abject poverty. Starvation, then, in the case of purchasers of such property is kept off by the money which is sent from America.

DAIRYING AND STOCK-RAISING.

Of the 300,000 economic holdings, the vast majority are self-sustaining, not from tillage, but from dairying and stock-raising. Dairying has within the past five years received an impetus through the efforts at coöperation made by the Board of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, which was created in 1899. This board has provided instruction for the people in dairying in many schools, and has established creameries throughout Ireland, with expensive machinery for stripping butter from milk fresh from the cow. To these creameries dairymen haul their milk and receive credit for the butter-producing value of each pint. The establishment of these creameries, insuring cleanliness and a regular supply, has succeeded in opening up a fresh market for Irish butter in England, and has stimulated dairying in large parts of Ireland. The coöperative plan is yet in its infancy, and has to prove what it will accomplish if universally patronized.

Stock-breeding among the small farmers is increasing with the decline of tillage. Most writers upon the subject look with disfavor upon the change. It is generally considered to be a branch of industry fraught with considerable danger to the small capitalist. In Ireland especially cattle and sheep raising is a speculation rather than an investment, and, like all species of gambling, is attended with great risk to the man of small capital. The depressing outlook of the rural life of England and Scotland, so much commented upon, is brought about by the passing of the land from under the plow and its being given over to stock-raising. In these countries it is said that men decay as the kine increase. In Ireland, conditions are still worse. Those who are forced to leave the Irish farms for lack of work do not flock to native towns and cities to engage in manufacturing or mercantile pursuits, as they do in England and Scotland, but emigrate to America, leaving a few of the old and infirm and unfit to engage in the "lotus-eating occupation of opening and shutting gates" for the cattle and sheep to pass through.

Rural Ireland has gained largely in the number of its cattle and sheep even within the past five years, but it has lost to an even larger de-



CUTTING AND HAULING PEAT IN COUNTY GALWAY.

(About the only occupation of many people in Ireland. This peat sells for two shillings a cart-load.)

gree in the activities and productiveness of its people in all other lines on account of the stagnation in agriculture due to this rush toward pasturage. It is a well-known truth that the decline of tillage in any country, whatever be the cause, involves an enormous waste of national resources. In Ireland the worst possible results have come from such a condition.

FARMING METHODS AND RESULTS.

The Irish tenant, or independent farmer, of the present time generally turns out the larger part of his land in permanent pasture. Upon this he grazes from two to four cows, three or four calves, sometimes a small flock of sheep, raises a half-dozen pigs, and sometimes keeps a horse or a donkey. Hardly half of the ordinary Irish small farmers keep a horse. The small cultivation which the land gets is done with the spade.



HAYMAKING IN IRELAND, SHOWING THE PRIMITIVE METHODS STILL USED.

All farm work is done in the most primitive way. A modern plow or mowing-machine, outside of Ulster, would be looked upon with amazement by the Irish farmers. There are large tracts of land in central and western Ireland that have not known a plow for a century. The land is down permanently in grass, and an occasional top-dressing of the soil with fertilizer in the spring is practically all the attention which is paid it.

In counties Clare and Tipperary, in south central Ireland, there is a tract of remarkably fertile land known as the "Golden Vale of Tipperary." Much of this land is still worked intensively, and splendid yields result. Here, as well as in County Cork, and Meath in the east, and the Ulster counties of Antrim and Down, barley is raised in quantities, as well as oats, potatoes, and other root crops. The farmer in these sections, as in other sections where the soil is tilled, can get labor at from fifteen to twenty pence a day, sometimes much less, though often he has to board his hands. These farm hands are expected to do the hardest kind of spade work, and in summer their workdays are exceedingly long. In Kerry and Galway a good stout farm-boy is often employed for £10 (\$50) and board a year. However, when these farm-boys ever get together enough money to take them to America they lose no time in shaking the Irish dust from their feet once and for all.

A RICH SOIL AND VARIED CROPS.

In the greater part of Ireland the soil is black and rich,—far richer than the average American soil. Nowhere in the world does grass grow more luxuriantly, and nowhere is the land so little encumbered with weeds, briars, and undergrowth. Much of the country is rocky, but long cultivation has put the loose stones into walls and fences, while many have been crushed in making the Irish roads, which to-day are as fine as any in the world.

Considering the natural fertility of the Irish soil, and its adaptability to intensive cultivation, the Irish crops for the past few years have not been encouragingly large. In 1903, the total wheat crop amounted to 1,175,000 bushels. This might be compared with the wheat crop of some of the States of the



A RURAL VILLAGE IN COUNTY MAYO.

(The fields are all planted in potatoes in beds three feet wide, as is the Irish custom. Through the village passes a typical Irish roadway.)

Union, seventeen of which produced more than ten million bushels each, and six more than thirty millions. Ireland produced 5,835,644 bushels of barley and bere, crops particularly well suited to the soil and climate. Five States together produced twenty times this amount, and Minnesota produced 32,000,000 bushels of barley alone. The oat crop of Ireland is one of its staples. In 1903 this amounted to 48,259,000 bushels. Illinois produced 117,000,000 bushels, and the crop of Iowa was 122,323,000 bushels.

The Irish climate, always cool and moist, favors the production of all kinds of root crops. Turnips, swedes, mangolds, cabbage, and potatoes were formerly grown in enormous quantities. Indeed, since its introduction into the island by Sir Walter Raleigh, late in the sixteenth century, the potato had grown by the middle of the last century to be the chief staple of Ireland. In many parts of the island it was both meat and bread for the people. Its cultivation superseded that of wheat and other cereals, and after it had come into universal use, fewer pigs were raised and less meat consumed than before. Between 1800 and 1845 it might be said that fully one-half of the Irish people were wholly dependent upon the potato for support.

The potato crop of Ireland is still considered to be its largest production. In 1903 this amounted to about 77,000,000 bushels. The crop for the

United States amounted to 332,830,000 bushels, of which New York State produced 41,000,000 bushels, with Maine, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and Michigan as close seconds. With all its rush toward pasturage, the total hay output of Ireland in 1903, sown grass and permanent grass, was but 5,000,000 tons. New York State produced 7,000,000 tons, while Iowa, Ohio, Missouri, and many other States produced almost as much.



AN IRISH FARMYARD.

(Showing primitive implements and vehicles. The horse is hitched to a "low-back car." Many of the vehicle wheels are solid blocks of wood.)



A TYPICAL MARKET CART.

(In which most of the Irish rural folk do all their traveling.)

These staple crops are practically all that Ireland must fall back upon for a livelihood. The climate is too severe for Indian corn, tobacco, rice, cotton, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, or the thousand and one small crops that help to make the American farmers independent.*

OTHER RESOURCES THAN AGRICULTURE.

The farmers and others in rural Ireland might be helped by mining, milling, timbering, and other such pursuits, but none of these things is done there. The country is said to contain iron, silver, gold, lead, and copper, but not an ounce of these metals has been produced in fifty years. The coal beds are very small, and the output is inconsiderable. The Irish rivers might furnish enormous power for manufacturing if they were properly harnessed, but this has never been done. There are not even grist or flouring mills, and the very nature of the case excludes saw and wood-working mills.

For fuel, the rural people depend upon the bogs, which are generally filled with peat or turf. In many cases the country Irish earn an honest penny by cutting turf and marketing it in the neighboring towns and villages. This

*The late autumn prices of produce in the markets of north Ireland are about as follows: Potatoes, 2s. for the lowest grade to 3s. 6d. per cwt. for the "skerries," or the best grade. Hay, meadow, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. per cwt.; upland, 2s. 9d. to 3s. 2d. Wheat sells at from 7s. to 7s. 6d. per cwt., or about \$1.00 to \$1.10 a bushel. Oats are quoted in the northern markets at 5s. 6d. per cwt., or about 45 cents a bushel. Chickens sell in these markets at from 3s. to 4s. 6d. a pair, and ducks bring 1s. to 1s. 6d. apiece. Eggs in November and December bring from 10d. to 15d. a dozen. Turnips sell at 6d. and 8d. per cwt., and butter is quoted anywhere from 8½d. to 12d. per pound. The prices which are actually paid the farmers for these products are from 10 to 25 per cent. less than these prices, which obtain throughout the northern counties. In the counties of the south and west, the prices are from 15 to 30 per cent. lower in most of the markets. In some remote rural sections, the small farmers get from the local merchants whatever they choose to pay them for their produce, —sometimes more, sometimes less, than the market prices.

peculiar product is cut from the bogs in summer, is stacked up and dried for several months, and is then hauled in donkey-carts to fairs and markets, where it is sold for two shillings a load. Turf makes a slow, smoldering fire which is perfectly agreeable to the Irish people.

Traveling in rural Ireland is often done afoot. Men and women do not mind walking five or ten miles to a country fair or to mass in a village church: Those who possess horses or donkeys often travel in the "low-back car," which is almost as popular a vehicle as it was a hundred years ago. The donkeys are made to do heroic service. The jaunting-car, in which passengers sit back to back, with their feet over the wheels, is the public vehicle of Ireland, and is used in every part of the island. There is to-day no such thing as the farm wagon as it is known in the United States; and, outside of the cities, buggies, traps, and carriages are unknown.

It was in the period of Ireland's growth and comparative prosperity that many of the fine roads of the island were permanently constructed of the stones which were dug from the fields and crushed; and the substantial stone walls and lofty picturesque bridges, which lend such charm



A JAUNTING-CAR.

(The high-grade vehicle of travel in Ireland to-day, just as it was fifty years ago.)

to modern Irish landscapes, were erected for the benefit of a busy people.

EFFORTS TO REVIVE AND STIMULATE PROSPERITY.

The condition of stagnation in rural life has within the past two or three years brought to life many schemes for the reawakening of the old island to a conformity with modern progress in living. The Gaelic League was organized by the Irish people a few years ago for the purpose of reviving the old Irish, or Gaelic, tongue, as well as to create a new national and racial pride



A DONKEY-CAR.

(One of the chief means of travel in Ireland to-day.)

and stimulate industry. In many of the Irish schools the young people are engaged in learning this harsh, peculiar language of their ancestors. The Irish claim that this course will serve to give back to the Irish the dreams in which Irish nature revels and on which Irish nature thrives. Many practical people are contending strenuously that a revival of Irish sentiment with a useless language will only serve to separate Ireland still further from all that is practical and progressive. Isolation, they say, with too much sentiment, has been to a large extent the cause of Ireland's undoing. However, the Gaelic League is a most flourishing organization, and is established in every section of the island. It yet remains to be seen what it will accomplish.

The various efforts of individuals and of government boards to stimulate Irish agriculture, such as those put forth by the Irish Board of Agriculture, Sir Horace Plunkett, and Lord Dunraven, have met with a fair measure of success. The establishment of creameries, as already mentioned, is but one of the innovations made by these agencies. Scotch fishermen, with boats, have been employed to teach the Irish of the west coast profitable methods of fishing, technical schools have been founded in conjunction with other schools in various parts of the country, and small markets have been established for the sale of Irish home products. Hand-weaving, spinning, knitting, embroidering, shirt-making, lace-making, and crocheting have been developed somewhat within the past few years, especially in the mountain regions, in order to give the women of the homes a chance to help keep away poverty.

With all the efforts that are being put forth to restore Ireland to its rightful agricultural and industrial position, the people are leaving the country in thousands, the farms are becoming abandoned, work for those who remain is becoming scarcer every day, and the outlook for some radical change for the better is not encouraging.

Where or how it is to end no one of those who are apparently in a position to know seems to be able at this time to advance a satisfactory opinion.



A RICH FARM IN SOUTH IRELAND, SHOWING A RURAL HOME OF THE FIRST CLASS.

THE WORKINGS OF THE IRISH LAND LAW.

BY THOMAS W. RUSSELL, M.P.

[Mr. Russell, although a Unionist and a bitter opponent of the Nationalist party in Ireland, is the most prominent advocate of compulsory land purchase and has been deeply interested in the enactment and operation of the Land Act. In the present article he points out certain defects in that measure.—THE EDITOR.]

THE Irish Land Purchase Act of 1903 was in every respect epoch-making. It was preceded by, and founded upon, the report of a conference held between the representatives of landlord and tenant in Dublin. The Landlords' Convention, the official representative of the landlord party, held aloof and refused to join in the conference. Typical landlords, such as the Duke of Abercorn, Lord Barrymore, and Colonel Saunderson, refused to serve, ridiculing the project as absurd and quixotic. Lord Dunraven led a saner section of landlords, with the result that, after a session of five days, the conference agreed to a report, upon which the government acted. The official landlords, seeing the reasonableness of the findings and recognizing their own folly, succumbed at once, and fell in with the general tendency for settlement. Substantially, the Act of 1903 accepted the principle of universal sale of the landlord's interest to the occupier. It ignored legal compulsion. But it accepted what was finely called the principle of compulsion by inducement. It placed the sum of £100,000,000 (\$500,000,000) at the disposal of landlord and tenant for the purposes of the act. It went further,—for it enacted that out of a fund called the Land Purchase Aid Fund each landlord who sold should receive a bonus (Latin for gift) of 12 per cent. on the purchase money. It appointed a new tribunal to administer the act. And to this tribunal were given powers of re-settling congested districts by the purchase of grass lands, the enlargement of uneconomic holdings, and the restoration of certain evicted tenants where possible. It was an act sufficient of itself to make and secure the reputation of any statesman. Already in eighteen months since it came into operation land value for £20,000,000 (\$100,000,000) has been sold under it. Properly and reasonably administered, it contains all the elements of a settlement of the problem. Let us see where and how it has broken down.

WHERE THE LAW HAS MISSED THE MARK.

First: There has been a serious hitch in the finance of the bill. One hundred million pounds sterling was the estimate of the money required to carry the operation of transferring the land

from owner to occupier through. But an understanding was arrived at during the passage of the bill through committee that for the first three years the outlay should not exceed five millions in each year. The state of the money market was assigned as the chief reason for the limitation. But, beyond all doubt, the result has been a serious hitch and great disappointment. Nobody perhaps could have quite foreseen the rush to sell. At the present moment agreements have been signed for sale and purchase between landlord and tenant representing £20,000,000. The estates commissioners have received, roughly speaking, £11,000,000 from the treasury. They have paid out to vendors of land in or about £5,000,000. And another sum approaching £5,000,000 has been paid over in the Bank of Ireland to the credit of estates,—these estates awaiting proof of title. To meet claims of £10,000,000, therefore, the commissioners have £1,000,000 on hand,—and the prospect of a further loan of \$5,000,000 this November. But it must be remembered that the delay thus caused has exercised a most regrettable influence upon purchase. Landlords very naturally say that if compelled to wait two or three years for the purchase money they are at a great disadvantage,—the tenant purchaser only paying 3½ or 3¾ per cent. on the purchase money, pending the issue of the vesting order. The work of agreeing as to sale, therefore, has been seriously impeded where it has not been brought to a standstill by reason of this hitch. On the other hand, however, it must be admitted that the raising of even £5,000,000 has been a serious matter for Ireland. A selling landlord is paid in cash. But while he gets £100 in sovereigns, the discount, amounting probably to the difference between £87 and £100, has to be paid out of the Irish Equivalent Grant, an arrangement which keeps the British treasury safe, but is of serious import to Ireland as a whole. This is one of the first things which have to be set right. Some plan must be devised by which the act can have free and full scope. This and other things being done, there is no reason why ten years should not see the Irish land problem solved.

Second: The act has all but completely broken down in the west. Here, where its healing

influence was most needed, its failure has been most marked. And for this breakdown the cupidity of the Irish landlord is wholly to blame. What the act contemplated in this respect is quite clear. It was quite impossible to apply the same rule to Connaught and to other similar areas as to Ulster, Leinster, and Munster. In the west the holdings are small and hopelessly uneconomic in their character. Parliament felt, and rightly so, that to make the occupier of a five-acre bog holding an owner was to do him no good. Such a feat in statesmanship merely freed the western landlord from a risky security and transferred the risk to the state. It was, therefore, enacted that the large grass holdings which abound in that region,—and which are held by graziers on a tenure of eleven months, the object of the term being to avoid the creation of a tenancy,—should be bought and wherever possible should be distributed among the small holders, thus rendering a decent living possible. And in several cases this has been successfully done by the congested districts board, with the very best results. It was a big, bold thing to attempt. But it was manifestly the right policy. And Mr. Wyndham in passing the act justly placed it in front,—as, perhaps, the main object of his policy.

CAUSE OF FAILURE IN THE WESTERN COUNTIES.

In considering the breakdown of the act at this point it is necessary to look at the terms upon which it was passed. The landlords as a whole professed at the land conference and in Parliament their entire willingness to sell, provided they received a price equivalent when securely invested to their second-term net income. To enable this to be done the bonus of £12,000,000 was sanctioned by Parliament. The whole thing was a bargain—a clear case of contract. And what the western landlords have been guilty of is a simple breach of faith. They are quite ready to sell the bog holdings, the barren mountain tracts out of which a decent living cannot be had, demanding for this wretched land in many cases more than is being asked in Antrim and Down for the best land in these counties. But the grass ranches they refuse to part with. And so the whole plan of the act,—the whole scheme for the re-settling of the land, and raising the station of the small holder,—has been brought to naught. In this connection another difficulty has arisen. When the western sections of the act were being passed, Mr. Wyndham,—who was in grim earnest about these poor people,—provided for the sale of congested estates to the estates commissioners or to the congested districts board. Special inducements were given

to sales under these sections. The cost of sale was borne almost entirely by the state, and the commissioners were authorized in such cases to spend money upon the improvement of the holdings. The policy was excellent. But the landlords have ruined it. They quickly discovered that if they sold to the estates commissioners the land would be inspected by an expert valuer, and its price would depend upon its value. This was not their idea of how things should be done. They preferred to sell to the tenant direct, against whom they could use the screw of arrears of rent, and from whom they could exact a higher price. Hardly a case of sale to the estates commissioners has taken place under these well-meant sections. And for the reasons stated.

The Irish members were under no illusions while the act was being passed. We warned Mr. Wyndham, and we cautioned Parliament, that a breakdown was imminent at this point. The fact is, compulsory powers of purchase in all such cases ought to have been frankly given. But to mention the word compulsion to the then chief secretary was to send him into a fury. He would not hear of it. It was the agitation for compulsion that had produced the land bill. But the landlords had bound Mr. Wyndham to resist even its beginnings. And so the right honorable gentleman had his way. And what is the result? The big well-to-do farmers of Kildare,—the men whose ancestors were brought by the Duke of Leinster from Scotland after the famine,—have all bought their land under the act, and the Leinster estate has ceased to exist as such, something like half a million pounds being paid for it, including bonus. But the wretched holders of small bog holdings in the west are still left in their misery, and even where there is a chance, as there was at Cloonka, in County Galway, the other day, of relieving a small number of these men, Lord Ashtown stepped in and bought the grass land over their heads. This is the most serious point of failure. With the west unsettled nothing is settled. It is here where trouble has always been born. It is here that land acts have always had their origin. It is well to make an end of landlordism anywhere. Here its fell influence is most severely felt. Here the load must be lifted. In a word, both the estates commissioners and the congested districts board must have compulsory powers against men who persist in a whole province being steeped in misery, with the means of relief at hand.

But making every allowance for shortcomings, nothing can be surer than this,—that the act, properly administered by officials and sensibly treated by the people, has all the elements of a final settlement of Ireland's agrarian problem.



A CLASS OF BOYS AT DUMB-BELL DRILL IN HAMILTON FISH PARK, NEW YORK CITY.

THE PLAYGROUND CITY.

BY G. W. HARRIS.

ONLY within very recent years have the largest and most congested of our American cities come to realize that wholesome outdoor recreation is a valuable aid toward the making of good citizens. Not all of those aspiring to be counted of the first class have yet realized that fact, and perhaps none has come fully to appreciate just how valuable such aid is. But in one or two cities the era of tentative experimentation has been fairly passed, and the light of experience is spreading. Possibly some account of the results thus far observed in one city may help its spread still further.

New York City has, scattered through its five boroughs, 157 parks, large and small, with a total area of 7,223 acres, which is carried on the books of the Tax Department (though it is, of course, exempt from taxation) at a total valuation of \$375,000,000. And the men who administer this vast estate, the officers of the Depart-

ment of Parks, assert that no other city in the world does so much as New York to see that its public parks are enjoyed by its people, so much to make its breathing-spots attractive and inviting. Especially noteworthy in this direction have been the efforts of the municipal government in recent years to foster in the parks outdoor sports and recreation of practically all kinds.

As long ago as 1860 schoolboys under sixteen were permitted to play baseball in Central Park on a single diamond laid out specially for them, and about twenty years ago lawn tennis began to be played on the spacious meadows of that park. But it is only within the last decade that the old idea of a public park as simply an inclosed tree and shrubbery garden, with handsome lawns protected by plenty of "Keep off the Grass" signs, has given place to the new idea that a great and crowded city's parks should be the playgrounds of its children of all ages; that



POLE-VAULTING IN THE ATHLETIC FIELD OF HAMILTON FISH PARK.

to be enjoyed of the people the parks should be used by the people. To-day there is scarcely any outdoor sport indulged in by Americans that is not encouraged in the parks of New York City. Baseball, football, basket-ball, tennis, golf, cricket, croquet, archery, lacrosse, polo, rowing, swimming, running, skating, driving, athletics, are all fostered in the larger parks, and there can be no doubt that the good health of many thousands of the city's people is enhanced thereby.

FRESH AIR FOR THE TENEMENT CHILDREN.

But the children and youth, especially, most in need of fresh air and whole-

some recreation are those who live in the crowded tenement districts, and who by reason of the distances and the cost of transportation cannot get to the larger parks, where all this array of sports and games is provided for. Yet they have rightfully as much claim on the city as the children of the well-to-do. Indeed, there are not wanting people who hold that the city is the more bounden to those among its children whose natural opportunities are the smallest. And New York has at last begun to recognize its duty to that class. Even more remarkable than the growth of popular interest in sports in the larger parks has been the development in the last three or four years



INSTRUCTING A CLASS ON THE PARALLEL BARS IN THE OPEN-AIR GYMNASIUM OF PELHAM BAY PARK.



A RACE ON THE RUNNING-TRACK OF HAMILTON FISH PARK.

of scientifically arranged and conducted playgrounds for the poor children of the tenement-house neighborhoods in certain of the smaller parks of the city. Here the municipality fosters games and sports of various kinds by providing not only the grounds, with suitable fixtures and equipment, but also the individual implements necessary, such as balls of all kinds, bats, dumbbells, Indian clubs, and even tennis racquets; and, furthermore, it employs a corps of instructors to teach the children how to play the various games and how to get the most good out of their exercises.

GYMNASTICS IN THE CITY PARKS.

There are eleven of these specially equipped playgrounds now in operation in Manhattan Borough, and four in Brooklyn, besides the two big outdoor gymnasias and athletic fields in Macomb's Dam Park, and Pelham Bay Park in the Bronx. They are doing a splendid work in giving these poor children good physical constitutions and training, in reclaiming them from evil street influences, in breaking up the fighting "gang" idea, and in starting them on the road to good American citizenship. So thoroughly convinced

of this is the city government that the administration recently appropriated \$1,300,000 for additional small playgrounds and athletic fields.

The first playground of the sort in New York City was opened about eight years ago in William H. Seward Park, at Canal and Jefferson streets, by the Outdoor Recreation League. This soon demonstrated its usefulness and success, but five years passed before the idea was adopted by the city. The first municipal playground was instituted in 1902, also in William H. Seward Park. Others followed in Tompkins Square, Hamilton Fish Park (at Houston and Willett streets), East River Park (the river front from Eighty-fourth to Eighty-ninth Street), John Jay Park (at the East River and Seventy-sixth Street), a small park at Seventeenth Street and the East River, Corlears

Hook Park, Hudson Park, Thomas Jefferson Park (between One Hundred and Eleventh and One Hundred and Fourteenth streets, First Avenue and the Harlem River), De Witt Clinton Park (Fifty-second to Fifty-fourth Street and the North River), and St. Gabriel's Park (between Thirty-fifth and Thirty-sixth streets, First and Second avenues).

East River, Seventeenth Street, and Hudson parks contain only kindergarten playgrounds for girls and small children. Each of the others has a large open-air gymnasium and athletic field for boys, and a separate playground for girls, with kindergarten equipment. Hamilton Fish Park contains also two indoor gymnasia, one for boys and one for girls, which are used throughout the winter. In Tompkins Square is, according to the director, the best park playground in the world. It is situated in the heart of the park, with the shade of the trees on the playground. The outdoor gymnasium, which is typical for all these playgrounds, contains horizontal bars, two parallel bars, two horses (the German side-horse), two bucks, inclined and horizontal ladders, flying and traveling rings, a running-track, a jumping-ground,—in short, a

complete athletic field, together with tennis and basket-ball courts.

WHOLESOME ATHLETIC SPORTS.

In each of these playground parks there have been organized baseball teams, basket-ball teams, tennis teams, and track teams, and among them there is keen competition. Schedules are arranged and carried out regularly. The teams in one park challenge those of the other parks and the school and settlement-house teams. The boys have organized clubs of their own, and the pride they take in them is surprising. They buy their own uniforms, and they take good care of the park property, too, realizing that it is their property, and that if it is stolen or damaged they are injured just that much. The aim of the instructors is to devote as much time as possible to the general mass on the playground, and yet develop teams and clubs. The enthusiasm among the boys for these clubs has grown rapidly, and there is now displayed a considerable park spirit.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE "GANG."

The work of teaching the children how to use the gymnasium apparatus properly and how to play the various games in all these parks is under the supervision of Mr. David I. Kelly, director of city playgrounds, who, in the three years that he has been in charge, has accomplished a remarkable work among the poor children, of the lower East Side especially, and succeeded astonishingly well in bringing order out of chaos. When the work was first started on the lower East Side the park would be fairly swamped by a horde of rough youngsters who had never had any freedom without lawlessness, and who did not know what to make of it. They wanted to smash everything to pieces. They couldn't keep their hands off. They had no regard for rules or regulations of any kind. Many, if not most, of the older boys wanted to do nothing but fight. They had been brought up in the street,—they had never had any other place to



"READY! SET!" AT THE WILLIAM H. SEWARD PARK.

(Getting in position for a race.)

play. Their ideas of fun were derived from the dime novel and similar trash, and consisted in robbing push-cart men and committing other petty depredations,—not because they were inherently bad and wanted to rob, primarily, but because that was their idea of sport. It was in some such way that the "gang" developed,—that worst evil of the crowded tenement districts, which has made more criminals, perhaps, than any other one agency,—and many boys, simply from lack of proper supervision and room to work off their surplus energies, became criminals. It was a difficult task at first to develop order and respect for authority, truth, and fair play among such a lawless class; but gradually the boys came to see that the new ideals were better than the old ones, and that it was to their interest to play according to the rules.

Soon there sprang up a strong rivalry to "make the team," and then to win contests from the teams of the other parks. To-day the youngsters who a few years ago would have spent their time on the street fighting, brawling, and robbing push-cart men go into the playground park and work like beavers at wholesome exercise to gain a place on some team, and incidentally the



GIRL EXERCISING ON THE SWINGING ROPE-LADDER,
PELHAM BAY PARK.

respect of their fellows, their teachers, and the community. In the neighborhood of the playground parks the street "gang" has been completely broken up, and many of the boys who were the toughest specimens the instructors had to deal with when the playgrounds were first opened are to-day studying for the law, or medicine, or some other profession.

OUTDOOR EXERCISE FOR GIRLS.

These municipal playgrounds are of inestimable benefit to the girls of the poorer quarters also. A goodly space in the park is set apart for their use, and this is equipped with courts for tennis, basket-ball, tether-ball, and volley-ball (all of which are very popular games with the girls), with swings, or "scups," of various sizes, and with the maypole-like arrangement known as the giant stride; they receive instruction in light gymnastics, running, dumb-bell exercises, dancing games, and many others; and throughout the summer, in the hottest hours of the day, kindergarten and social occupation work are taught to all the girls from four to fifteen years of age. In each of the playgrounds there are sand-houses, building-blocks, and baby-swings for the smallest children. In Hamilton Fish Park there is a library and quiet game-room, where the girls spend many an enjoyable hour. Among the larger



LAWN-TENNIS AND VOLLEY-BALL GAMES AS PLAYED BY GIRLS IN THE WILLIAM H. SEWARD PARK.



A GROUP OF GIRLS PLAYING VOLLEY-BALL.

girls the playground is almost as popular in winter as in summer,—especially in snow-time, when there is all the fun of building toboggan slides, snow-houses, and snow men. In winter, also, numerous entertainments and parties are given in the playground, and these are so enjoyable that they are extremely popular.

A CITY GOVERNMENT IN MINIATURE.

But, inasmuch as the boys are the more capable of mischief, the great improvement wrought in their condition physically, mentally, and morally is of prime significance. It means not alone the breaking up of the "gang" idea, which is in itself a highly desirable thing, but it means also the making of good citizens, with an interest in the welfare of the city, out of perhaps the most unpromising material to be found anywhere within its confines.

Such good progress had been made in the older playgrounds, and the interest of the boys in seeing that they were kept in good condition was so evident, that last summer the director thought that the organization of a model city government in miniature would be an excellent thing to give the young athletes a greater interest and responsibility in the maintenance of

order, cleanliness, and good-fellowship in the park, and to teach them the duties of citizenship. The boys became enthusiastic over the idea at once. So, permission and a promise of coöperation being obtained from the president of the park board, a "Playground City" was instituted in Hamilton Fish Park. In July the boys held a convention and adopted a city charter, the salient parts of which are as follows :

In order to insure the furtherance of clean athletics and manly sports, and the development of good-fellowship among us, we, the boys of Hamilton Fish Park, hereby constitute ourselves the "Playground City," and adopt the following constitution :

The executive power shall be vested in a mayor, to be elected on August 15, and each year thereafter.

The legislative power shall be vested in one house, to be known as "Council."

The council of the Playground City shall consist of a president and various commissioners to be appointed by the mayor. Any frequenter of the playground shall be qualified to vote, and shall be eligible for election or appointment to office.

There shall be the following administrative departments in the Playground City: department of police, department of street-cleaning, department of athletics, department of gymnastics, department of games, and department of finance.

The head of the department of police shall be called

the commissioner of police. He shall have the power to appoint members of the police force, and it shall be the duty of the said members of the police force to cooperate with the employees of the department of parks in maintaining order in the Playground City. Citizens of the Playground City guilty of infractions of its laws shall be suspended from participation in the games and sports of the model community for terms to be decided by the athletic instructor of Hamilton Fish Park.

The head of the department of street-cleaning shall be known as the commissioner of street-cleaning. He shall have the power to appoint members of the street-cleaning force, whose duty it shall be to cooperate with the employees of the park department in removing paper and rubbish from the Playground City. The commissioner of street-cleaning shall be responsible for the clean and tidy appearance of the Playground City.

The head of the department of athletics shall be known as the commissioner of athletics. He shall have control of the athletic department of the Playground City, and shall make rules and regulations for the preservation of true sportsmanship and clean competition among the athletes of the Playground City.

On August 15 an election was held; and on September 1 the mayor, president of council, controller, and other officers were inducted into office, and the experiment of self-government in the city playground was under way. The mayor, Nathan Kase, a bright lad of seventeen, took oath to administer the rules of the Playground

City to the best of his ability and in strict accordance with its laws and charter. His inaugural speech surpassed the efforts of many an older official on like occasions. He said:

I feel that in assuming this office with which you have honored me it is right and fitting that I should make some general conception of the trust with which I have been encharged. It will be my earnest endeavor to administer the affairs of the Playground City for the benefit of all the citizens. It shall be my aim to create a fraternal spirit among the citizens of our city, and I will do all in my power for the furtherance of true sportsmanship and clean athletics. I will instruct the heads of departments as to my wishes, and will insist on the enforcement of the law. My aim will always be to make our park the model among playgrounds.

I ask those who supported my election to aid me in the task set before me, but, more than that, I ask the cooperation of every citizen of the playground. If when my administration comes to an end we can feel that we have not only developed in athletics or gymnastics, but that we have also become better in every way, and will be better fitted for citizenship of the great city of New York, I shall have the satisfaction of knowing that my earnest endeavor has not been in vain.

The youthful mayor has kept his word. His fellows have taken pride and interest in their work. And if the Playground City in Hamilton Fish Park continues to be as successful as it has been thus far, it will be copied in other parks.



THE OPEN-AIR GYMNASIUM IN TOMPKINS SQUARE PARK.

RUSSIA'S FIRST PARLIAMENT, THE DUMA.

BY W. T. STEAD.

THE Gosudarstvennaia Duma, of the Russian Empire is to assemble not later than the middle of January. The registration of electors was to have been completed by October 19. The general election is fixed for the beginning of December. As the ukase proclaiming the new law only appeared on August 19, it is evident the Russians have had very little time for creating the machinery necessary for the election of their first representative assembly. There is, indeed, considerable reason to believe that the time allotted is altogether too short to permit anything like a real appeal to the whole body of the nation. In England and in the United States, where the electoral machinery has long been in smooth working order, where every citizen is familiar with the principle and practice of representative government, a period of six weeks between the making up of the register and the final ballot would be regarded as all too brief. What then must it be where the whole of the machinery has to be improvised, where there are no organized political parties, and where the majority of the electors have to be made acquainted for the first time with the mysteries of the ballot-box?

In Great Britain, a population of fifty millions is packed into a couple of islands whose total superficial area is less than that of many a Russian government. In the United States, the elaborate network of rail and wire brings every elector every morning into touch with the latest phase of the problems which are reserved for his final decision. But in Russia we have a population of one hundred and thirty millions scattered over expanses so vast, where roads and communications are so primitive, that it is simply impossible to make the whole population aware of the details of the new law until long after the election will be over.

Add to this that the electoral period is precisely that between the Indian summer and the beginning of winter, when rural Russia becomes a vast quagmire and the widely scattered villages are like outposts cut off from communication with one another by mud. Add further that there is between those electoral units seldom a telegraph line, never a telephone; that there is no daily or even weekly postal delivery over great areas; that two-thirds of the electors can neither read nor write, and that most of those

who can read are too poor to subscribe even to a weekly newspaper, and the reader can begin dimly to realize the difficulties under which the first Russian election will take place.

POLITICAL OBSTACLES IN THE WAY.

The geographical difficulties are great, but the political obstacles are greater still. Up till the beginning of October, all political meetings of any kind were prohibited. In Russia, nothing is permitted that is not authorized, and the law authorizing the formation of electoral committees and the arrangement of electoral machinery was only published in St. Petersburg on October 4. Writing, as I am, on the Volga, within a hundred miles of the town of Varaloff, I am as yet in ignorance of the extent to which the iron-bound restrictions hitherto placed upon the political action of the new electors have been relaxed. The difficulties in the way of disseminating electoral literature are enormous. No printer can strike off any printed sheet, pamphlet, or any description of printed matter until it has been submitted to the local censor, who is sometimes a fool and usually a somewhat wooden-headed official much prone to magnify his office. It is quite incredible the delay thus occasioned. My address on "The Duma from an English Point of View," which the Emperor had read with approval, could not be printed for general circulation before it had been submitted to the censorship. The result is that almost all political literature is circulated by hectograph or mimeographed copies. The rigor of the censorship is carried to such lengths that sometimes the mimeographed copies of the Emperor's own speeches are seized as being in contravention of the laws of the censorship. The newspapers are all published under censorship. Under such conditions, it is obvious that the preparation and distribution of electoral literature throughout Russia in the few weeks remaining before the election are practically impossible.

In my appeal to the Russian Government to allow the four fundamental liberties as speedily as possible, I compared the Duma without these liberties to a horse without legs. As the homely metaphor helped somewhat to popularize the idea of the close interrelation between the Duma and the four fundamental liberties, it may possibly be of some interest.

It is evident that no horse can be of any use at all as a horse, or even deserves to be called a horse at all, if it has no legs, so it is not surprising that some replies declare that the Duma will be no real Duma, because at present the Duma is lying down and they cannot see its legs. Now, what are the legs of the Duma horse upon which the Duma must stand? It is clear it must have four legs, otherwise it can carry no burden, any more than if it were a dead horse whose legs were shot off in battle. The question is easily answered.

The first condition of all popular elections is that the electors should be free to come together to hear the views of candidates and to discuss the statements made at such meetings. The law, therefore, must allow, under clearly stated conditions, the liberty of meeting, publicly or privately, under cover or in the open air. Otherwise there can be no freedom of election, and therefore no real Duma. Liberty of public meeting, therefore, is the first leg of the Duma horse.

But everybody cannot go to public meetings. The information on political and electoral questions for the majority of men must always come to them through the press. Hence, while it is necessary that the press should be under the law, it is absolutely necessary that the press should be free. If newspapers break the law, let them be punished by the courts according to the law, after fair trial before judges. As a journalist myself, I utterly fail to understand how it is possible to subject the newspapers, which ought to be the eyes and ears of the Emperor, to the arbitrary control of policemen, who may have a direct interest in preventing the truth from reaching the throne. Therefore, I regard the freedom of the press under the law,—for freedom without law is not liberty, but license,—as the second leg of the Duma horse.

The third leg is liberty of association. You cannot conduct an election without committees. The government may, if it please, insist that no association or committee shall be formed without its knowledge. It is impossible to hold a free election unless the people are free to form whatever associations they please for lawful purposes without having to ask the consent of the police. This, at least from the English point of view, appears to be elementary common sense.

The fourth leg of the Duma horse is the passing of some kind of *habeas corpus* act which will secure to every subject of the Emperor that he shall not be arrested without warrant or imprisoned without trial. Otherwise, with what confidence can any man speak his mind freely, honestly, and without fear in the elections which are to enable the nation to respond with loyal enthusiasm to the appeal of the imperial manifesto?

With these four legs, liberty of public meeting, liberty of the press, liberty of association, and security against arbitrary imprisonment, all secured and controlled by law, the Duma will be able to bear the burden which may be put upon its back. Without these four legs, it will be a sham, a mockery, a delusion, and a snare.

The government, slow, cumbrous, and reluctant, promises new laws, but the probability is that they will not be issued except in part before the elections are over.

It must be admitted that the government in constituting the Duma has done its utmost to facilitate the winning of the election by reducing the number of electors to the lowest minimum

that has ever existed in any nation. No one has yet ventured to calculate how many electors there will be on the register when the ballot-box opens. It will probably be an excessive estimate if we put the number at one hundred thousand, not including the peasants—one hundred thousand out of a nation of one hundred and thirty millions! Things are not, however, quite as bad as these figures would suggest. For the peasants, who form two-thirds or three-fourths of the population, are represented in a curious, indirect fashion. Every peasant householder has a vote in the election of the *volost*, or district assembly. Every ten peasants send one of their number to the *volost*. These representatives are elected for three years. They are charged with various local administrative duties. All of them were elected before the Duma was established. Elected for one purpose, they are now utilized for another, and they form an overwhelming majority of the electors to the Duma. All figures are mere guesswork, but we take it that the peasant population is one hundred million, or, say, twenty million householders. These are represented by two million members of *volosts*, or district assemblies. Indirectly, therefore, all the peasants are represented, but the right of choosing their representatives is not vested in the whole body of the peasants, but in the delegates whom they have already elected for an entirely different purpose.

PEASANT REPRESENTATION.

It would, however, be a mistake to imagine that two million peasants are to vote directly for their representatives in the Duma. The system of election is like a Chinese puzzle. The choice of the people is ascertained by a fourfold winnowing, and as I have already explained, the primary election had no reference whatever to the Duma. The rank and file of the peasant electors are assumed to have voted already when they elected their *volosts* last year or the year before. The members of each *volost*, or local district assembly, have to elect two of their own members as their representatives in the general district assembly. This is the second stage in theory, but the first in actual reality. The third stage is when the representatives of the *volosts* in general district assembly have to elect their representatives, although out of their own number, to the electoral college. The number of those representatives varies according to the population of the district. Not until the full product of three successive votings reach the electoral college does the choice of the members of the Duma begin. In every case peasants must

be chosen by peasants. In no case can any peasant not belonging to the locality be selected. Hence, every peasant who presents himself as a duly elected member at the doors of the Duma must have been four several times elected by the peasants of his village, volost district, and province as a fit and proper person to represent them in the Duma of the empire.

But this process of getting the peasant delegates into the electoral college is only part of the complicated process of bringing the Duma into existence. There are other members of the community entitled to vote besides the peasants, and the electoral college of the province is supposed to represent all classes. It will be the easiest way to explain the electoral law of the Russian Empire if I take as a sample the province of Samara, upon the Volga, where I have been spending a few days. It has an area of 38,000 square miles, and a population of 2,750,000. That is to say, it corresponds very closely to the area and population of the State of Indiana. It contains only one town, that of Samara, large enough to be entitled to separate representation in the Duma. Of the five hundred or six hundred members of the Duma, thirteen are allotted to the province of Samara, one for the town, the other twelve for the country districts, in which the small towns are merged. This gives one member to 120,000 population in the town, and one member to every 240,000 in the province. The electoral college of the province of Samara, which has to return twelve members to the Duma, is constituted as follows :

Province of Samara.	Total electors in college.	Peasants.	Landowners.	Town-folk, etc.	Acreage qualifying landowner to vote.
First Dist.....	17	9	4	4	810
Second Dist....	20	7	3	10	945
Third Dist.....	23	16	9	3	945
Fourth Dist....	34	17	9	8	945
Fifth Dist.....	33	17	10	6	1,250
Sixth Dist.....	29	17	8	4	1,475
Seventh Dist....	19	11	5	3	670
	180	94	48	38	

When the college comes together, the first thing to be done is for the peasants, voting separately, to select their own member out of their own number. Having done this, they then join the rest of the college and vote equally with them for the remaining eleven members. These members must be chosen from the members of the college. Any of them or all of them may be peasants, landowners, or town-folk, as the majority may prefer. As the peasants in Samara and in many other provinces are in a ma-

jority of 94 to 86 over all the other members of the college, they would have no trouble in monopolizing the representation. It is not very probable that this will be done. The peasant is shy, unaccustomed to political adventures, and at first, at any rate, he is likely to content himself with voting for the most popular landowner or the most active townsman with whom he does business.

OTHER CLASSES PARTICIPATING.

The landowners, who include owners of real estate, whether of mines or of houses, are elected by electoral committees of their respective districts. These electoral committees of a district, which are charged with the election of members to the electoral college of the province, are composed as follows : (1) The larger landowners ; (2) representatives of the smaller landowners ; (3) the larger mine-owners ; (4) representatives of the owners of real estate and owners of real estate (other than places of business and of industry) to the value of \$7,500 ; and (5) the clergy and monks possessing Church lands. These electoral committees are summoned and presided over by the marshal of the nobility of the district or his deputy. They choose out of their number, voting by ballot, the number of representatives allotted them in the electoral college.

The electoral committees of the smaller towns not directly represented in the Duma are constituted as follows : (1) Landowners with property rated at \$750 ; (2) owners of shops and places of business paying the industrial tax ; (3) shopkeepers, men of business, and others.

The members of the various electoral committees having chosen their representatives in the electoral college, the election will then take place. The peasant members having elected their special representative, the whole college will proceed to elect the other members allotted to that government. The voting is by ballot, and in cases where the candidates receive an equal number of votes the decision is taken by casting lots. The voting is by ballot, either by balls or by secret voting papers.

The validity of the elections is decided, not by the Duma itself, but by a special electoral machinery of commissions, from which appeal can be taken, in the last resort, to the Senate.

The result of the first election will be awaited with eager curiosity. Whatever the result may be, it can hardly be regarded as a real gauge of the opinion of the nation. The franchise is so restricted that many of the most capable Russians are excluded.

LESSONS FOR AMERICA IN THE JAPANESE ARMY MEDICAL SERVICE.

BY MAJOR LOUIS L. SEAMAN, M.D.

(Author of "The United States Army Ration and Its Adaptability for Use in Tropical Climates," "From Tokio Through Manchuria with the Japanese," etc.)

WITHOUT minimizing for a moment the splendor of Japanese victories on land and sea, at Mukden, Port Arthur, Liao-Yang, or with Togo off Tsushima, in the Korean Straits (and two of these battles are among the bloodiest in history), I yet unhesitatingly assert that Japan's greatest conquests have been in the humanities of war, in the stopping of the needless sacrifice of life by preventable diseases. This dreadful and unnecessary waste of life, especially in conflicts between so-called civilized and Anglo-Saxon races, is one of the most ghastly propositions of the age. The Japanese have gone a long way toward eliminating it. It must never be forgotten that in every great campaign an army faces two enemies. First, the armed forces of the opposing foe, with their various machines of human destruction, which must be met in open battle; and, second, the hidden foe, always found lurking in every camp—the grim specter ever present that gathers its victims while the soldier slumbers in hospital, barracks, or bivouac, the far greater and silent foe, disease. Of these two enemies, the history of warfare for centuries has shown that the first, or open enemy kills about 20 per cent. of the total mortality in the conflict, while the second, or silent enemy kills the 80 per cent.

RAVAGES OF DISEASE IN FORMER WARS.

Longmore's tables, which are accepted as the most reliable statistics of war, and which are based on the records of battles for the past two hundred years, show that there has rarely been a conflict of any great duration in which at least four men have not perished from disease for every one from bullets. In the Russo-Turkish War, 80,000 men died from disease and 20,000 from wounds. In the Crimean campaign, it is asserted on eminent French authority that in six months the allied forces lost 50,000 soldiers from disease and only 2,000 from casualties. In the French campaign in Madagascar, in 1894, of the 14,000 men sent to the front 29 were killed in action and 7,000 from disease, most of which was preventable. In our Spanish-American War, in 1898, in a campaign the actual hostilities of which

lasted six weeks, the deaths from casualties, as given me by the surgeon-general of the United States army, last week, were 293, while those from disease amounted to 3,681, or nearly 14 to 1.

JAPAN'S INSIGNIFICANT LOSSES FROM DISEASE.

Compare these frightful figures with the record of killed, wounded, and sick in the Japanese army from February, 1904, to May, 1905, as furnished me by Minister of War General Terauchi, in Tokio, in August last. There were killed on the field 43,892, or 7.32 per cent. of the entire army in the field; there were wounded 145,527, or 24.27 per cent.; there died of wounds 9,054, or 1.51 per cent.; there died from sickness and disease, including contagious cases, 11,992, or about 2 per cent. of the army. In other words, the total number of deaths from casualties and wounds amounted to 52,946, or nearly 9 per cent. of the army, while the total deaths from sickness amounted to 11,992, or 2 per cent. of the army. This record is unparalleled and unapproached in the history of warfare. How did the Japanese accomplish it? In three preëminently fundamental ways. First, thorough preparation and organization for war, such as was never before made in history; second, through the simple, non-irritating, easily digested ration furnished the troops; and third, because of the brilliant part played by the members of the medical profession in the application of practical sanitation and the stamping out of preventable disease in the army, thereby saving its great hosts for the legitimate purpose of war, the defeating of the enemy in the field.

PREVENTION RATHER THAN CURE.

Ten years ago, in her war with China, Japan's losses from disease were far greater than from casualties, and her authorities recognized that if they were to engage with an antagonist of the strength, prestige, and enormous resources of Russia, this great loss from preventable causes must be overcome. With this aim in view, and untrammelled by the traditions of other lands, she sent her students all over the world to study the army systems in vogue in so-called civilized

countries. With the knowledge thus garnered she evolved a system of her own, based on the practices in vogue in Germany, but greatly modified, and the motto of which might have been, Prevention, not Treatment. She organized her medical department on broad, generous lines, and gave its representatives the rank and power their great responsibilities merited, recognizing that they had to deal with a foe which history has shown has killed 80 per cent. of the total mortality in other wars. She even had the temerity (strange as it may seem to an American or an English army official) to grade her medical men as high as the officers of the line, who combat the enemy who kills only 20 per cent., and to accord them equal authority, except, of course, in the emergency of battle, when all authority devolves, as it should, on the officers of the line. In her home land she organized the most splendid system of hospitals that has ever been devised for the treatment of sick and wounded, and with her army at the front she put into execution the most elaborate and effective system of sanitation that has ever been practised in war.

AN AMPLE HOSPITAL PROVISION.

Upon the declaration of war, she was prepared to house, scientifically treat, and tenderly care for 25,000 wounded in Japan alone, and as the war progressed the hospital capacity was rapidly increased, so that one and one-half years after its commencement, or on the sixth day of July, 1905, the twelve military home hospitals possessed a normal capacity of 58,261. That this great number did not prove overpreparedness was demonstrated after the battle of Mukden, when the total extraordinary hospital capacity of some 80,000 beds, secured by crowding together, was taxed almost to its limits by the shattered phalanxes which poured in by thousands from every transport. It is hardly likely that the military authorities could have foreseen that the war would have developed the greatest recorded battles of the world, with unparalleled movements of fighting soldiers, and a sacrifice of men by wounds so tremendous that even the spectator on the battlefield fortunately fails to grasp the overwhelming horror. Whether the medical department prepared this immense hospital system for disease or bullets is of little importance; the fact being, however, that when the ghastly cortege from Mukden did arrive in Japan, in April, there was hospital room for every disabled man of the thousands and thousands, and instant medical attendance and care and nursing ready and waiting for opportunities of service.

THE MICROSCOPE SUPERSEDES THE SCALPEL.

I have just returned from the headquarters of the Second Imperial Army, on the Mongolian frontier, commanded by General Oku, and the busiest instrument seen during my stay this year, as last, was not the Murata rifle, but the monocular microscope. My opportunities for observation were unexcelled, as the imperial government, in its extreme courtesy, accorded me all the privileges of a foreign medical *attaché*, and weeks were spent in the military hospitals of Japan prior and subsequent to my visit to the front. The war has taught many lessons and destroyed many ideals in matters military as well as surgical, where in the latter case the heretofore accepted idea of the duties of the military surgeon has been shown to be altogether erroneous, where asepsis and antisepsis have relegated the use of the scalpel to comparative obscurity, and where it has been demonstrated most conclusively that the preservation of the army by the prevention of disease is the surgeon's duty, first, last, and nearly all the time.

In surgical technique or in the treatment of the wounded and sick, the Japanese have taught the foreigner comparatively little, but in the field of sanitary science and dietetics they have demonstrated as has never been done before that preventable diseases are preventable, and that the grim specter which lingers in every barrack, tent, and bivouac, and which in the great wars of history has been responsible for eighty out of every one hundred recorded deaths, can be controlled. They have demonstrated that the great incubus of an army in the field, the presence of crowded hospitals, and the large and expensive impedimenta necessary to equip and conduct them, can to a large extent be eliminated. They have preserved their armies for the legitimate purposes for which armies are enlisted—the killing and conquering of an open enemy in the field, instead of having four-fifths of its mortality victims of the silent foe. It is against this dreadful scourge, this needless sacrifice, that the Japanese have made their hardest fight and won their most signal victories,—victories that will redound more to their credit than the expulsion of the Muscovite aggressor.

THE QUESTION BEFORE OUR CONGRESS.

When contemplating these splendid figures that have just been stated,—52,946 deaths from casualties to 11,992 from disease, or more than four deaths from bullets to one from disease, instead of four from disease to one from bullets, as are shown in Longmore's tables, or fourteen men from disease to one from bullets, as was

shown in the Spanish-American War,—the Congress of the United States may appreciate the grave crisis which will arise in our army, unless radical reforms are instituted, should this country become involved in another war. A bill will be introduced at its next session to increase the efficiency of the medical department of the United States army. It failed at the last session because the chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, and many of his colleagues, regarded it as a "graft" for the medical department, and could not be brought to see wherein it benefited the interests or safeguarded the health of the men who did the fighting, and in this conclusion I believe they were perfectly right, because it was hopelessly defective in essential features.

SANITATION AT PANAMA.

There is a lingering suspicion that the medical department of the army was originally intended to benefit the fighting unit, but the tendency of the existing system is to ignore the necessities of the man who pulls the trigger, and, as interpreted by the House Committee on Military Affairs, to subordinate its interests to political preferment and personal advancement. If convinced of the necessity, Congress undoubtedly would promptly grant all required appropriations, but under the existing system it can see no reason for further advances. If in the new bill a thorough reorganization of the medical department were advocated, elevating its dignity and standing, and wherein it was given the necessary authority to enforce its orders, as is the case with line officers, then indeed I believe Congress would gladly indorse it. We would then see no more such humiliating spectacles as were witnessed in the Spanish War, or more recently at Panama, where the recommendations of a brilliant exponent of the medical corps, Colonel Gorgas, were ignored by a commission principally composed of staff officers, with the consequence of neglected sanitation, resulting in a costly epidemic and the ultimate downfall and disbandment of the commission itself, to say nothing of the delay in the construction of the great canal and the loss of interest on the sixty-million-dollar investment for nearly a year,—an amount of money that would have run the entire medical department of the army for years. The new Panama commission promptly indorsed the findings of Colonel Gorgas, and the only reason he did not repeat on the Isthmus his

splendid record of sanitary reform made in Havana was because he was a victim of this damnable system.

WHERE RED TAPE IS DANGEROUS.

Every department of the United States army is automatus excepting the medical department. The officer of ordnance, of cavalry, of infantry, or even of the signal service, can issue his orders and have them executed. Not so with the medical officer. He can merely submit recommendations or suggestions to the line officer, who may accept them or not, as pleases his fancy. How this worked in the Spanish-American War we all well remember. When the hospitals in Manila were overcrowded with patients (and I was there at the time) there was a deficiency of assistants, and the chief surgeon submitted a recommendation to the major-general commanding to the effect that a cablegram should be sent to Washington requesting fifty additional medical officers and two hundred nurses, this major-general censored the dispatch and refused to send it, on the ground that the authorities at Washington would infer that he did not have "the situation well in hand." Later, the chief surgeon did send a message to the surgeon-general at Washington, outside of military channels, and informed him of the desperate situation and the immediate need of help. But this help did not arrive until long after taps had sounded the requiem of many a poor victim who, had proper precautions been taken, might have been saved.

As stated in my address before the military surgeons at Detroit, on September 28, "until the line and staff officer of the American army is taught the necessity of sanitation and the medical officer is given rank and authority to enforce it, our medical department must remain a humiliating failure. Its continuance under present conditions is no less than an evidence of national imbecility." Until the medical officer is given the rank and power to enforce his orders relative to sanitation, hygiene, and control of dietary, and is made responsible to the Secretary of War, instead of to the line officer in command, there will be no improvement. While there are notable and brilliant exceptions to the rule, it may be safely asserted that the tendency of the existing system is to increase the value of the individual as a medical practitioner in inverse ratio to the time he has been in the service.



THE SANITATION OF JAPAN'S NAVY.

BY S. SUZUKI.

(Surgeon-general of the Imperial Japanese Navy.)

AT Sasebo, on February 6, 1904, all was in readiness aboard our united squadrons. We were to sail that day. For war with Russia was no longer a matter of speculation. I summoned the surgeons of the entire fleet to the quarter-deck of the *Mikasa* and talked to them about the treatment they were to apply to the wounded in the coming struggle. In the course of my brief address I directed them to make use of the aseptic method instead of the antiseptic method, which had been employed during the war with China, ten years before. Instead of fighting disease germs after they had entered the body, we would devote all our resources to preventing their entrance. I advised the surgeons also to avoid, as much as circumstances would permit, all serious and complicated surgical operations, such as amputations, aboard the ships, and especially during action. I emphasized the importance of transferring our wounded to the hospital ships as soon as an action was over. The aseptic method had never been used in our navy. The responsibility for the innovation was upon my shoulders. Naturally, I was very anxious, and very naturally the story of the happy working of the new methods has brought to me satisfaction beyond words.

JAPAN DISCLAIMS NOVELTY.

In our aseptic methods the world would find nothing new. We have simply been the first to put them into practice in war. All our dressing-materials were sterilized by steam. Our surgical instruments were boiled in soda-water. Our surgeons washed their hands in sterilized water. We washed the skin around the wound with sterilized water, with soap applied by a brush. After that, a solution of sublimate was used; then we washed the wound once again with sterilized water. When the wound did not permit the use of soap and water, unhydrated alcohol was used.

You see, then, we have done nothing out of the way—nothing new. Every day, both in America and Europe, the same methods are being used. In other matters of hygiene, we have not been able to safeguard the health of our men by methods hitherto unknown to the medical world. Take the instructions which

our surgeons issue to the men and compare them with those issued to the Western seamen and I venture to say that the one difference between them is the difference between the Nippon language and the languages of the West. You may suppose that we have discovered a few features new to the practitioners of the West and which we used to better advantage because of the peculiarities of diet and of race. Nothing of the kind. In this country I am told that the results we have attained in the treatment of the wounded have never been surpassed, never been equaled, and are, in fact, far beyond anything known to the military surgery of the West. The simple mode of life, the peculiarity of the diet of our men,—to these some of the Western people have ascribed the reason of the satisfactory results we have seen. There is, however, really more fancy than fact in this diagnosis of the case. Aboard our ships we have treated some three hundred Russian wounded, and the results have been the same as with our own men. Most certainly there was no miracle. It may be,—and permit me to say that this conclusion was forced upon me,—after all, an old, old tale. To know is one thing, and to act out, live out, in the life of every day is quite another thing. The West knows quite as much of the matter as we of the East have learned. In knowledge, the disciple is not greater than his master. Not in the brains and the understandings of the methods does the difference seem to lie, but in the will and the hands of men and surgeons to do.

NO PLACE FOR MOCK HEROICS IN A NAVAL ACTION.

Seated around a table in the quiet of the days of peace, naval surgeons the world over have permitted themselves the luxury of becoming wise as to what one should do for the wounded while the shells are raining and the guns speaking. Some would have you rush to the men as they fall and apply the healing art, there beside the exploded shell one or many of whose fragments have been cruel to the men. That is a splendid picture in an heroic war romance; but it could not be found on a fighting ship in the thick of action. If you insist on doing this and many other heroic deeds, the Actual State of Things, which has an eloquence of its own, will

bring to bear upon you many powerful arguments, that you may see the folly of your wisdom.

Consider for a moment. In our navy, even aboard a battleship, there are only three surgeons. They can heroically rush to three men in distress. What are they going to do for a hundred voices calling for their services at the same point of time? In the days of peace, the surgeons of the Nippon navy devote many hours regularly every week to the work of training the men aboard the ships in the art of bandaging wounds, in the prevention and stoppage of bleeding, and in the transport of wounded men. Clerks, riggers, servants, bandsmen, and fire-brigade men form the first and the principal division in this work. Now, these men are trained in first-aid and ambulance work. On the 10th of August, 1904, in the battle of the Yellow Sea, we too wished to work "according to the book." We stationed ambulance parties with first-aid dressings at several points on the upper and main decks of the *Mikasa*. We told those men to rush to the wounded whenever they fell, dress their wounds on the spot, and carry them below upon stretchers. We thought that the plan would work out beautifully. We paid for this romantic notion with the instant death of seven of the ambulance men,—killed in their work of dressing the wounds,—and seven more wounded in the same work. In that action the *Mikasa* was the target of the Russian guns, and it was Russian shells that blew our school notions into fragments. Only about one-third of our wounded had received the first-aid dressing before they were taken down to the surgery. In a large majority of cases the wounded were picked up by their comrades as they fell and carried, not on stretchers, but on the backs or in the arms of their friends.

ADVANTAGE OF TWO SURGERIES ABOARD SHIP.

Through the cloud of cigarette smoke across the same happy table, in the piping times of peace people do not always approve of having two surgeries aboard a ship. Nevertheless, on every warship, from a battleship to a destroyer, it is important, almost imperative, to have two surgeries at least. "In the case of a small cruiser or a destroyer, where there is only one surgeon, what is he to do with two surgeries?" they would say. All that I can say in answer is that the critics ought to have been on board of the *Mikasa*, during the battle of the Nippon Sea and seen what a Russian shell did to one of our surgeries. It certainly does not take a prophet to see what confusion, what waste of labor, and what loss of time would have resulted from its destruction had we not had

another to take its place. It is not a rare happening, the visit of a shell to a surgery and sick-berths. Aboard the same *Mikasa*, in one of the other battles of the war, a shell wrecked her sick-berths. As a matter of history, the surgeons of the Nippon navy had learned the lesson in this matter long before the battles of the present war. When our ships fought against the Chinese, in the war of 1894-95, there was only one surgery aboard our ship, the *Hiyei*. A shell exploded in it. The *Hiyei* suffered so severely that the result was simply appalling.

LOCATION AND PROTECTION OF SURGERIES.

The location of the ship's surgery is a vital matter. The ideal place is somewhere below the water line, furnished with proper apparatus for conveyance and for ventilation. The only way to have such a surgery is to provide for it at the time of building. It is a difficult matter, however, even then. You must always remember that the prime end and aim of a man-of-war is to fight, and fighting is a rather far cry from the gentle art of healing. As a matter of fact, not a single ship in the imperial navy of Nippon has its surgeries ideally placed. On a few Russian ships we captured, however, I saw them thus happily placed.

In an unprotected cruiser, one portion is practically as safe as another; it is all exposed. It would be wise to take every precaution for the protection of the surgery in such a case. Canvas screens and mantlets serve admirably in protecting the surgery from the fragments of shells. Near Port Arthur, our gunboat, *Chokai*, once assisted and covered our land forces. A shell entered close to the cabin which was then used as her surgery, and exploded. But the surgery was kept quite free from the fragments of the shell, because of the screens.

UP-TO-DATE EQUIPMENT.

Steam sterilizers, buckets for soiled materials, ice-boxes, are regulation equipment for a surgery. We have found it convenient to add to the list a large pair of tailors' shears. You will be grateful for these when you have to cut off the clothes of the wounded. As for an operating-table, one can improvise it out of chests, which are found in numbers aboard a ship. Jugs with long narrow spouts filled with water also never fail to win the gratitude of the wounded. Tubes for sucking are too slow for the eager and parched lips, and so also are tumblers. Ready-made splints of many kinds and in number would assist a surgeon materially. Fenestrated zinc-plate splints are useful also. With them it is always wise to have beside you a pair of stout nippers

to cut them to shape, as a blacksmith might not answer your call any too soon in the heat of a battle. Cotton rollers six or seven inches wide, three or four changes of operating clothes for a surgeon, and a transfusion apparatus of salt solution are good things to have.

INVASIONS OF DISEASE.

There is nothing striking or special in our sanitary arrangements in war time. Infectious and venereal diseases are the two enemies which gnaw at the very root of the fighting efficiency of a navy. Naturally, they receive the most serious attention of the surgeon. We saw a transient appearance of dysentery among our men in front of Port Arthur during August and September of 1904. The total number of cases of dysentery in the entire fleet from the beginning of the war to June, 1905, amounted to 151. I think flies were responsible for the outbreak of disease. It was impossible to keep them out. Whenever the ships of our fleet came in touch with colliers, the pests came aboard in spite of any and everything we could do. Whenever boats were sent out to examine Chinese junks, they invariably brought back to the ships formidable armies of flies.

The total number of cases of typhoid from the beginning of the war to the end of June, 1905, was 241, which shows that there was no special increase during the war period. We had only a few cases at one time, and therefore were sure that the morbid germs came from without, not from within. Cases of enteric fever will break out, now and then, even in time of peace, in spite of every precaution. And we are happy in seeing that throughout the war period there was no special increase in this disease. In time of war it is not so difficult to prevent the invasion of venereal disease among the men. Before the outbreak of our war with Russia, however, we paid very serious attention to this matter. By means of lectures, through the example of the officers, by professional instructions and private exhortations, no stone was left unturned to bring about a keen awakening of moral sense among the men. There had been a long period of waiting at Sasebo before we sailed for Port Arthur. During the last few weeks, some of the men were not quite as prudent as they might have been. These cases, however, speedily yielded to treatment aboard the ship, and from that time on, of course, the men were kept out of temptation perforce.

LESS SICKNESS IN WAR THAN IN PEACE.

In war time, the work of the crew is increased many times over that of peace times. The

hours of sleep and rest are reduced to the minimum; shore leave is entirely suspended; coal-ing at sea or at the base calls for a constant succession of hard work, both for officers and men. The engineer sections are never at rest, even while the ship is at anchor. Steam must be kept up, and the watches are more than doubled. The amount of rations is increased 20 per cent., but even this does not apply to rice. The supply of rice is strictly kept below twelve ounces, as the overconsumption of rice tends to produce cases of "kakke." In the light of these facts the health average of the long period of campaign reads well. In the year 1903, the total percentage of sick was 3.87; in 1904, it fell to 3.32, and in the first half of the present year it again fell to 3.01.

THE CONNING-TOWER A DISCARDED REFUGE.

In the matter of protection for the personnel of the fighting ships this war has added many a curious chapter. It had been believed that the conning-tower was the safest place aboard a ship. Our Admiral Togo always fought outside of it. Throughout the action of August 10, as well as during the entire battle of the Sea of Nippon, he stood unprotected upon the highest, or compass, bridge. He received, not even a slight wound. The conning-tower has what are called observation slits. They are cut very low. Of necessity, however, they are made rather wide, that the officers inside may command a wide range of observation. Many a time fragments of exploding shells found their way into the conning-tower through these slits and seriously wounded the men inside.

TERRIBLE EXECUTION OF A SINGLE RUSSIAN SHELL.

To show how a slight oversight results very seriously, let me mention one singular case on the *Mikasa*. It was in the action of the 10th of August on the Yellow Sea, and we were standing with Admiral Togo on the compass bridge. There stood a semaphore in the fore part of the flagship. That might have been removed without any serious loss to the fighting efficiency of the ship. But it had not been taken down. A Russian shell struck it and exploded. Twenty-three men were down instantly; some of them were killed outright, others were wounded. Among the number was the commander of the *Mikasa*, Captain Ijichi, who stood with the admiral not far from where I was. If only the semaphore had been taken down,—but of course we are usually richer in hindsight than in foresight. We wished to remove Captain Ijichi to a hospital ship. Not even a surgeon of the Nippon navy is always obeyed strictly. The cap

tain would not listen to any such tame speech while the voices of his own guns were filling his ears. He would stay with his ship while the *Mikasa* was called upon to face the enemy. A fragment of the shell entered and lodged in the calf of his leg. Without removing the shell-fragment, we treated the wound in the usual manner. It healed up completely. Fragments of a shell are sterilized and purified by the intense heat to which they are subjected, and there is no fear of suppuration from them. When a fragment on entering the body carries with it a piece of a man's clothing, which naturally is not sterilized, we are at once notified of its presence by the formation of pus. After the fall of Port Arthur, when it was known that it would be a long time before the Baltic squadron of Russia could make its appearance in the far-Eastern waters, Captain Ijichi devoted a few weeks to a hospital and to his wound. There the healed wound was opened and the fragment of the shell taken out. When the Russian ships came half the world round, the captain was ready to greet them; he saw the battle of Nippon Sea thoroughly healed of his wounds.

VARIOUS WOUNDS INFLICTED IN NAVAL FIGHTS.

As happens in every war, we saw many a curious thing, especially in wounds. When a shell explodes and the men are wounded by its fragments and splinters, the wounds show the characteristics of laceration in the fleshy as well as in the bony part of the body. Generally, the mouths of the wounds are smaller than the exits. This is not always the case, however. Singularly enough, one sometimes meets a case entirely opposite. We do not know the cause of this singular phenomenon; we only know that it is a fact. And as a matter of history, we have found in many a blind wound fragments of shell several times larger than the mouths of the wounds through which they had entered. At other times we were puzzled at finding a wound with only one opening, and at finding, after a careful search with Roentgen rays, no sign of splinter or fragment lodging inside. Sometimes we found blood-vessels cut across, but very rarely did the profuse loss of blood result from such wounds, the reason being that the curling of the cut ends of the vessel closed the opening and prevented the hemorrhage. We have found also that arterial bleeding is comparatively rare, for the reason that the shell-fragments often pass very close to the arteries without the least injury to them, even in cases where the wounds are large. As for the kinds of wounds inflicted upon the men in the course of a naval battle, they varied both in shape and nature. Often one man re-

ceives more than one wound. The following table shows something of the different nature of wounds received by our men from the beginning of the war to the battle of the Nippon Sea:

Contusions.....	480
Abrasions.....	212
Incised and punctured wounds.....	26
Wounds with loss of soft tissues.....	53
Lacerated wounds.....	691
Blind wounds.....	224
Perforated wounds.....	118
Pulverized wounds.....	43
Mutilated wounds.....	129
Concussion of labyrinth; rupture and congestion of tympanic membranes.....	116
Compound fractures and dislocations.....	237
Explosive wounds.....	570
Asphyxia.....	25
Drowned.....	716
Total.....	3,764

STATISTICS OF JAPAN'S NAVAL CASUALTIES.

The following table shows the killed and wounded from the beginning of the war to August 15, 1905:

	Killed.	Wounded.	Total.
Attack upon Port Arthur (February 9, 1904).....	3	69	72
Battle of the Yellow Sea (August 10, 1904).....	65	161	226
Battle of Ulsan Bay (August 14, 1904).....	36	96	132
Naval artillery brigade (June 26-Dec. 31, 1904).....	30	313	343
Battle of the Nippon Sea (May 27-28, 1905).....	88	611	699
Others.....	1,699	541	2,240
Totals.....	1,891	1,791	3,682

We have heard many a curious tale of lives saved because of some trifling things which the wounded men carried in their pockets, and which prevented a further ingress of a bullet or a fragment of shell into their bodies. We captured a certain Russian officer, who had been wounded. At the time of receiving the wound, this Russian officer had a number of gold coins in his trousers pocket. When we came to treat his wound, we had to extract every one of the gold coins from his buttock, into which a splinter of a shell had driven them.

The most eloquent story of the war, so far as the working of the medical end of the navy is concerned, is written in figures. The total number of casualties from the beginning of the war to August, 1905, was 3,682. Of this number, 1,891 were killed and 1,791 were wounded. Of the wounded, 117 died. Of the 1,891 deaths, 1,445 were due to drowning caused by the sinking of ships by Russian mines. Of the 1,791 wounded, there were 647 who required hospital treatment; of these, only 32 died.

A GREAT FEDERATION OF AMERICAN CHURCHES.

BY GEORGE PERRY MORRIS.

THE Inter-Church Conference on Federation, which meets in Carnegie Hall, New York City, November 15-20, is expected by its projectors to marshal a majority of the Evangelical, Protestant denominations of the United States in a federation "for more effective promotion of the interests of the Kingdom of God." Official delegates from the highest representative legislative or administrative bodies of twenty-seven different denominations with eighteen million adherents will meet for the first time to discuss ways and means "along simple lines that will create a permanent council which, without interference with denominational autonomy or affairs, will open the way to secure federated action in every part of the country that will advance and conserve the activities and interests of the churches," and that will establish in the field of national affairs what the local and State church federations have proved to be in the smaller areas of civic activity,—viz., a force which will remove "social evils, cleanse centers of vice and corruption, promote temperance, Sabbath observance, and general morality."

In support of this plan the President of the United States (by letter), Governor Higgins, Mayor McClellan, Justice Brewer, of the federal Supreme Court; Senator Beveridge, of Indiana; bishops of the Protestant Episcopal and Methodist Episcopal churches, and moderators of national assemblies of other of the denominations, as well as eminent men from the ranks of the clergy and laity, are enlisted, and are announced to speak on A United Church and (a) Religious Education, and (b) The Social Order, and (c) Home and Foreign Missions, and (d) The Fellowship of the Faith, and (e) Evangelization, and (f) The National Life, the meeting closing with a discussion of The Kingdom of God,—the Transcendent Aim of a United Church. Seldom if ever in this country's record of religious assemblies has a programme been worked out so well coördinated in its scheme and all its details, and enlisting speakers of such eminence.

The nearest analogue to the scheme of organization which will be debated and worked out at this meeting is that of the National Council of the Evangelical Free Churches of England and Wales, which has brought the Free Churchmen,

or Nonconformists, of those countries so near together, and which is described in the following article by Dr. G. Campbell Morgan. This British council has not the breadth which the American federation will have, inasmuch as it is made up exclusively of sects,—Congregational or Presbyterian in polity or forms of church government,—while the American federation will have, at its opening session, at least, representatives of the Protestant Episcopal Church, with its Episcopal polity. The National Council of the Free Churches excludes Unitarians, and by a decision of the executive committee of the American meeting representatives of eminence chosen as delegates by the National Unitarian Conference will not be admitted to the meeting in New York. This decision, however, may be reversed by the delegates present.

The impetus to organization on a national scale of a movement lessening denominational friction, abolishing unwise multiplication of churches and other forms of ecclesiastical machinery, and setting men and forces shoulder to shoulder against a common foe naturally has grown out of the success of local and State alliances or federations, where the principles commonly accepted and the ends to be sought for have been worked out on a smaller scale, such, for instance, as the Interdenominational Commission in the State of Maine, of which President Hyde, of Bowdoin College, has been a moving spirit, and the federations of States like Rhode Island and of many of the cities and towns where a joint canvass of population is carried on by the churches in common, shepherding of the unchurched disclosed by the census, and fraternal coöperation of Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Jews in getting at data for intelligent evangelistic and reformatory action have pointed the way to coöperation on a broader field of action.

The significance of this movement is that it aims at essential church unity without venturing on the field of theory, where former movements for organic church unity have been wrecked. It comes at the desired end from the standpoint of spirit, and not doctrine, from the standpoint of success in promoting ecclesiastical efficiency and civic righteousness rather than by procuring en-

tire agreement on issues of ecclesiastical origins or social ends.

Contributory to the unanimity with which the plan has been accepted by so representative a body of church courts and legislatures are several factors in our national life to-day. Institutional religion is passing through a period of crisis which is forcing its supporters to combine for protection and reform, in order to meet the altered mood of the world. The emphasis in school and in college, in religious organizations, and in societies like the Y. M. C. A., the Y. P. S. C. E., and the Epworth League is not sectarian. Competition of the state in forms of activity formerly controlled by the Church is creating grave problems of finance for the Church which compel it to husband its resources. Study of the origins of religions and the birth of the Christian ecclesia does not confirm most of the exclusive and divisive historic claims from which sectarian divisions hitherto have sprung. The laity at home are refusing longer to invest in enterprises which are unnecessarily competitive, and which have back of them nothing fundamental and permanent, spiritually judged.

Last, but not least, the example of the churches of the Protestant mission fields is at last being accepted by the home churches, and a unity of spirit and polity which has been found workable abroad is now coming to be the ideal for the churches at home. Not only are the separated Wesleyans of England devising a union similar to the Wesleyan unity of Canada and Australia, but in both those portions of the British Empire Wesleyans, Congregationalists, and Presbyterians are in the early stages of a movement for unity which will give a modern creed and a modern polity expressing the modern mind and

the modern man's latest experiment in church government. Northern and Southern Presbyterians are uniting on the mission field where they cannot yet unite at home. English and American Congregationalists are setting up union associations in India and China, and have decided to stop competition in education in north China. The Protestant missionaries of Korea have just met to devise a united church for that appendage of the new Japan, and on September 25, 1905, a delegated body of the Protestant missionaries of China, Anglican and Protestant Episcopal included, met in Peking to plan for the ending of strife, for closer unity, and a federation of the missions of China.

The personal element in this conference deserves some recognition. Chief credit for its slow but steady coming into being is due to its secretary, the Rev. E. B. Sanford, who began thirty-three years ago, in a periodical which he helped support, to plead for church union. Subsequent service as editor and promoter of religious and educational enterprises has given him a wide acquaintance among leaders in all the denominations. Influential as an adviser, for a long time interested in the matter, the Rev. Dr. William Hayes Ward, of the *Independent*, has been prominent more than any other journalist, while of laymen, those especially conspicuous have been Mr. J. Cleveland Cady, the architect; Dr. Lucien Warner, prominent in the International Y. M. C. A. work, and Mr. William H. Wanamaker. The chairman of the executive committee, newly enlisted as administrative head of the organization, is the Rev. Dr. William H. Roberts, a statistician and administrative officer of much eminence among Presbyterians.

CHURCH FEDERATION IN ENGLAND.

BY THE REV. G. CAMPBELL MORGAN, D.D.

IN view of the great Inter-Church Conference on Federation to be held in New York City, I have been asked to outline something of the history and work of the National Council of Evangelical Free Churches of England and Wales—an organization which for ten or more years has been doing the work which your proposed federation of churches will seek to accomplish. True, of necessity the lines of action upon which an American organization will proceed must be somewhat different from those

which the National Free Church Council has followed. You in America have no conflict with the state or with a state church such as we have been compelled to wage; but you have the same social and moral problems to solve, for which you need the collective wisdom of all the Protestant hosts of your country. Then, too, America is in need of just the same kind of organization which will promote the unity, good-fellowship, and coöperation of different denominations, as the national council on this side has

meant the drawing together and uniting of Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists, Presbyterians, and other sects.

First, as to history. Churchmen of all ages have met and discussed the union of Christendom, without, so far, being able to bring us within measurable distance of that ideal. Some discussions which were held many years ago at Grindelwald, in Switzerland, attended by members of several Christian churches, and having for their object the discussion of Christian unity, showed that the way of organized unity, or common action, was still a long way off. But, if they showed that the gulf between the Catholic and the Protestant ideas was too great to be bridged, they also enabled Free Church leaders to realize fully the fundamental unity of the Free Churches and their deep demarcation from Anglo-Catholics. The ideal of Free Church unity was in the air, and the reception of an article Dr. Guinness Rogers contributed to the *Methodist Times* of February 20, 1890, advocating a church congress on a Nonconformist basis, showed that the time was ripe for some action to be taken. The article had been written at the request of the Rev. Hugh Price Hughes, M.A., who perhaps more than any other man made possible the English National Free Church Council movement. Leading Free Church ministers wrote approving of such a congress as Dr. Rogers had suggested, and it certainly appeared that something should be done in this direction.

Local Free Church councils of a non-representative character had begun spontaneously and sporadically to spring out of Nonconformist ministers' fraternals, when, in 1891, after private negotiations, a preliminary private conference of influential Free Church ministers and laymen was held in London, at the house of Mr. Percy W. Bunting, M.A., the present editor of the *Contemporary Review* and also of the *Methodist Times*. It was resolved to summon a conference of Free Churchmen in Manchester during the following autumn, and an executive committee of ministers and laymen was appointed, with the late Dr. Mackennal, of Bowdon, whose name is indissolubly associated with this movement, as secretary.

That congress met in the Central Hall, Manchester, on Monday, November 7, 1892, and was an undoubted success. The chief speakers at the first demonstration in connection with the gatherings were Drs. Monro Gibson, Clifford, and Berry.

The congress discussed first principles,—“the Church, the Ministry, the Sacraments, and the Fellowship,”—subjects which at once brought

up all the questions on which the Free Churches had been divided for three hundred years. As Dr. Mackennal has written, “It was at once perceived that the same idea of the Church was held by Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists; the differences were of method, or of interpretation, not of the substance of the faith.” After considering principles, the congress then discussed what practical religious work might be done in common. Mr. Percy Bunting introduced “Town Problems,” and the Rev. Thomas Law Nonconformist “Parishes.”

The congress was a mere meeting of persons, having no formal representative character, but indirectly representing the Congregationalists, Baptists, Presbyterians, Wesleyans, New Connection Methodists, Calvinistic Methodists, Bible Christians, and members of the “Free Church of England.” Members of the Society of Friends also have from almost the first taken part in the movement.

This first congress of 1892, by its nature and success, at once demonstrated the demand for and possibility of Free Church union. It was resolved to hold a second congress in the spring of 1894. In the interval, such was the impetus given to the movement that many isolated Free Church councils were formed, and the Rev. Thomas Law, then of Bradford, who had been closely identified with the movement from the beginning, went from town to town forming these local councils.

THE BASIS OF REPRESENTATION.

So far, the movement had reached the stage to which federation has at present arrived in America. A great congress, in some respects similar to that to be held in New York, had met and foreshadowed the possibility of a closer Free Church union. The second congress, which was held at Leeds in the spring of 1894, had to determine upon what basis any future organization should proceed. It was intended that a truly representative Free Church council should be formed, but there were two methods upon which this might be done. The view which had at first found favor in some quarters was that it should consist of representatives elected by the different denominations as such, and that the representatives should officially represent these denominations. The Rev. Hugh Price Hughes, M.A., and the Rev. Thomas Law both offered a resolute opposition to this method, and strongly urged that the basis of representation should be territorial. The convincing argument was that the territorial basis,—in short, the representation of councils and federations,—would avoid sectarian distinction and also evade the possibility of

compromising or committing separate churches to any particular policy. It would also mean that representatives would attend the congress, not as Baptists, or Methodists, or Presbyterians, or Congregationalists, but simply as Evangelical Free Churchmen, a fact which in itself was a proclamation to the world that the Free Churches were in essence one.

It cannot be too strongly insisted of what importance this decision was. Had the denominational basis of representation been decided upon, it must have meant the inefficient working and possibly the future wrecking of the scheme. It can be easily understood that direct representation from different denominations would perpetuate the distinctions between the different bodies. Every question of any importance would have to be referred back to the appointing assemblies, and the representatives would be afraid of taking any definite action for fear of committing their respective official bodies. The constitution which was adopted a few years later provided that each local council, formed in harmony with the principles of the national council, should be entitled to send as many representatives—men or women—to each annual council as the executive committee should from time to time determine. Although a few personal members are still admitted, the local representative element is alone entitled to vote, and preponderates at the assemblies. It will be seen that this method, in the words of Mr. Percy Bunting, "rests upon the representation, not of distinct religious bodies, but of local churches, taking the religious society habitually worshipping in a particular building as the unit. This unit, amid a great variety of institutions built by the aggregation in different forms of many units, is a fact common to all the Free Churches,—indeed, to all Christian churches. It is the primary cell of Christian organization, and in reverting to it for the basis of the constitution the national council has adopted a system as wide and as fundamental as the institutions of Christianity permit. Firmly built upon the Christian intuitions and the Christian history, the national council possesses the note of absolute catholicity, leaving out only those who insist upon a sectarian position, who are deficient in the great doctrines of the faith. The council is the great and permanent evangelical assembly of the country, and may well be called the National Evangelical Church of England and Wales."

It is important to note that all the Evangelical Free Church denominations are included in the scope of this alliance, and representatives from the Congregational and Baptist churches, the

Methodist churches, the Presbyterian Church of England, the Free Presbyterian Church, the Society of Friends, etc., take part in all the deliberations of the council.

In view of the decision of the Leeds congress to work on the territorial plan, it was resolved at once to form local councils, which in their turn should elect representatives to the national council. It was also decided that for the future there should be an official president for each annual congress. The Rev. Thomas Law was appointed organizing secretary for the purpose of forming local councils throughout the country.

ORGANIZING LOCAL COUNCILS.

At the third congress, which met at Birmingham in March, 1895, it was evident that the movement was rapidly taking definite shape. As a result of the organizing skill of the secretary and the persuasive oratory and statesmanship particularly of the late H. P. Hughes and Dr. Berry, one hundred and thirty new Free Church councils had been formed. For the first time the Free Church Congress assumed something of its present representative character. Dr. Berry was its president. As before his constructive statesmanship had guided the development of the new movement, so now his noble, Christian temper gave a spiritual note to the movement which it has never since lost. Dr. Berry declared from the chair that the only explanation of the movement was "the present-day inspiration of the Holy Ghost, acting in and through the churches of Jesus Christ." The Birmingham congress heard with thankfulness that three-fourths of the new councils had undertaken house-to-house visitation, that many united evangelical missions had been held, and much electoral work done for the purity of local administration. Mr. George Cadbury and the late Mr. Richard Cadbury came forward with generous financial assistance for the work of forming local councils.

Nottingham had the honor of welcoming the first National Free Church Council proper. It met in the spring of 1896, under the presidency of the Rev. H. Price Hughes, the first president duly and formally elected by a representative congress of the Evangelical Free Churches of England and Wales. It was an honor befitting one who had been in many ways a pioneer of the new movement and one of its finest "driving forces." At the Nottingham council the new constitution was adopted.

The second annual council was held at the City Temple, London, in 1897, Dr. J. Monro Gibson being president. The number of local councils had increased to three hundred and

eighty-four, while at the third annual council, held at Bristol, the number of local councils represented was five hundred.

Since that time the national council has met every year in March. The tenth meeting was held this year in Manchester, with Dr. Horton as president. These annual meetings of the national council have been characterized by a steady growth of spiritual power and breadth of outlook. The representative membership has increased each year until now some eight hundred councils are represented and fifty federations of councils.

THE "FREE CHURCH CATECHISM."

The Free Church Council movement has left its mark on the life of the Free Churches of England. It would be impossible to give details of all its work, but some of the landmarks in its history are worth recording. One of the most remarkable literary and theological products of the movement is "The Evangelical Free Church Catechism." This catechism is the result of the labors of a great committee of leading Free Churchmen, upon the draft prepared by the Rev. Principal Dykes, D.D. The Rev. H. P. Hughes acted as chairman and convener, and the recent "Life" by his daughter gives some interesting details of their meetings at his house. While not binding upon any Free Church, this catechism is a remarkable demonstration of the fundamental unity and progressive orthodoxy of Evangelical Free Churchmen of all schools, and has been accepted by them all. It has been of the utmost service already; about half a million have been sold in England, and it has been translated into Italian, French, Welsh, and other languages.

SPIRITUAL RESULTS OF THE MOVEMENT.

In 1901, the Free Church Council undertook a vast simultaneous mission all over the country, about five thousand united missions being held at one time. It resulted in the addition of a great number of members; but its chief influence was the awakening of the churches.

The chief work of the national council is spiritual; hence, whatever action may have to be taken from time to time in defense of the rights of the Free Churches, there is always some definitely spiritual work going on. The council's mission staff includes Gipsy Smith,—who is to visit America again next year,—Mr. W. R. Lane, and the Rev. J. Tolefree Parr. In addition to these a large number of missionaries are employed more or less during the year. The united missions they have conducted are yearly increasing in size, importance, and results.

RELATION TO POLITICAL AND SOCIAL INTERESTS.

The objects of the federation are, and ever must be, religious, and not political. But there are occasions on which, in the name of politics, party politics invade the sphere of spiritual interests, and then the national council has felt itself in duty bound to throw all its forces and strength into the cause of public righteousness. For the past two or three years the council has been engaged in a struggle for national education. This conflict was forced upon it by the introduction by the government of an education measure designed to put denominational teaching on the rates. This the Free Churches strongly opposed. In a land where there is no state church and no privileged class it is difficult to understand the position of affairs in England; with a state church which almost of necessity is political, and which of late has used the state to further its own ends, Free Churchmen could not but fight in an organized way against such a system of taxation.

Besides work of this kind, the Free Church councils are responsible for a vast array of social and religious undertakings; there is not a department in the life of the churches which the councils do not touch. All over the country the councils organize united open-air work; the liquor traffic is fought at Brewster Sessions and by creating public opinion; action is taken on behalf of the imperiled British Sabbath; strong united effort is put forth against the gambling evil; a definite endeavor is made on behalf of social purity,—the Council of South London has been the means of shutting up more than five hundred brothels. The way in which a movement like the Free Church Council will develop is shown by its offshoots,—for instance, some years ago the national council started the Girls' Guild, an organization to band together and help Free Church girls; this now has about four hundred branches in all parts of the country, and within the last two or three years no less than fifteen permanent homes for girls have been opened in different centers. Quite recently a Young Free Churchmen's Auxiliary has been started, and although this is quite in its infancy, the idea contains vast possibilities. Then there is a prosperous publication department attached to the national council, which not only spreads abroad the principles of the Free Churches and supplies theological and church literature of a high order, but contributes a respectable sum toward the expenses of the federation.

It may safely be said that the National Free Church Council of England and Wales has now passed into an established institution, working on a well-defined and solid basis.

TEXT OF THE RUSSO-JAPANESE TREATY.

(Signed at Portsmouth, N. H., September 5, 1905.)

THE Emperor of Japan on one part and the Emperor of All the Russias on the other part, animated by a desire to restore the blessings of peace to their countries, have resolved to conclude a treaty of peace, and have for this purpose named their plenipotentiaries,—that is to say, for his Majesty the Emperor of Japan, Baron Komura Jutaro Jusami, Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun, his minister of foreign affairs, and his Excellency Takahira Kogoro, Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, his minister to the United States, and for his Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, his Excellency Serge Witte, his secretary of state and president of the Committee of Ministers of the Empire of Russia, and his Excellency Baron Roman Rosen, Master of the Imperial Court of Russia, his majesty's ambassador to the United States, who, after having exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in good and due form, have concluded the following articles:

Article I.—There shall henceforth be peace and amity between their Majesties the Emperor of Japan and the Emperor of All the Russias and between their respective states and subjects.

Article II.—The Imperial Russian Government, acknowledging that Japan possesses in Korea paramount political, military, and economical interests, engage neither to obstruct nor interfere with measures for guidance, protection, and control which the imperial government of Japan may find necessary to take in Korea. It is understood that Russian subjects in Korea shall be treated in exactly the same manner as the subjects and citizens of other foreign powers,—that is to say, they shall be placed on the same footing as the subjects and citizens of the most favored nation. It is also agreed, in order to avoid causes of misunderstanding, that the two high contracting parties will abstain on the Russian-Korean frontier from taking any military measure which may menace the security of Russian or Korean territory.

Article III.—Japan and Russia mutually engage:

First.—To evacuate completely and simultaneously Manchuria, except the territory affected by the lease of the Liao-Tung Peninsula, in conformity with the provisions of the additional Article I. annexed to this treaty, and,

Second.—To restore entirely and completely to the exclusive administration of China all the portions of Manchuria now in occupation or under the control of the Japanese or Russian troops, with the exception of the territory above mentioned.

The imperial government of Russia declare that they have not in Manchuria any territorial advantages or preferential or exclusive concessions in the impairment of Chinese sovereignty or inconsistent with the principle of equal opportunity.

Article IV.—Japan and Russia reciprocally engage not to obstruct any general measures common to all countries which China may take for the development of the commerce or industry of Manchuria.

Article V.—The Imperial Russian Government transfers and assigns to the imperial government of Japan, with the consent of the government of China, the lease of Port Arthur, Tallien, and the adjacent territory and territorial waters, and all rights, privileges, and concessions connected with or forming part of such lease, and they also transfer and assign to the imperial government of Japan all public works and properties in the territory affected by the above-mentioned lease. The two contracting parties mutually engage to obtain the consent of the Chinese Government mentioned in the foregoing stipulation. The imperial government of Japan on their part undertake that the proprietary rights of Russian subjects in the territory above referred to shall be perfectly respected.

Article VI.—The Imperial Russian Government engage to transfer and assign to the imperial government of Japan without compensation and with the consent of the Chinese Government the railway between Chang-Chung-Fu and Kuan-Chang-Tsu and Port Arthur, and all the branches, together with all the rights, privileges, and properties appertaining thereto in that region, as well as all the coal mines in said region belonging to or worked for the benefit of the railway. The two high contracting parties mutually engage to obtain the consent of the government of China mentioned in the foregoing stipulation.

Article VII.—Japan and Russia engage to exploit their respective railways in Manchuria exclusively for commercial and industrial purposes, and in nowise for strategic purposes. It is understood that this restriction does not apply to the railway in the territory affected by the lease of the Liao-Tung Peninsula.

Article VIII.—The imperial governments of Japan and Russia, with the view to promote and facilitate intercourse and traffic, will, as soon as possible, conclude a separate convention for the regulation of their connecting railway services in Manchuria.

Article IX.—The Imperial Russian Government cedes to the imperial government of Japan in perpetuity and full sovereignty the southern portion of the island of Saghalien, and all the islands adjacent thereto, and the public works and properties thereon. The fiftieth degree of north latitude is adopted as the northern boundary of the ceded territory. The exact alignment of such territory shall be determined in accordance with the provisions of the additional Article XI. annexed to this treaty. Japan and Russia mutually agree not to construct in their respective possessions on the island of Saghalien, or the adjacent islands, any fortifications or other similar military works. They also respectively engage not to take any military measures which may impede the free navigation of the Strait of La Perouse and the Strait of Tartary.

Article X.—It is reserved to Russian subjects, inhabitants of the territory ceded to Japan, to sell their real property, and retire to their country, but if they prefer to remain in the ceded territory they will be maintained and protected in the full exercise of their

industries and rights of property, on condition of submitting to the Japanese laws and jurisdiction. Japan shall have full liberty to withdraw the right of residence in or to deport from such territory any inhabitants who labor under political or administrative disability. She engages, however, that the proprietary rights of such inhabitants shall be fully respected.

Article XI.—Russia engages to arrange with Japan for granting to Japanese subjects rights of fishery along the coasts of the Russian possessions in the Japan, Okhotsk, and Bering seas. It is agreed that the foregoing engagement shall not affect rights already belonging to Russian or foreign subjects in those regions.

Article XII.—The treaty of commerce and navigation between Japan and Russia having been annulled by the war, the imperial governments of Japan and Russia engage to adopt as a basis for their commercial relations pending the conclusion of a new treaty of commerce and navigation the basis of the treaty which was in force previous to the present war, the system of reciprocal treatment on the footing of the most favored nation, in which are included import and export duties, customs formalities, transit and tonnage dues, and the admission and treatment of agents, subjects, and vessels of one country in the territories of the other.

Article XIII.—So soon as possible after the present treaty comes in force all prisoners of war shall be reciprocally restored. The imperial governments of Japan and Russia shall each appoint a special commissioner to take charge of the prisoners. All prisoners in the hands of one government shall be delivered to and received by the commissioner of the other government or by his duly authorized representative in such convenient numbers and such convenient ports of the delivering state as such delivering state shall notify in advance to the commissioner of the receiving state. The governments of Japan and Russia shall present each other so soon as possible after the delivery of the prisoners is completed with a statement of the direct expenditures respectively incurred by them for the care and maintenance of the prisoners from the date of capture or surrender and up to the time of death or delivery. Russia engages to repay to Japan so soon as possible after the exchange of statement as above provided the difference between the actual amount so expended by Japan and the actual amount similarly disbursed by Russia.

Article XIV.—The present treaty shall be ratified by their Majesties the Emperor of Japan and the Emperor of All the Russias. Such ratification shall be with as little delay as possible, and in any case no later than fifty days from the date of the signature of the treaty, to be announced to the imperial governments of Japan and Russia respectively through the French minister at Tokio and the ambassador of the United States at St. Petersburg, and from the date of the later of such announcements this treaty shall in all its parts come into full force. The formal exchange of ratifications shall take place at Washington so soon as possible.

Article XV.—The present treaty shall be signed in duplicate in both the English and French languages. The texts are in absolute conformity, but in case of a discrepancy in the interpretation the French text shall prevail.

In conformity with the provisions of Articles III. and IX. of the treaty of peace between Japan and Russia of this date, the undersigned plenipotentiaries have concluded the following additional articles:

Sub-Article to Article III.—The imperial governments of Japan and Russia mutually engage to commence the withdrawal of their military forces from the territory of Manchuria simultaneously and immediately after the treaty of peace comes into operation, and within a period of eighteen months after that date the armies of the two countries shall be completely withdrawn from Manchuria, except from the leased territory of the Liao-Tung Peninsula. The forces of the two countries occupying the front positions shall first be withdrawn.

The high contracting parties reserve to themselves the right to maintain guards to protect their respective railway lines in Manchuria. The number of such guards shall not exceed fifteen per kilometer, and within that maximum number the commanders of the Japanese and Russian armies shall by common accord fix the number of such guards to be employed as small as possible, while having in view the actual requirements.

The commanders of the Japanese and Russian forces in Manchuria shall agree upon the details of the evacuation in conformity with the above principles, and shall take by common accord the measures necessary to carry out the evacuation so soon as possible, and in any case no later than the period of eighteen months.

Sub-Article to Article IX.—So soon as possible after the present treaty comes into force a commission of delimitation composed of an equal number of members is to be appointed, respectively, by the two high contracting parties, which shall on the spot mark in a permanent manner the exact boundary between the Japanese and Russian possessions on the island of Saghalien. The commission shall be bound so far as topographical considerations permit to follow the fiftieth parallel of north latitude as the boundary line, and, in case any deflections from that line at any points are found to be necessary, compensation will be made by correlative deflections at other points. It shall also be the duty of said commission to prepare a list and a description of the adjacent islands included in the cession, and, finally, the commission shall prepare and sign maps showing the boundaries of the ceded territory. The work of the commission shall be subject to the approval of the high contracting parties.

The foregoing additional articles are to be considered ratified with the ratification of the treaty of peace to which they are annexed.

Portsmouth, the fifth day of the ninth month of the thirty-eighth year of Meiji, corresponding to the twenty-third of August, 1905. (September 5, 1905.)

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed and affixed seals to the present treaty of peace.

Done at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, this fifth day of the ninth month of the thirty-eighth year of the Meiji, corresponding to the twenty-third day of August, one thousand nine hundred and five.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE PEACE AND AFTER.

DISCUSSION of the Russo-Japanese peace treaty and the gains and losses of both sides is one of the main political features of the current reviews. In the *Fortnightly*, a writer signing himself "Specto" treats of Russia's line of least resistance. He deals first with the gains of Japan, saying:

No great power for a century has achieved positive conquests of anything like the same area and strategical and economic importance. By the annexation of the Korean peninsula and the southern half of Saghalien, Japan has added, at one stroke, a hundred thousand square miles to her territory. The significance of this fact is far greater than appears on the surface. When we remember that only a seventh part of her narrow mountainous islands can be cultivated, it will be grasped at once that she has far more than doubled the available area of her soil. In comparison with an expansion of so splendid and decisive a character, the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine,—at least in its material aspect,—was a minor event of modern history. We shall better grasp the relative significance of what has happened if we compare it with an incorporation of the Spanish peninsula with France. Henceforth the Sea of Japan is inclosed by an almost continuous ring of Japanese territory. Even for an overwhelming sea power, the attempt to break that ring would be a task of almost unique difficulty and danger. Japan takes over Port Arthur as it stands, without any obligation to dismantle the defenses, and here we have the most important transfer of a fortress since Gibraltar passed into our hands. . . . And southern Manchuria may be regarded as the commercial penumbra of Japan's formal conquests,—an economic asset more valuable, in all probability, than the territory she has actually annexed.

"RUSSIA THE LEAST BEATEN POWER IN MODERN WAR."

"Specto" deplors that we insist upon regarding Russia as the most beaten power in the records of war. He argues, What European army in a similar geographical position could have been supposed capable of defeating Japan? He urges that Russia is in several ways "the least beaten power in the records of modern war."

The end of war is the destruction of the enemy's power to resist, and the Russian power to resist never was destroyed. There was no Metz (for Port Arthur did not surrender until it had placed a final victory at Liao-Yang beyond Marshal Oyama's grasp); there was no Sedan; and there was, consequently, no indemnity. In spite of an unparalleled succession of crushing

blows, the passive but endlessly enduring *morale* of the Czar's armies, the continuity and cohesion of Russian resistance, were never broken; and in every engagement they inflicted losses heavy enough to protect their retreat, to secure time for the reconstruction of their armies, and to arrest the progress of the conquerors. Prince Khilkov's management of the Siberian Railway was a feat of which any country in the world might have been proud; but his efforts would have been of little avail had Kuropatkin's retreat from Liao-Yang been less successful. The stubborn, patient Russian readiness to stand and die was like an earthwork opposed to a projectile. What was seen at Austerlitz and Jena, at Sadowa and Sedan, was the shattering of national organizations, and the destruction upon the vanquished side of the power to resist. Nothing like this has been seen in the present struggle. Thus, at the end of nineteen months of continuous and overwhelming defeat, and with only a single-track railway to depend upon, Russia had seven hundred thousand men occupying positions no less strong with no less obstinacy. This is in its own character, perhaps, as remarkable an object-lesson in resisting power as history has yet afforded.

WITTE'S MOST IMPORTANT VICTORY.

Comment upon the terms of peace has strangely overlooked what she has retained.

She keeps the Siberian Railway through two out of the three provinces of Manchuria. She retains, above all, Harbin and the northern arm of the railway running to Vladivostok; and there is no prohibition of the double-tracking of that line. This, in point of permanent importance, is the most significant item of Mr. Witte's diplomatic salvage.

The writer lays great stress on the fact that Russia still keeps in her hands the whole of the connections which enabled her to muster seven hundred thousand men in Manchuria, and by doubling the track she is free to sustain a million men or more in that region. He remarks that the population of Russia is still increasing at a rate which gives her in every successive generation an increment exceeding the whole population of Great Britain and France!

WHERE RUSSIA MAY COMPENSATE HERSELF.

The policy which the writer suggests as Russia's line of least resistance is expansion southward in the near East. He quotes the following suggestive passage from the *Russ*:

Our policy must cease to make its exits and its entrances by the back stairs, and, throwing open once

more the front door, so long kept closed, must show its face to Europe, and contemplate once more the unfinished and neglected work that still awaits it. This can be unwelcome to none but our dear friends the Germans, who have been thoughtfully engaged in building operations meant to block up the grand façade of our own state edifice, and have for this reason provided us with all possible occupation in the back premises.

This does not, the writer asserts, mean a conflict with Germany, but it does mean a grave check upon her influence and designs in the near East. The maintenance of the Hapsburg dominions in their integrity is commended to Russian statesmanship as the cardinal principle of its policy.

A policy of supporting Austrian extension west of the Bosphorus, and Russian extension east of it, would be one in which London and Paris would be at one with Vienna and St. Petersburg. It would mean, not war, but compromise and pacific penetration. Berlin could not resist it without avowing the secret hope of pulling Austria to pieces in order to rise upon the ruins.

The first concrete result of this policy might be an autonomous Macedonia.

"Japan's Triumphant Concession."

Mr. Alfred Stead extols the Japanese achievements with great enthusiasm in the *Fortnightly*. He quotes a European sovereign who, when he heard of the "triumphant concession" which ended the peace conference, exclaimed, "Great as the Japanese have shown themselves in war, they are ten times more great in making peace." Japan withdrew her claim for indemnity, not from motives of magnanimity or generosity, but impelled by the shrewdest statesmanship. She did not allow herself to be carried away, as Bismarck was carried away, by the elation of military success into insistence on demands which make a *revanche* inevitable. Moreover, "the idea of a war for money or territory was abhorrent to the Japanese mind; all the ideas of Bushido, the instincts of the Samurai, rose up against it in horror." On a question of indemnity, simply, it would have been impossible to continue the war. But Mr. Stead goes on to divulge a deeper motive. He states that Mr. Witte was empowered to pay an indemnity to Japan; but "suddenly the Emperor of Russia withdrew from Mr. Witte the right to pay any indemnity at all. This sudden change was the direct result of the intervention of the German Emperor," who wished to prevent the fruition of the Anglo-Russian *rapprochement* growing out of the peace, and he did not wish autocracy to be broken in Russia. He was bent on weakening Russia while maintaining the autocracy, and "so clever was he that he almost succeeded in wrecking the peace conference." The Jap-

anese, aware of these designs, boldly dropped the indemnity and renounced half of Saghalien. "Overwhelmed by the sudden slackening of the Japanese attack, Witte gave way and accepted the terms at once. It was the old principle of Japanese jiu-jitsu, in which the wrestler yields suddenly in order to throw the opponent off his balance and utilize his momentum to complete his overthrow."

Story of the Portsmouth Negotiations.

In the *Contemporary Review*, Dr. Dillon tells the story of the peace negotiations. He shows the journalist's resentment at the dogged reticence of the Japanese envoys, and contrasts this with Witte's readiness to take the world into his confidence. He gives the chief honors of the peace to President Roosevelt. His first invitation to a peace conference was negatived by Count Lamsdorff. Mr. Roosevelt, not to be daunted, instructed the American ambassador to put the matter before the Czar himself, and secured an affirmative answer. Dr. Dillon insists that Mr. Witte was unhampered by instructions. His plan was to get Japan, Russia, and the United States to look upon peace as virtually unattainable, and on the strength of this impression to vie in making all feasible concessions. Japan's insistence on an indemnity is put down to bluff. This is Dr. Dillon's argument:

Being a straightforward man in whose mind there is no place for reservations, Mr. Roosevelt doubtless informed his Japanese friends from the very beginning that their chance of obtaining a heavy solatium was virtually *nil*. Now, if Japan, knowing the President's strong opinion, none the less dispatched plenipotentiaries to the conference, it was only fair to argue, as Mr. Roosevelt probably argued, that she was prepared, if the worst came to the worst, to waive her claim for a large indemnity. We may go further and add that if the Mikado's government was minded from the very first to content itself with a small sum of money, it could never have seriously intended to resume hostilities in order to collect that petty amount. The notion would be preposterous. And that being so, we are forced to the conclusion that Japan was all along playing a game of bluff, and playing it so resolutely and systematically as to deceive her own people and lead them to suppose that a victorious campaign would be carried on unless peace brought in a large sum of money from Russia. President Roosevelt himself must also have been taken in.

Witte, by reducing all outstanding difficulties to a question of money, knew that a war for an indemnity would ruin Japan in the eyes of the world, and to this end he "worked" the newspaper press.

Intense Patriotism, but No Vainglory.

In the *Positivist Review*, Mr. Frederic Harrison declares that the traditional ascendancy of

Europe over Asia will be shaken to its foundation; the limitless potential trade of China will largely pass into Japanese hands; Japan will expand over Asia. He finds the striking lesson of the war in the crushing defeat of imperialist ambition. "When governments can only think imperially, their people can only think revolutionarily." Socially, the note of the war "has been a spectacle of intense patriotism combined with self-restraint, repression of vainglory, and ambition." The West has never seen, since the Roman republic, this combination of patriotism, democratic ardor, and aristocratic rule. But, proceeds Mr. Harrison—

After all, the true lesson of this war will be the religious warning it will ultimately enforce. It is a knock-down blow to the national professions of Christianity. The churches and their political allies are forever telling us that nothing but their prayers and incantations can inspire courage, duty, virtue, and honor in nations. The Gospel of Peace has much to answer for in allowing itself to become the watchword and battle-cry of tyrants, pirates, and slave-drivers. Even a hundred years ago our national hero was taught to believe that his duty toward his God was "to hate a Frenchman as he would the devil!" And the morbid fanatic who involved us in the Sudan believed himself to hold private intercourse with his Maker, and had from him personal missions unknown to the governments he served. History can show no contrast more flagrant than that of the brutal bigotry of Russia, with its ferocious fetishism like that of a Dahomey savage, its blasphemous mummeries, and its horrid execrations, as compared with the human and social religion of patriotism and family that animates Japan. No God, no heaven, no sacraments, no priests, led the Japanese soldiers to battle. To him the intricate machinery of theology is alike irrational and absurd. He fights and dies for his Mikado, his ancestors, for Bushido, for Japan.

It will be observed that Mr. Harrison refers to the national professions of Christianity, not to the religion itself.

Blamed—Are the Peacemakers!

The writer of "Musings Without Method" in *Blackwood's Magazine*, after making a number of caustic remarks about international busybodies such as William II. and Theodore I., "perfectly well equipped for the mismanagement of other people's business," says that international busybodies, like the journalists who create them, are without responsibility.

Mr. Roosevelt, for his own glory, wanted nothing but peace, peace bad or good, peace at any price. When the terms were signed at Portsmouth, N. H., his glory was complete. It matters not a jot to him whether his indiscreet energy has been successful or not. Suppose the hasty terms of peace compel in the future a yet more bloody war, he cannot be impeached.

A Spanish View of the Peace.

The *Revista Contemporanea* (Madrid) comments rather naively on the Russo-Japanese peace. It remarks:

How is it that the Japanese, after a year and a half of uninterrupted victories, lose everything in the treaty of peace? The answer is simple,—both nations began the war unprepared for it, Russia without her army ready, hence her disasters; Japan without having her treasury prepared. Hence, the nation already exhausted, without industry or commerce (that England and the United States have taken from her), without agriculture, without credit, thus unable to continue the war, she has had to sign anything at all, pushed by the United States, which country, seeing that pursuing the campaign might turn the tables and lose the money lent for the war, has forced everything for the good of humanity! The Americans did not think the same in despoiling Spain in the treaty of Paris! What consequences will the peace bring? It is difficult to prophesy anything, but there is to be feared the final revolutionary commotion in Russia and the launching of Japan on the road to imperialism, like the United States. This will have the advantage of conjuring up the "yellow peril," since even established nations are the victims of imperialism, and Japan will die as rapidly as she has appeared.

A JAPANESE VIEW OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

WRITING in the latest issue of the *Taiyo*, (Tokio), an anonymous writer, a regular contributor to this journal evidently well informed on diplomatic questions, discusses the extension of the scope of the Anglo-Japanese alliance shortly before the publication of the text of the new treaty. Says this writer:

When the agreement concluded between England and Japan on January 30, 1902, was made public, I declared that such an alliance would precipitate war rather than consolidate the peace of the far East. According to that treaty, should either of the high contracting parties be involved in war with another power in defense of its territorial rights or special interests,

the other party is required to come to the assistance of its ally only after a third power or powers have joined in hostilities against that ally. This article I denounced as powerless to accomplish the purpose for which this agreement was concluded. When this alliance was formed, Russia's naval power was far greater than that of Japan. Russia could wage war against Japan without the assistance of a third power. It is but natural that Russia, conscious of England's disinclination to render her Eastern ally military assistance, should defy Japan's protest against her aggression in the far East. I urged the necessity of enlarging the scope of the alliance so that both parties would conduct a war in common. The events that have since happened have justified my prediction.

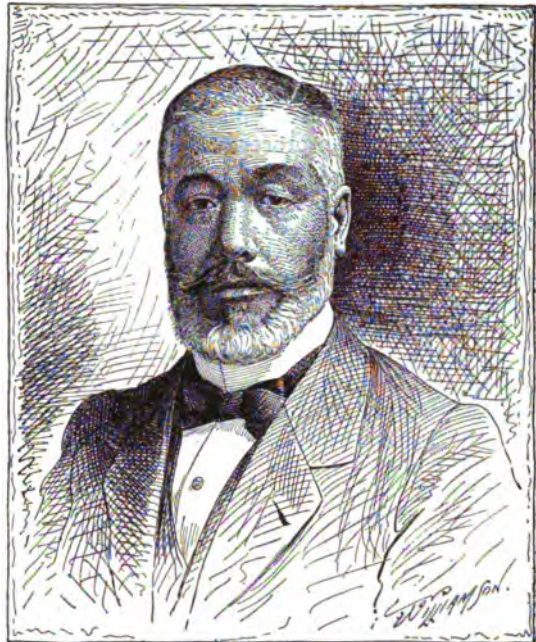
Thus premising his discussion, the writer nat-

usually welcomes the news of the conclusion of a new Anglo-Japanese pact, which is, in his opinion, a defensive and offensive alliance in every sense. Being insufficiently informed as to the details of the treaty, however, the writer raises several questions concerning the methods by which the high contracting parties will conduct a war in common. In the first place, he considers it very imprudent on Japan's part to assume any responsibility for sending her army to India to assist her Western ally in the event of war with Russia. Granted that Japan assumes such a responsibility, how large an army should she send to India to fulfill her duty satisfactorily? An army of fifty thousand can hardly accomplish anything effective, says this writer.

At least one hundred thousand soldiers are necessary, which would require transports of four hundred thousand tonnage. From Nagasaki to Colombo is approximately four thousand miles, which would take a voyage of forty-four days for a steamer with a speed of twelve knots. Transports carrying such an enormous number of soldiers should be escorted by warships of at least one hundred thousand tonnage, which in turn would require transports with a carrying capacity of twenty to thirty thousand tons to carry coal and provisions. The capacity of the entire merchant marine of Japan amounts to only three hundred and fifty thousand tons in rough estimate. This will be greatly increased. But however great might be the increase, it is beyond discussion that Japan cannot afford to divide four hundred and thirty thousand tons of merchant vessels for the transportation of army and provisions six thousand miles over the seas.

When England is in need of Japanese reinforcements in India, the writer warns us, the movement of China should be carefully watched, the German men-of-war at Kiao-Chau guarded, and the French squadron at Saigon provided against, while the situation in Manchuria will again demand decisive measures. Under such circumstances, concludes the writer, no sane man can dream of sparing four hundred thousand tons out of our insufficient transporting capacity for the sole purpose of assisting England in India.

In the history of diplomacy and international warfare it very seldom occurs that one party to an alliance sends its army into the dominion of the other contracting party to assist the latter in case of war. This course is especially avoided when the contracting parties are on an equal footing, for the reason that the assisting army cannot levy on the private properties belonging to the people of the assisted country without entailing many diplomatic complications after the war. It is impossible to levy on private properties without resorting to violence to a greater or lesser degree. Such violence can be connived at if the assisted country is much weaker than the assisting; otherwise it will prove a cause of enmity and bitter feeling between the two countries upon the termination of a war which they have fought



BARON TADASU HAYASHI, JAPANESE MINISTER TO ENGLAND.
(He negotiated the Anglo-Japanese alliance with Lord Lansdowne.)

in common. Consequently, the safest way for either of the contracting parties to an alliance has been to assist the other party in the event of war by sending its army to a neutral country or by attacking the enemy from other points than where the assisted party is engaging the enemy. An army separated from its native land by six thousand miles will find it impossible, in case of emergency, to strictly avoid levying on private properties, however perfect the means of transportation may be. And it is equally difficult to keep an army of a hundred thousand soldiers always sufficiently supplied from its mother country which requires twenty-two days to reach. Hence, it would be extremely dangerous for Japan to send a large army to India. The only course to avoid this danger would be to rely upon the provisions supplied by England, thus turning our army into a sort of "hired" soldiers at the sacrifice of its individuality. But such a sacrifice our soldiers will never bear, regarding it as disgrace and humiliation.

In maintaining the prestige of the Japanese army and rendering England an effective military assistance, in case she be involved in war with Russia, it would be most advisable, concludes the writer, to attack her enemy at points most convenient and nearest to Japan. If a third power or powers should come to the rescue of Russia, it would give Japan a golden opportunity to clear from the far-Eastern countries the military bases of the Continental powers of Europe, since Russia's rescuer will be either France or Germany, or the combined force of the two.

A Note of Warning from a Briton.

Sir Edmund Barrow writes in the *National Review* on the new balance of power in the far East. He recalls certain predictions of his written in September, 1893, which have been singularly verified by the process of events in the far East. On the strength of fulfilled prophecies he puts on record six warnings as to possible consequences of the Anglo-Japanese treaty. 1. The alliance may seriously compromise the interest of foreign countries in and about China, and international friction may thus be increased. 2. He despairs of the regeneration of China from within, and thinks that foreign pressure may produce an acute crisis. 3. Chinese popular feeling being more friendly to England than to any other nation, Britons should avail themselves of the opportunity, but are likely in the future to be faced with a formidable commercial and industrial competition of a fully developed China. 4. He reckons that Japan may become a dangerous rival, or even an adversary. 5. Australia may by this danger be moved to federate with the mother country, and share the cost of naval defense. 6. He strongly deprecates counting on any direct support of Japan to England in the protection of India.



IS THERE TROUBLE FOR GERMANY IN THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE?

THE MONKEY: "Look straight ahead, Michel—look straight ahead!"

(In some of the German journals there is an inclination to charge England with egging on Japan to drive Germany from her Chinese foothold.)—From *Ulk* (Berlin).

TERMS OF THE NEW TREATY.

The terms of the Anglo-Japanese pact have been made public since the above articles were

written. The treaty was signed at London on August 12, 1905, and is, in full, as follows:

PREAMBLE.

The governments of Great Britain and Japan, being desirous of replacing the agreement concluded between them on the 30th January, 1902, by fresh stipulations have agreed upon the following articles, which have for their object:

(a) The consolidation and maintenance of the general peace in the regions of eastern Asia and of India;

(b) The preservation of the common interests of all powers in China by insuring the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire and the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in China;

(c) The maintenance of the territorial rights of the high contracting parties in the regions of eastern Asia and of India, and the defense of their special interests in the said regions.

ARTICLE I.

It is agreed that whenever, in the opinion of either Great Britain or Japan, any of the rights and interests referred to in the preamble of this agreement are in jeopardy, the two governments will communicate with one another fully and frankly, and will consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard those menaced rights or interests.

ARTICLE II.

If by reason of unprovoked attack or aggressive action, wherever arising, on the part of any other power or powers either contracting party should be involved in war in defense of its territorial rights or special interests mentioned in the preamble of this agreement, the other contracting party will at once come to the assistance of its ally, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it.

ARTICLE III.

Japan possessing paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea, Great Britain recognizes the right of Japan to take such measures of guidance, control, and protection in Korea as she may deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, provided always that such measures are not contrary to the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations.

ARTICLE IV.

Great Britain having a special interest in all that concerns the security of the Indian frontier, Japan recognizes her right to take such measures in the proximity of that frontier as she may find necessary for safeguarding her Indian possessions.

ARTICLE V.

The high contracting parties agree that neither of them will, without consulting the other, enter into separate arrangements with another power to the prejudice of the objects described in the preamble of this agreement.

ARTICLE VI.

As regards the present war between Japan and Russia, Great Britain will continue to maintain strict neutrality unless some other power or powers should join in hostilities against Japan, in which case Great Britain

will come to the assistance of Japan, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with Japan.

ARTICLE VII.

The conditions under which armed assistance shall be afforded by either power to the other in the circumstances mentioned in the present agreement, and the means by which such assistance is to be made available, will be arranged by the naval and military authorities of the contracting parties, who will from time to time consult one another fully and freely upon all questions of mutual interest.

ARTICLE VIII.

The present agreement shall, subject to the provisions of Article VI., come into effect immediately after the date of its signature, and remain in force for ten years from that date.

In case neither of the high contracting parties should have notified twelve months before the expiration of

the said ten years the intention of terminating it, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the high contracting parties shall have denounced it. But if, when the date fixed for its expiration arrives, either ally is actually engaged in war, the alliance shall, *ipso facto*, continue until peace is concluded.

In faith whereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective governments, have signed this agreement and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate at London, the 12th day of August, 1905.

[L.S.]

LANSDOWNE,

His Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

[L.S.]

TADASU HAYASHI,

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan at the Court of St. James.

THE RIVAL CLAIMS TO SAGHALIEN.

WITH the recognition of Japan's right to the southern half of Saghalien, by the treaty of peace with Russia, the political status of the island before 1875 is restored. The rival claims of the two powers are discussed in several current magazine articles. In the *Booklovers Magazine*, Mr. Adachi Kinnosuké recounts the story of how Japan lost the island.

THE JAPANESE CLAIM.

In 1863, by treaty, it was decided to recognize the fiftieth degree north latitude as the boundary line of the possessions of Russia and Japan. Later, negotiations were begun for a more definite line of demarcation. In Mr. Adachi's words :

On the twenty-ninth of August of the seventh year of Meiji, 1874, at St. Petersburg, in the Asian Bureau of the Russian Foreign Department, the negotiation over the boundary line was renewed. Vice-Admiral Enomoto Buyo, who had been newly appointed to be the minister plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary to Russia, represented Nippon. Prince Gortchakov spoke for Russia. Our claim was even more modest than in the declining days of the Tokugawa Bakufu ; the Nippon Government wished Russia to recognize some natural boundary line in Saghalien between Nippon and Russia. The only boundary Prince Gortchakov was inclined to recognize, however, was the La Perouse Strait. Following the instructions from home, Enomoto then demanded in exchange that Russia should recognize all of the islands of the Kurile group as Nippon territory, and also to open the Saghalien waters to the fisheries of the Nippon people. But now all was different ; Russia had succeeded in planting her feet firmly upon the soil of Saghalien ; and pray what was the use of her taking the trouble of removing them, and what sense or poetry was there for the famous Russian minister to assist his country in such a thankless task ? But a storm arose from another direction in

the sky ; it was the powerful logic of the black affairs of the Balkans which persuaded the astute diplomatist of the Czar to sign, at last, the historic Enomoto-Gortchakov treaty on the seventh of May—the twenty-fifth of April of the Russian calendar—1875. And what is called the exchange between the Kurile group and Saghalien passed into history,—the first black stain on our national honor, which has been insulting the sun-flag for over half a century. And so it was we lost Saghalien.

The Claims of Russia.

Neither Japan nor China have ever had any right to Saghalien, is the claim of the Russian journal *Slovo*, of St. Petersburg. The island was originally inhabited by the Ainos and others from the continent of Asia—from Russian Siberia. Until the end of the eighteenth century, this journal insists, there were no Japanese on the island, and, moreover, it was not until the latter half of the past century that the Japanese penetrated into the interior of the island. In 1807, Lieutenant Khvostov seized the island in the name of Russia, though that action was recognized as "arbitrary" and Khvostov suffered for it. He was arrested by the Japanese and kept a prisoner for three years. After the expedition of Kronzeuchtern and the deliverance of Golovine, Saghalien was registered on the imperial charts as belonging to Russia and to Japan. Part of the land belonged to Russia ; the southern part belonged to Japan. Veniukov had studied (or had held in his hands) a map in the school of the Japanese dragomans, a map on which the northern part of the island was marked as a Russian possession. In 1856, following the negotiations with Japan, Saghalien was recognized as not having been divided between the

Russians and the Japanese. The treaty of January 26, 1855, contained the following clause: "As for the island Karafuto (Saghalien), it will remain (as it has remained in the past) undivided between Russia and Japan." And, in other terms, the treaty recognized the ancient right of Russia to the northern portion of the island. The question of the right to the southern portion of the island was definitely settled in 1875. "Not under the influence of threats, but by common and very pacific accord between Russia and Japan." Russia gave Japan the archipelago of the Kuriles in exchange for the island of Saghalien. A few impartial Japanese writers bore witness to the fact that Saghalien had been and was debatable. The Russians, profiting by the unsettled situation of the island, have founded a local administration in the port of Alexandrovsk. They have extended their sphere of action in different directions, and have even installed themselves in the regions where they

had been forestalled by the Japanese fishermen. When the Japanese minister of foreign affairs, Count Munerai Terashima, sent Vice-Admiral Enomoto to Russia to make terms, Russia consented—and very willingly—to cede three islands of the archipelago of the Kuriles to Japan, and to authorize the Japanese to fish near the coasts of the island. On the 7th of May, a treaty was signed between Japan and Russia. The treaty recognized the Strait of La Perouse as the frontier between Japan and Russia. Kagoa, the well-known Japanese historian of the diplomatic relations of his country, said of it: "We may console ourselves with the fact that this treaty of 1875 was the first honorable treaty signed by Japan." The facts here noted prove that the Japanese renamed the southern portion of Saghalien just when the Russians were ready to cede the western part of the island to them. "So it is folly to pretend that Japan gave up her rights because of Russian pressure."

THE SECRET OF JAPANESE NAVAL SUCCESS.

A JAPANESE officer who served under Admiral Togo has written a letter giving one explanation of Japanese naval success. This letter has been published in the *Journal de St. Petersburg*, a daily printed in French in the Russian capital. He begins by saying:

We owe the victory in the Korean Straits to the men of our fleet. Japan is an insular country, and for that reason there is more work to be found on the water than on shore. Japan has more seafaring men than landlubbers among her people. The waters along our coasts are full of fishermen. We know how to adapt ourselves and to learn, and the first fisherman in our fishing fleet is fit for active service in the navy after a six weeks' drill. We have not as many ships as our allies have, and our ships are small, but when we get right down to war the fact tells in our favor. The Japanese sailor is used to little ships; he began his career on a little ship as a fisherman. Of course, there are exceptions; but this is true, generally speaking.

The Japanese navy, this officer continues, certainly owes much to British teaching.

The British war fleet has been our model, and we have adopted English tactics and English strategy. But we owe a good deal to ourselves, because the instruction given to our sailors is infinitely superior to the instruction given to sailors in the British navy. A stoker cannot gain admission to our navy until he has followed a regular course of stoking on land. Consequently, our stokers stoke better than the stokers on British ships; and the other men of our fleet are equally excellent.

Speaking of the Japanese discipline, the letter says:

Our men love their calling; they never complain of hard work or of fatigue. At Port Arthur our sailors faced great privations, but none of them ever took to drink, although all the other sailors in port passed their time in the wine shops drinking and carousing. From the admiral to the common sailors, all are proud of their duty. The plan of discipline of our fleet is exemplary, but it has never been put into practice. No Japanese sailor in our fleet has ever been disciplined except by active service on the seas and by the regular routine drill. To the superiority of our men as men habituated to the sea and drilled for war we owe our victory at Tsushima.

After a stirring tribute to Admiral Togo and a criticism of the inferior gunnery and lack of preparation on the part of the Russians, this Japanese officer closes his letter with the following paragraph:

Few Japanese knew as much of Admiral Togo's plans as the London newspapers thought they knew. But we had full confidence in Togo. He was our most popular admiral long before the victory of Tsushima. When Port Arthur fell, he came back to Japan exhausted; he had left Japan to take command of the fleet in the flower of health and more vigorous than before the war. I saw him on board the great cruiser *Mikasa*. People were shouting "*Banzai!*" and all the bands were playing. The admiral appeared upon the bridge and saluted, the people acclaimed him, and the cruiser moved slowly out of the harbor and went below the horizon. Weeks passed and no one knew what had become of Togo; but no one asked any questions. No one doubted him. Every one in Japan had confidence in him. We all knew that he was doing his duty, and that he would be where he ought to be when the time came.

THE RIOTS IN THE RUSSIAN OIL FIELDS.

A GRAPHIC account of the recent destructive riots and sanguinary race struggle in the Caucasus, with an estimate of the losses to the oil industry in that region, is contributed to the *National Review* by the Earl of Ronaldshay. The writer was an eye-witness of most of the disorders he describes. As to the town of Baku itself, where most of the destruction of property occurred, he says :

It is a modern town with all the outward indications of a thriving prosperity. Imposing stone buildings, commodious shops with plate-glass windows, comfortable hotels, and first-class restaurants give it an air of comfort and good living by no means warranted by its physical surroundings. The country indeed is as unattractive to-day as when seen and described by the adventurous O'Donovan a quarter of a century ago. "For leagues around," he wrote at that time, "not a blade of grass is to be seen, and not even a shrub breaks the arid expanse of broken strata and scorched marl." With this description fresh in his mind, the visitor is prepared for the further information which acquaintance with the town provides, to the effect that the only fresh water to be had is obtained by distillation of the salt waters of the Caspian Sea. The name Baku signifying "a place beaten by the winds," or, as a resident acquaintance of mine more bluntly if less classically put it, "windy hole," is in itself sufficient indication of the climate which the place enjoys. Certainly Baku, with such comfort and attraction as it possesses, is before all else artificial,—the creation of money and of luxury-loving man.

Some idea of the oil magnitude in this region, —in which, it will be remembered, a great deal of English capital is invested, — may be had from a few figures. The output of the Baku oil fields in 1901, according to official statistics, amounted to 10,822,580 tons, of which 7,837,096 tons were exported. The average daily yield of the wells was 29,561 tons. Comparing these figures with the other great oil-producing centers of the world,—Pennsylvania and Texas, in the United States,—we find an output of 6,500,000 tons, and an average daily yield of the wells falling short by 11,463 tons of that of the wells on the Caspian littoral. The Earl of Ronaldshay declares that the soil about Baku was so saturated with oil that "in any piece of ground, by merely sticking an iron tube into the earth and applying a torch to the upper end, the mineral oil will burn until the tube is decomposed, which will be for a great number of years." Going further into the magnitude and importance of this industry, which has temporarily been "reduced to a state of absolute wreckage and collapse," this writer says :

The aggregate depth bored in sinking new wells and deepening old ones amounted in 1902 to little less than 46 miles, while in 1900 it actually reached the astonishing figure of 94 miles 84 yards. In the course of the year 1902, 1,895 wells on the Ansheronsk peninsula yielded 10,266,504 tons of naphtha,—an average, that is to say, of



A VIEW OF THE BURNING NAPHTHA WELLS AT BALAKHANY, NEAR BAKU.

5,417½ tons per well. These figures were even larger in the previous year, a total of 1,924 wells being responsible for an output of 10,822,580½ tons, of which no less than 7,887,096½ tons were exported in the shape of kerosene, lubricants, naphtha residues, and raw naphtha, the residues used as fuel being responsible for the bulk of this total with a weight not far short of 5,000,000 tons. The impetus given to the industry in recent years may be judged from the fact that the 824 wells reported as yielding oil in December, 1892, had increased to 1,428 in the same month of 1902, and that the output of the year 1901 showed an increase of 10,487,742 tons on that of twenty years before. The number of wells which have become inactive has naturally risen rapidly with this largely increased production, as many as 1,278 wells having ceased yielding in 1901, as compared with 842 in the previous year and 504 in 1899. This increase in the number of dry wells has, of course, been counteracted by an increased energy in the sinking of new wells, the returns showing a total of 200 new wells sunk in 1892, 564 in 1902, and the tremendous figure of 1,010 in 1900.

There is more than \$25,000,000 of British capital invested, he tells us further.

The total losses, including the railways and shipping on the Volga and the Caspian, are esti-

mated at over \$100,000,000. On the moral side of the affair, he says :

All the atrocities for which we are accustomed to look when Russia is occupied in restoring order with the Cossack and the knout have been added to the ghastly tale of horror inseparable from every phase of Eastern civil war. The soldiers, indeed, who were expected to cope with the elements of disorder, seem as often as not to have added materially to the confusion and disaster. Like the Kurdish levies of the Sultan, who regard their royal title of Hamidiyeh in the light of a warrant for indulging in indiscriminate slaughter whenever opportunity occurs, the Cossacks seem to have waged war impartially upon friend and foe, and to have fought ruthlessly, neither asking nor giving quarter, with all who chanced to come their way. They trained artillery upon and wrecked the offices of the English manager of four large companies. In company with the Tatar insurgents, they hemmed in a band of four hundred Armenians, whom, despite their frantic requests to the governor for help, they butchered to a man. *Suaviter in modo* is no more the motto of the Russian Cossack than it is of the Eastern fanatic. Tales sickening in the intensity of their pathos have poured in from the theater of strife, which for days has been converted into a perfect maelstrom of human passion.

WHAT THE RUSSIANS THEMSELVES THINK OF THE DUMA.

THE imperial manifesto of August 19, last, calling into being a national assembly was hailed with almost universal approval by the mass of the Russian people, although occasional regrets were heard from the ultra-conservatives, deploring the passing of the good old order of things. The reactionary press became almost hysterical in its praise of the "great edict," the cynical editor of the *Novoye Vremya* (St. Petersburg) even suggesting that it be called the "Russian constitution," a suggestion repeated by some of the foreign press. The more liberal democratic elements, however, soon realized the inadequacy of the proposed assembly for correcting the existing evils in the national government. The dissatisfaction felt was due not so much to the barring of a very large proportion of the male population from the suffrage, nor to the limited scope of the assembly's powers. These defects, there is reason to hope, could be remedied gradually. It was the failure of the government to grant the most fundamental rights of citizenship, and to offer guarantees that such inalienable rights would be respected, as has been forcibly pointed out by the review *Mir Bozhi*.

According to the *Tchernaya Pochta*, N. A. Andreev, delegate to the Moscow assembly of noblemen, presented at the meeting the follow-

ing fundamental questions calling for immediate reply :

1. May the electors officially group themselves into political parties?
2. Does the prohibition against the discussion of state matters extend also to the meetings called together for choosing representatives to the national assembly?
3. Will public-spirited citizens be at liberty to convey to the rural population a clear conception of the pending reforms?
4. Would the distribution of copies of the manifesto be regarded as a breach of the law?

These questions imperatively demand an immediate answer, upon which depends the practical value of the proposed elections. "The recent acts of the administration, and its whole attitude toward the forthcoming elections, are not at all calculated to dissipate the most gloomy forebodings," is the comment of the *Mir Bozhi*. The *Russkiya Vyedomosti* wishes to know what delegates the Russian people can send to the Duma, when on the eve of the elections a well-known conservative public man like Professor Yaroshenko is subjected to administrative banishment, when on the day after the publication of the manifesto such moderate and loyal men as Professors Brandt, Gordyenko, and Milukov, and the physician Svyatlovski, are arrested as political criminals, subject to banishment to Siberia. The *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, which is a con-

servatively liberal organ, points out that the manifesto of August 19 legalizes, and hence broadens, the political life of the Russian people. It follows in logical sequence, therefore, that it is necessary to legalize also those conditions without which such political activities are quite impossible. The country can no longer be deprived of the right to gain an understanding of the new order of things created by the publication of the edict concerning the Duma. It is confronted by the necessity of making preparations for the coming elections, which, in accordance with the manifesto, must take place not later than the end of the present year, for the assembly of the popular representatives is to occur not later than January, 1906.

All this would be an impossible achievement under existing conditions, when the press is deprived of the power of freely discussing even the most vital questions in the life of the nation, when ordinances establishing a state of siege, and other emergency regulations deprive Russian citizens of the elementary rights of personal safety, when peaceful meetings which in no wise threaten to disturb the public order are forbidden and dispersed.

The *Vyedomosti* demands, therefore, that laws be enacted at once that will establish the fundamental conditions of free citizenship by abolishing the emergency laws and securing for Russian citizens the right to assemble for the discussion of state and communal affairs, and to express themselves freely on these matters in open meeting and in the press.

The organization of the Duma is also discussed at length by "Ozhigov" in the *Obrazovanié*. The event of August 19, he says, may be regarded formally as of great significance. The commission that elaborated the "reforms" which the old Suvorin, "debilitated by long-

continued supineness and fallen into dotage, calls a constitution," carried on its work in complete secrecy. Neither the names of those making up the commission, its plans, and its character, nor the material at its disposal, or even the instructions and inspirations that it received, are known.

It was suddenly born, as it were, from the head of Pallas-Athene and in a moment presented us with the results of its labors, caring little for aught else. The bureaucracy won at the first thrust, preserving its priority, and made the utmost use of its ingenuity and talents to maintain itself under the new conditions.

The powers of the Duma fall short of that completeness which should characterize a national assembly. All the methods of creative legislation remain unchanged. Furthermore, questions of foreign policy remain outside of the scope of the Duma's activities; nor is it within the power of this body to hold the ministers responsible for their acts. The property qualifications which enter as a basis in the organization of the Duma, and the division and subdivision of the electors and the elections into classes and grades, render the Duma incapable of voicing the thoughts and the will of the people. The exclusion from the elections of certain portions of the Russian citizens, who equally with the others bear the burden of taxation (the entire industrial classes, as well as the greater part of students, etc.), is not consistent with the principles of enlightened state policy. Notwithstanding these negative qualities of the enactment, "Ozhigov" expresses himself against the boycott of the Duma, which was seriously considered in the more intelligent circles in Russia. Such a boycott, he believes, would be equivalent to political suicide. "It would be a political crime to throw away this mustard seed because we wish for greater things."

"WHAT AILS RUSSIA?"—A GERMAN VIEW.

UNDER the title "What Ails Russia?" (in the *Deutsche Revue*), General von Lignitz takes a rapid survey of the history of the Russian autocracy and bureaucracy. The creation of the bureaucracy—"the curse of Russia"—the undermining of the old Russian nobility, and the discontinuance of the Zemski Sobor he sets down as the disastrous work of Peter the Great. Coming to more recent times, and to the present outlook, General von Lignitz is very decided. He says:

The attempt has repeatedly and vainly been made, on the part of well-meaning circles and individuals, in the past eighty years, to introduce a certain harmony between the ruling and the administrative powers, in

order to redress at least the grossest abuses and to bring about at least a relative justice, until the shot of Vera Sassulitch's revolver, February 5, 1878, introduced the era of political murder and widened the gap between the crown and the people.

It would apparently be a simple matter, profitable, and devoid of danger, to return to the old order of things and create a support for the tottering throne in a Zemski Sobor with limited powers and diminished activity, continues this German writer:

Did Russia consist of but the seventy million Great Russians, no essential difficulties or dangers would arise. But since Peter the Great's time it has followed the tendency of conquest,—outlets to the sea, then as-

curing these outlets by a broader stretch of hinterland; besides, the thirst for glory of the czars, the strong desire for orders and rank of people in positions of importance and on the frontiers. In the past two hundred years Russia has very greatly increased in size, but it has in the process absorbed so many heterogeneous elements, up to the present inimical to one another, that it has not gained in inward strength in a corresponding proportion. Crises must therefore prove dangerous. With Baltic statesmen and generals, with Finnish naval commanders, with Polish, Georgian, and Armenian officers, with Polish judges and physicians, it was possible to govern harmoniously during quite a long period. Since the Pan Slavist-Orthodox current set in, however, furthered by Prince Gortchakov, the Russian nationalist has become suspicious and jealous of the foreigners. To the detriment of the state, of the army, and of the navy, these elements, which could be

utilized to such advantage, have been more and more crowded out. The eight million Poles, thirty million Little Russians, eight million White Russians, three million Finns, two million Estonians and Letts, six million Caucasians and Armenians, six million Central Asiatics, two and one-half million Tatars, and five million Jews now feel themselves oppressed and restrained by the Great Russians. Inspired partly by an old and latent hatred, they are waiting for grave national convulsions and—for the Zemski Sobor, in order to achieve at least equal rights, which would be in consonance with their presumed higher educational attainments and their culture. Should these elements be excluded from the people's representative body or only a smaller percentage be admitted? These are, at any rate, difficult questions which must be pondered if the reforms which are longed for are not to lead to a weakening of the empire.

THE CASE FOR SWEDEN.

THE Norwegian side of the controversy over the dissolution of the Scandinavian union has been very fully presented in most American magazines. On another page of this issue of the REVIEW, in an interview with Dr. Nansen, the Norwegian position is again stated. The Swedish side, however, has not received much attention. Several articles in recent numbers of the serious reviews have emphasized the contentions of Sweden in the matter, noteworthy among which are Karl Staaff's paper in a recent number of the *North American Review* and the presentation in the *National Review* of the case by Prof. Nils Edén, of Upsala University. Mr. Staaff declares that the union between the two countries has from the very beginning labored under the "contradiction between intention and execution." The intention was that Norway in the union should be on an equality with Sweden in the union, but this purpose was never entirely carried out, and it fell short of realization chiefly with reference to the treatment of foreign affairs. The foreign affairs of Norway were managed by a Swedish minister responsible only to the Swedish Government, but "only by degrees were the eyes of the Swedes opened,—as at length they were, during the nineties of the past century,—to the untenable character of these conditions." Mr. Staaff outlines the history of the negotiations during the past two decades between the two countries, the general terms of which are beyond dispute. The difference between the two programmes of reform; he maintains, was this: "The Swedish would maintain complete unity in the management of foreign affairs, whereas the Norwegian programme introduces the principle of dualism." In her revolutionary action, says Mr. Staaff, Norway

has disregarded two great objects which some states, before all, ought to hold sacred.

One is comity between the two peoples. If the idea of drawing the two nations to each other in a spirit of unity and fraternity is to assume real shape, then they should not proceed in such a brutal manner as that in which the Norwegian revolution was accomplished. The other object is the friendly association of peoples and nations. If one dreams of a great association of peoples,—and there are many who dream thus in Norway,—even, perhaps, of a "United States" of Europe,—it is not the right way to realize such an aspiration to begin by dissolving a union of ninety years' standing between two small peoples, who truly need each other far more than Norway needs her consuls.

SWEDEN'S PATIENCE WITH NORWAY.

Professor Edén's article consists of a presentation of the case largely from an international point of view. Sweden, he declares, has always been patient, dignified, and long-suffering. Norway has been intemperate, hasty, and inconsiderate. "It was Sweden that established the union, which fact alone is sufficient to justify her claim to have a say in the matter now that its dissolution has been broached." Professor Edén is not one of those who would force Norway to remain in the union against her will. Sweden's consent should, however, have been asked before dissolution, he believes. It is a good thing for Sweden that the separation has occurred, in Professor Edén's opinion. For many years the Swedish Government has been forced to give its attention to disputes with Norway.

The whole political life of Sweden has suffered in consequence, and the union, which had been intended as a means of insuring to Sweden peace and tranquillity for internal development, became, instead, as a

millstone round her neck, and proved a constant hindrance to her in the pursuit of her own domestic ends.

Professor Edén justifies the action of King Oscar in refusing his consent to the Norwegian consular-service bill, and also that monarch's refusal to accept for the time the resignation of the Norwegian ministers. Norway, he continues, did not even pay her sister country the consideration of making the attempt to dissolve the union by friendly agreement. "Norway is solely responsible for the present crisis."

Sweden has done everything that could be done within the limits of the union to meet the wishes of Norway. She has all along been conscious of her responsibility for the security and permanence of this important joint in the fabric of Europe's political system, and she has acted accordingly. Norway has never had any sense of any responsibility of the kind; from the beginning she set herself to try to loosen the bonds of union, and now she has torn them asunder. The form chosen for bringing about the rupture was an unwarranted insult to Sweden, and the rupture itself displays an utter disregard of most important Scandinavian and European interests.

After considering the demands made by Sweden in the programme presented to the King by the Riksdag, and justifying the demand for the razing of the frontier fortresses, Professor Edén closes by saying:

Swedish politicians may have committed faults in their dealings with Norway,—no Swede on looking back is prepared to deny that they have,—but the fundamental principles that have dictated their policy will stand the test to which history will subject them, and the limits which Sweden has had to set to her concessions will be recognized as having been necessary if the union was to be preserved intact. Political chicanery will not be able to gloss over facts; Sweden offered everything that could be offered, and Norway's answer was—revolution. As we have already said, Sweden has felt and has upborne the responsibility for the maintenance of the union before the bar of history; Norway has repelled that responsibility and set it at naught. This has been the characterizing feature of the present crisis. Norway has acted with an unscrupulousness which, to put it mildly, must be termed international mischievousness; and it has in the highest degree endangered the peace of Scandinavia. Sweden has suppressed her indignation in order to rescue all that remained to be rescued, not of the union, but of peace and tranquillity.

ELLEN KEY, THE "INSPIRED SWEDISH ENTHUSIAST."

IN the course of a review of a recent biographical sketch of Ellen Key the Finnish magazine *Nutid* (Helsingfors) gives a character sketch of this remarkable Swedish authoress, who is known in her own country as the "writer who always furnishes love, hope, and faith" to her readers. While entirely a self-made woman, Ellen Key is the "product of famous great generations," and her Scotch ancestry includes, among others, the great Oliver Cromwell.

Long before she had reached the heights of a leading place as a social reformer of her people, and indeed far beyond the boundaries of her country, Ellen Key had already started on her career in private. At Sundholm she began with a small Sunday-school, and lectured before the youth of the village on history, natural history, poetry, etc. Then she loaned the first books outside of a "public library," the stock of which consisted of her own school books. In the fall of 1868, she moved with her parents to Stockholm, where her father sat as a member of the Riksdag. The gift of writing became now manifest in her contributions to the periodical *Idun*, the champion of the women of Sweden. At the age of twenty she was offered the directorship of a college for women in Denmark, but declined on account of her youth and insufficient experience. Later, it was her ardent desire to found

such an institution in her own country. Events, however, upset her plans and compelled her, at the age of thirty, to earn her own living. Her father became unfortunate, and she was obliged to leave Sundholm in order to accept a situation as a teacher in Stockholm. There she worked for twenty years, not only to instruct, but also to uplift her pupils.

The narrow limits of the school were soon passed. A course of her own in history and literature for young ladies of every circle of society was inaugurated, and the number of the daily attendants soon exceeded one hundred. The institution for the education of working people also opened its doors to her, and the lectures delivered there on reform and on economic topics soon made her name famous. Beginning with an audience of thirteen, the hall, which had a capacity of more than six hundred, soon became too small for all seeking admittance.

Ellen Key carried on this work for twenty years. "Great blessing was also derived from the social circle she founded." Young working girls were invited by ladies of the upper classes "in order to bridge the distance between different classes by an amicable social intercourse." "We can apply to herself in full measure the words uttered by the individualist in her best-known work, 'Freedom of Personality,' 'The welfare and woe of others are felt to the full by myself.'"

HOW GERMANY MADE HER MERCHANT MARINE.

SOME interesting data as to the methods by which Germany has so marvelously developed her merchant marine are given in an article by Francis Delaisi, first appearing in the *Européen* (Paris) and largely reproduced in the *Italia Moderna* (Turin-Rome). From a tonnage of 982,355 in 1870 the German fleet has mounted to 1,181,525 in 1880, 1,433,413 in 1890, and 2,093,033 in 1901,—that is, in thirty years, an increase of 111 per cent. The increase is wholly in steam vessels, as sailing vessels have decreased in tonnage 16 per cent. in the last decade, and their in and out tonnage in German ports has notably fallen off. The steam tonnage in 1901 was 1,506,071, or an increase of 108 per cent. in ten years. Hamburg's fleet now surpasses that of all France. This port, which in 1850 was connected with America by a single line with a single vessel, is now served by one hundred and eighteen lines, of which seventy-one are German. Every international port in the world is reached by German steamers, and Germany runs England a close second for maritime position. No other country can show in its ports more ships flying its own colors than those with the English flag. Moreover, the German ships are largely built at home. In 1888, ships of only 24,460 tons were built in German yards, while in 1901 the figures reached 101,886, and while ships of 139,038 tonnage were bought of England, German yards sold 40,975 tons to other nations. In 1870, the North German Lloyd bought 74 per cent. of its ships in England, and now this is the percentage of home construction. Of ships of more than ten thousand tons, England has twenty-six, Germany twenty-four, the United States six, and France two.

GOVERNMENT SUBSIDIES.

The German Government encourages home construction, but not by direct subsidies. It furnishes model yards, docks and appliances, and acts as intermediary between constructors and steel-makers, offering reduced railroad rates to the latter if they give discounts to the former. This avoids the evil existing in France, where constructors buy materials, or, rather, ships, in "knock-down" condition, in England, put them together in French yards, and collect the government subsidy. Likewise, Germany refuses to pay the subsidies for mileage that French ships get for sailing from port to port loaded with ballast. The Hamburg Line receives no subvention, and the North German Lloyd none for most of its lines. The Hamburg Line receives forty-four dollars per league for its postal ser-

vice, which is the fastest service, an average of 166 hours, while French lines take 204 hours for a shorter distance.

HOW GERMAN TRADE IS HELPED.

The German Government has the right to take over merchant vessels in time of war, without, however, making this a pretext for subsidies. These are granted only where German bottoms are trying to open up new markets for trade. When it is necessary to anchor for hours in an open port to take on a few tons of freight,—to spend one thousand marks to gain fifty,—the government aids the steamship lines. Thus, the state pays the Lloyd company 7,000,000 marks (\$1,750,000) for its lines to Australia and the far East, the German East Africa line 1,125,000 marks (\$281,250), and a considerable sum to the Levant line. However, another way is found to favor these stimulants of commerce. It is by granting low railroad freight rates on export goods to new markets,—less than half English rates for the same distances on iron, a third on cotton, and a sixth on manufactured woolsens. When trade is firmly established in these markets, the rates are raised to normal. Similarly, the ocean freights are lowered to new markets, and for East Africa England thought to take advantage of these rates, and shipped her goods via Germany. The result was that the British India Company, which touched at Zanzibar, lost \$150,000 in one year, and ceased the service, and the natives, seeing only German ships. German sailors, and German brokers, gave their chief trade to Germany. The importation of German products climbed from £300,900 (\$1,504,500) in 1895 to £995,160 (\$4,975,800) in 1898, while English imports, after slowly increasing from £105,670 (\$528,350) to £114,217 (\$571,085), fell off to £107,205 (\$536,025).

The German Government, through the Imperial Bank, has helped to make the Hamburg and the North German Lloyd the strongest steamship companies on earth, the Cunard coming third. The government sees to it that there is constant accord between the companies, and this is so firm that they have established a common "war fund" for use in case of too strenuous foreign competition. Moreover, the German Government, contrary to French practice, makes service in the merchant marine so honorable that naval officers do not feel degraded on transferring to it. German merchant officers are assured of careers and regular promotions, and their rank in the naval reserve is raised correspondingly as they advance in the merchant service.

IS AN ANGLO-GERMAN WAR POSSIBLE?

SIR ROBERT REID, who, it is presumed, will occupy a high position in the councils of the state should a new cabinet be formed in England in the near future, contributes an article to the *Deutsche Revue* on the subject of a possible war between England and Germany.

It is one of the unholy consequences of war that it engenders other wars by sowing the seed of an implacable thirst for revenge which animates a whole people. But no such memory haunts Germany and England. These two nations have never crossed swords. Differences of opinion have now and again arisen, and, though rarely, occasions for bitter feeling, but these were ephemeral. There is no national sentiment in England against Germany. The two countries are rivals in commerce, but so are America and France England's rivals.

The case is the same in politics. Every one knows that England entertains no ambition of territorial aggrandizement in Europe, and no desire to interfere in European complications. Some critics seem to think that she pursues a policy of expansion outside of Europe. The leading English statesmen of both parties have in late years positively denied any such intention. She has, to be sure, in the last twenty-five years increased her possessions beyond the sea, but so have Germany and France. In the case of England, however, the feeling is general that further enlargement would be dangerous. The statements and actions of her statesmen show that her whole energy is directed to maintaining her present possessions. If the great size of the British fleet be pointed to, it must be borne in mind that half of the food products consumed in Great Britain are imported. She can, or at any rate does, produce only half of the necessities

of life. In case of war, an ocean passage must be kept free, on that account, as well as for the protection of her colonies, and of trade, which constitutes her support. Twenty years ago, there was only one great navy besides hers. Now four Continental nations possess, or are striving to create, powerful fleets.

In Great Britain it is every one's right to give free expression, in assemblies and in the press, to opinions regarding public affairs. The English, consequently, are used to hearing and reading a good deal of nonsense, and, knowing the insignificance of the sources, are often rather surprised at the attention such utterances at times receive outside. As an instance of this kind of stuff Sir Robert cites the fact that the English papers reported that responsible personalities in Germany believed that a sudden attack on the German fleet was being planned. On the other hand, articles appeared pointing to the fact that Germany intended to send out an army suddenly and secretly to invade England. There is little choice on the score of falsehood and absurdity between the two rumors. "It would indeed be deplorable if two nations which stand in the front rank of civilization should be incited against each other by such means."

Let me conclude by saying that although the direction of international relations is in the hands of governments, every individual citizen can do something toward awakening friendly feelings between two nations that, beside all else, are in large part of the same blood. Difficulties confront both nations; both are capable of judging deliberately how little either could gain by a dissension between them; both are proud, and with good right. Let us not suffer that irresponsible propagators of news, or irritable, often ill-informed critics, should create mischief and sow the seeds of enmity between two peoples that through tradition, history, and kinship have until now maintained peace with each other.

NELSON AND TRAFALGAR.

THE centenary of the battle of Trafalgar and of Nelson's death is the occasion of many tributes in the English magazines for October.

The October number of *Pearson's Magazine* may be called a Nelson number, for it contains no fewer than six articles relating to Nelson and Trafalgar.

The present Lord Nelson contributes a short article on Nelson's portraits. He thinks the portraits of Nelson as a youth should not be accepted as genuine, Nelson being twenty-two when the first reliable one, by Rigaud, was painted. The

next is a miniature painted before Nelson lost his arm. The best-known picture of Nelson is by Abbott, and many replicas of it in smaller size exist. Other portraits have been painted by Guzzardi, H. Singleton, Sir W. Beechey, Hoppner, and others.

Nelson Battle Pictures.

In the October *London*, also, there is a series of articles on Nelson. All who are interested in battle pictures will be glad to have these articles, if only for the sake of learning how many pic-

tures have been painted of the battles in which Nelson took part,—pictures by R. Westall, Sir William Allan, Thomas Whitcombe, A. W. Devis, W. Wyllie, G. Arnald, Stanfield, Turner, Ernest Slingenever, H. Singleton, Frank H. Mason, and many more. Lady Hamilton, too, comes in for a share of notice at this time, and the number of portraits of her shows how many times her portrait has been painted and how many artists have been fascinated by her beauty.

Nelson in Adversity.

In the *Westminster Review*, Percy Cross Standing writes about "Horatio Nelson, Captain's Mate," relating several anecdotes of the great admiral's boyhood and youth. Commenting on the somber aspects of Nelson's early career in the navy, this writer says :

Nelson was a lieutenant at nineteen, and a post-captain at twenty-one. Yet few can have had such frequent inducements to give up the sea as a profession, for it was the lot of few to be so villainously treated as he was during the first decade of his life as a sailor. This scandalous treatment reached its height during his stay in the *Boreas* on the West Indian station under Admiral Hughes' impossible régime. Immediately upon returning to England after her young commander's fierce passage of arms with the governor of the Leewards, the *Boreas* was kept four months at the Nore as a "slop-ship." How bitterly his proud heart throbbed under this fresh indignity is better imagined than described ; and it was with an intonation of the bitterest disgust, when the ship was finally paid off, that he expressed his feelings at being able at last to "free himself from an ungrateful service." Woe to our famed "influence of sea power on history" if he had kept to that resolve ! The fact was that Sir Richard Hughes stood for all that was dead and dying in our service. Nelson came to sound the trumpet-tones of new and splendid ideals for King George's navy, and for the time being he shared the fate of all reformers.



LORD NELSON.

(From the painting in St. James's Palace).

But there dawned a day when all barriers were broken down, and when both government and nation felt that he and the light of his genius alone could save them. It was realized that there was but one leader for the nation's navy, and after October 21, 1805, men felt that the end of all things was come.

Other phases of Nelson's character are well described in a group of articles contributed to the *United Service Magazine* (London).

WHAT MAY BE EXPECTED FROM THE NEW DUTCH PARLIAMENT.

THE fall of Dr. Kuyper, the Dutch premier, who had made a political shibboleth of the antithesis between Christians and freethinkers,—an opposition much less actual than theoretical,—and thus had at the same time lowered religion and done an injury to truth and honesty in the domain of politics, is not wholly to be charged to the mingling of politics and religion. In 1901, says *De Economist*, there were not a few adherents of the Left who remained at home or even voted with the Right because they feared that the ministry then in power was inclining more and more toward German state socialism. These must have learned from the

bills proposed in the late legislature regarding the insurance of the sick and of invalids that still worse was to be feared in this direction from the existing government, and at the same time that the tariff law of Harte led in a still larger measure in the direction of protection than the Pierson bill of that time. The votes of many Moderates, therefore, were once more cast for the Liberal candidates, in whom their confidence had been awakened anew, thanks not the least to the tact of the Manifest-Liberals (so called from the manifesto scattered by them during the campaign), and to the political editorials of their organ, *De Handelsblad*.

One result, then, of the fall of the Kuyper ministry is the overthrow of protectionism in Holland, an overthrow so complete that it may be confidently asserted that, in the immediate future, free trade will have to fear no more danger. The government will have to find fresh funds, to be sure, for carrying out the object of Kuyper's legacy in the matter of education, and for the solution of the difficulties connected with the communal finances. But it is absolutely sure that the new cabinet will not try to obtain this money from the tariff. After the energetic campaign carried on in The Netherlands during the last few years in favor of free trade, the voice of the electors on that question may be regarded as perfectly plain and decisive.

A first and very important result of the new grouping in Parliament will be that it will materially weaken the influence of the Social Democrats. The votes cast in Holland for the members of this party during the past five years afford much ground to expect such a result. When the outcome of the elections in 1901 was under discussion, the further growth of social democracy in Holland was regarded as probable. And there is still good reason for the same opinion. But, whatever the future may bring, notwithstanding the considerable extension of the elective franchise during the present year and the tremendous activity of the Socialists in the seventy-six districts in which they presented

candidates of their own, the increase of their votes, says the *Economist*, was considerably less than had been anticipated.

In 1897, the Social Democratic candidates received 14,812 votes in 33 districts; in 1901 they received 39,338 votes in 53 districts; and in 1905 there were cast for them 65,561 votes in 76 districts. For an exact comparison, however, only those districts should be counted in which in both election years Social Democrats competed for a seat in the legislature. When this is done we find that the total of Social Democratic votes between 1897 and 1901 rose from 13,677 to 29,438, or 112 per cent., and between 1901 and 1905 from 39,338 to 56,963, or 45 per cent. Even in 14 of the 53 election districts where both in 1901 and 1905 Social Democrats were elected, the absolute number of votes cast by Social Democrats was diminished. In Amsterdam, however, the increase of red votes (Social Democratic) was noteworthy. Of the above-mentioned increase between 1901 and 1905 of 17,624 votes, the Amsterdam districts alone furnished 6,166. In the period from 1897 to 1901, of a total increase of 15,561 the Amsterdam districts furnished only 2,203. And having lost two districts and gained but one, the Social Democrats return to the Chamber weakened by the loss of one member.

If, therefore, the now approaching legislative period shall give proof of a statesmanship directed toward a new alignment of parties, as indicated above, there would be still further reason, says the Dutch review, in conclusion, to regard the result of the June elections as a blessing for the nation.

SPAIN'S ECONOMIC ADVANCE.

THE *España Moderna* (Madrid) has been publishing a series of articles on the "New Spain," treating of that country's economic condition. In the last installment, the joint authors, J. Hogge Fort and F. V. Dwelshauvers-Dery, take up external commerce and the financial situation. Commercial statistics in Spain do not go back of 1830, but since that time foreign commerce has grown from 20 pesetas (four dollars) per inhabitant to 96.2 pesetas in 1901 and 85.27 pesetas in 1902. In the total amount there was gradual increase until 1890, and a slight falling off in the next decade, with a marked preponderance of imports over exports. This was only four million pesetas in the decade ending 1890, but one hundred and fifty million pesetas in the next decade. However, from 1895 to 1898 the imports fell off and the exports increased greatly. This was the period of the highest exchange, when the credit of the country was depreciated by the Cuban war. In 1899, the imports be-

came normal again, while the exchange grew more advantageous, increasing Spain's commercial disadvantage. From 1901 to 1903 the imports decreased and the exports increased so that in the first quarter of 1903 the excess of imports amounted to only a little over ten million pesetas, instead of five times that, as in 1901, corresponding period, and commerce took tendencies favorable to Spain.

The following table shows the movement, and also the nature, of the commerce, the figures representing millions of pesetas, the peseta being about one-fifth of a dollar:

	Imports.			Exports.		
	1894.	1897.	1901.	1894.	1897.	1901.
Raw materials.....	327	307	443	186	252	310
Alimentary products....	176	138	144	222	308	225
Manufactured articles...	181	202	312	157	190	190

Examining the commerce with various coun-

tries, that with France has fallen off, both in imports and exports, partly due to tariff, and partly to disinclination of France to sell on long time and by personal solicitation. England, falling in with Spanish customs, has largely increased her trade with Spain, and so has the United States, which now holds a place only slightly behind that of France, while in 1895 her exports to Spain were about one-third of the French.

Spanish exports are now chiefly raw materials, minerals, or alimentary products, the latter including wines, grapes, oranges, lemons, vegetables, and olive oil. The manufactured products are leather, shoes, grass products, cutlery, etc. The imports are principally coal, manufactured metals (frequently mined in Spain and manufactured in England), machinery, cotton and wool goods, and some cured fish, for, with all her coast, Spain has few fisheries.

Turning to the financial situation, it is found that while Spain has advanced greatly from the bankrupt condition of 1882, and solely by her own efforts, without recourse to foreign aid, the question of a depreciated currency and the size of the national debt are still troublesome problems. The article states that the debt increased 2,562,500,000 pesetas (\$500,000,000) from 1899 to 1902. It now amounts to \$1,600,000,000. Thanks to the policy of Minister Villaverde, ever since 1900 the receipts of the government have exceeded the expenses, whereas previously a deficit was the regular programme. Refuting the belief that Spain has no money is the testimony of the last emissions of the government bonds, in 1900 and in 1902, when the subscriptions were covered twenty-five times, with an enormous number of small subscriptions. In 1899, Minister of the Treasury Villaverde repaid

to the Bank of Spain 168,000,000 pesetas of the war debt of 1,259,000,000 pesetas, and before his fall, in July of 1900, 147,000,000 more.

The causes of the depreciation of the peseta are considered at length in the article, which says that they may all be summed up in "the financial policy of the Bank of Spain." This great institution has the monopoly of issuing bank-notes, and its privileges in this direction have been continually extended until its present limit is 2,000,000,000 pesetas, and its note circulation in 1900 was 1,625,000,000 pesetas. Instead of reducing the issue of notes and raising the rate of discount, as the interests of the country demand, it continually does the contrary, every payment of gold into the bank by the state being followed by new notes, instead of release of this coin for commercial use. Spain's foreign credit diminishes, and the stockholders of the bank get 20 to 25 per cent. per year. "The bank and the treasury struggle with each other like two monsters, trying each to devour the other, which makes unheard-of efforts to escape," said Señor Moret in 1901. All the economists, native and foreign, have pointed out the difficulty, and remedies that might be adopted were the Bank of Spain as patriotic as that of England or that of France. Ed. Théry, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, and others have drawn up measures to remedy the situation. Various bills have been drawn up by different Spanish ministries, but each has been met with a protest from the bank officials, though finally a law was passed modifying its practice in many particulars. The article brings the account of these efforts at regulation only up to the reëntance of Señor Villaverde as minister of the treasury, and a following article will estimate his recent work, now over, as he recently died.

OUR NATURALIST-PRESIDENT.

THERE have been sportsmen in the White House before now, but it is doubtful whether any of them equaled the present occupant in the training and gifts of the naturalist. Mr. George Bird Grinnell, writing in the *Country Calendar* for November, declares that Mr. Roosevelt is by temperament and inclination a naturalist, and he was a naturalist even before he was a sportsman. In this connection the statements made in Mr. Grinnell's article concerning Mr. Roosevelt's early ventures in this field are illuminating.

When Mr. Roosevelt went to Harvard, in 1876, he in-

tended to take a scientific course there and to become a naturalist. This he probably would have done except for the influence of the instructors at Cambridge. They wished him to go into the laboratory and work on low forms of invertebrate life, and to devote himself to the cutting of sections and the study of cells. They told him that the day of the field naturalist had passed, that his work had all been done, and that there was no future for a man in study of that sort. Theodore Roosevelt, however, did not care to spend his life in cutting sections and mounting them on slides and then studying them through the microscope. It seemed to him that the future should present some broader field for his activities; so with great reluctance he abandoned natural science and gave up the hope of becoming a faunal naturalist.

Nevertheless, those early years of study and observation left their mark on his character, and what their influence has been is seen in his continued interest in natural science, as shown by what he has done for it and for museums. As a boy, he went to Egypt, and while there made a collection of Egyptian birds, which he afterward gave to the National Museum, in Washington, where it now is. An important contribution to ornithology was made many years ago, when he sent to the National Museum certain Long Island specimens of seaside finches, which enabled the Committee on Nomenclature of the American Ornithologist's Union to decide as to the validity of certain alleged species and subspecies at a time when no other specimens were available on which the decision could be based.

About twenty years ago, just after Dr. C. Hart Merriam, of the Biological Survey, had published his "Mammals of the Adirondacks," Mr. Roosevelt sent him a manuscript journal accurately recording observations on the habits of certain mammals, including the previously unknown carnivorous habits of the short-tailed shrew (*Blarina*).

Naturalists everywhere will be interested in the record of Mr. Roosevelt's later contributions to nature-study:

In 1893, Mr. Roosevelt secured from the Yellowstone Park a specimen of a certain mouse originally described from Idaho, which had never been found in the Yellowstone region. During a hunt made from Thompson Falls on the Northern Pacific Railroad northward in search of white goats, Mr. Roosevelt observed certain diving habits of a rare shrew (*Neosorex navigator*), which he identified by securing a specimen.

Much more recent were the careful observations made by him in 1901 on the panther, or mountain lion, in Colorado, where he collected the skins and skulls of

no less than twelve specimens, with careful measurements. These, when turned over to the Biological Survey, enabled Dr. Merriam to establish the constancy of certain characters in this group, and formed the basis of his revision of the cougars published in December, 1901. Mr. Roosevelt's valuable contribution to the life-history of the cougar, as given in his published account of his hunt of that year, is well remembered.

In the following year, when the President went bear-hunting in Mississippi, he secured a number of bear skulls which he sent to the Biological Survey, and by them established the fact that the bear of that region is *Ursus luteolus* of Griffith, a little-known form, very different from the ordinary black bear. In the same way, the specimens collected during the hunt of last spring in Colorado have been turned over to the Biological Survey and the National Museum, where they will be of use to science.

President Roosevelt's writings on big game have given us the best accounts extant of the life and habits of the species of which he has written. All his papers on hunting, nature, and wilderness travel reveal the close observation and accurate knowledge of the naturalist, not merely as to big game, but as to birds and small mammals as well. Good examples of this are two of his most recent papers,—that on the cougar, just mentioned, and the one entitled "Wilderness Reserves," in which he has told of what he saw during his early spring visit, in 1903, to the Yellowstone National Park.

Mr. Grinnell offers this record as an explanation of the influence which moves President Roosevelt as a sportsman. The story, as he well says, gives the key to the President's interest in sport and his success in it. "A great naturalist was lost to the world," says Mr. Grinnell, "when politics and statesmanship took the place in his mind of nature-study and science."

HOW EUROPE AIDS THE UNEMPLOYED.

THE *Riforma Sociale* (Turin-Rome) gives a summary of the means adopted by various European countries to aid the unemployed, drawing the facts and figures partly from a report of the London Board of Trade and partly from a report of the work of the Humanitarian Society of Milan. Germany occupies first place in work of this nature. In that country, pecuniary aid is given either through the trade-unions, now numbering nearly fifty and having almost half a million members, or through insurance against lack of work, the latter tried locally in Cologne and Leipsic, though proposed as a national measure. Other measures are facilities for workmen traveling in search of work, such as lodging-houses and aid stations, the laborers' colonies, the labor exchanges, and municipal work yards. In the first quarter of 1904 the German trade-unions distributed over one hundred thousand dollars to "out-of-works." The insurance scheme as

tried in Cologne was hardly profitable as a commercial enterprise, as the expenses and payments made the outgo aggregate 120 per cent. of the premiums paid during the year 1903-04, while in 1900-01 they were 163 per cent., and the first year, 1896-97, they were 405 per cent. The deficit was made up from municipal funds and private philanthropy.

In 1905 there were in Germany four hundred and sixty-six houses for traveling laborers, with twenty thousand beds. The results have not been very satisfactory, especially from a moral point of view, apparently tending to increase drunkenness and gambling. Employers object to taking men from these houses, finding them none too anxious to work. In 1903 there existed thirty-four laborers' colonies, which in a year admitted 10,307 workmen. These furnish work and aim at permanent moral elevation. Remuneration in lodging, food, clothes, and money is

kept below the average wage of the locality. As one-half the inmates are ex-convicts, and the rest more or less vagabonds, the results have not been very satisfactory. It is proposed to found colonies on the plan of the one at Friedrichwilhelmsdorf, where the stay is sufficiently long to accomplish better moral results. The most interesting measure is the system of employment bureaus, including private agencies, the lodging-houses and aid stations, the trade-unions, some associations of employers, agricultural bureaus, and, most important of all, public employment bureaus. By exchanging daily bulletins of the condition of the labor market and communicating freely by telephone, these are efficient in equalizing supply and demand. In Prussia, in 1900, 68.2 per cent. of the applicants found work; in 1901, 73.2 per cent.; and in 1902, 75.2 per cent. In Württemberg, the proportion was slightly lower; in Bavaria, almost as high.

Austria provides pecuniary help, aids to traveling seekers for work, and employment bureaus. Some two hundred and fifty thousand dollars is spent on aid stations. However, only 43.125 per cent. of persons received there last year secured employment. The labor bureaus found employment for a diminishing proportion of applicants, the figures being: 1900, 42.9 per cent.; 1901, 41.3 per cent.; 1902, 35.9 per cent.; 1903, 37 per cent.

Switzerland employs all the means used in Germany, including two laborers' colonies, devoted largely to reformatory work, and requiring subventions. Employment agencies are mostly private, and number about three hundred, but official agencies at Berne, Schaffhausen, Winterthur, and Zurich have given satisfactory results, especially for unorganized labor.

France has a colony at La Chalmelle, accommodating fifty persons at a time, or two hundred and fifty during the year, admitted on

recommendation of directors of night refuges at Paris, and about 60 per cent. from 1892 to 1899 left through finding outside employment. The Nicholas Flamel Refuge, at Paris, is a sort of colony, with a sojourn limited to twenty days. By a law passed in 1904, all communes of more than ten thousand inhabitants are required to provide a free employment bureau. In 1902, thirty of these public agencies furnished work for fifty-eight thousand applicants. Forty philanthropic societies and several cities furnish work to unemployed, paying partly in money and partly in food and shelter.

Belgium has done much with insurance. It is now in force in Ghent, Brussels, Antwerp, Bruges, Liège, Mechlin, and Louvain. Insurance of organized labor has succeeded well, but that of unorganized labor has failed through lack of applicants for policies. In Ghent, for three years the premiums paid ran from 72 to 74 per cent. of the total distributed, while at Berne, in 1901, this was only 13 per cent., and at Cologne, 24 per cent. Belgium has two laborers' colonies, which are also in the nature of reformatories, and even asylums for the infirm and superannuated. They have been effective in reducing vagabondage, but not very successful in reformation. The number of voluntary applicants is diminishing.

In Italy, the savings-bank of Bologna established insurance against lack of work in 1896, but was forced to abandon the principle of mutuality, and has found that the receipts do not cover the outgo, and that fraud is frequent. In Venice, a provident society was tried for four years, but the experiment of insurance completely failed. Labor bureaus function imperfectly because of lack of interrelation. A number of trade-unions furnish subsidies to the unemployed members. The country is, however, behind others in efforts of this kind.

THE STUDENT CHRISTIAN MOVEMENT.

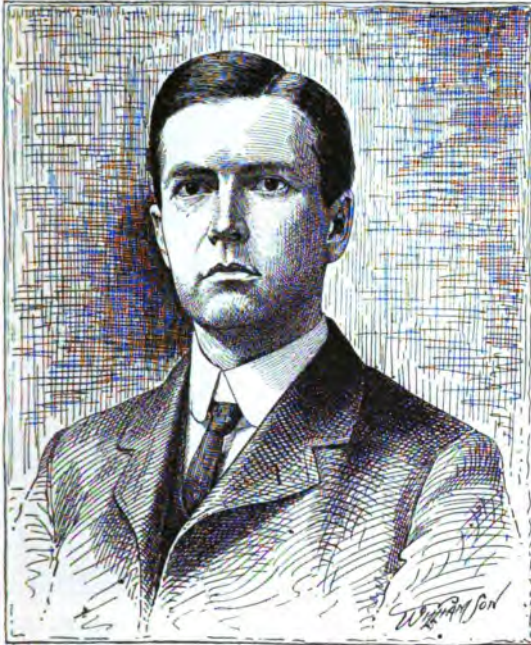
IT is an illustration of how the academic world is secluded from the greater world that a movement of the magnitude described by Mr. Walter W. Seton in the *University Review* (London) for September should be so little known. Mr. Seton says:

Those who looked into the position of this student Christian movement have satisfied themselves, whether they personally approve of its aims and methods or not, that it is a factor which can no longer be neglected. A movement which embraces in its membership throughout the world over one hundred and three thousand students and professors, which includes nearly one in

two of all the students in the North American colleges, which employs for its organization the whole time of over two hundred secretaries (all university men, mostly graduates and salaried), and which owns buildings valued at over a quarter of a million sterling,—this movement is a force which cannot be left out of the calculations of a student of academic interests.

THE BRITISH ORGANIZATION.

He traces the rise of the British student movement in the going out to China in 1884 of the Cambridge Seven, including the champion cricketer, Mr. Studd, and the stroke of the 'varsity



MR. JOHN R. MOTT.

(General secretary of the World's Student Christian Federation.)

eight, Stanley Smith. In 1886 a conference convened by Mr. Moody led to the foundation of the student volunteer movement for foreign missions in America. Next year the Student Foreign Missionary Union was launched in London, and in 1891-92 the union was reconstituted as the Student Volunteer Union of Great Britain and Ireland. In 1893 the Intercollegiate Christian Union was formed at Keswick, representing

twenty colleges. In 1894 to 1895 the affiliated unions rose to forty-five. In 1895 the name was changed to the British College Christian Union.

In the present year there are affiliated 151 unions, of which 41 are in theological colleges, with a total membership of about 4,600. The Student Volunteer Missionary Union has enrolled 2,500 members, of whom 958 have actually sailed for the mission field. The year 1904-05 has seen 200 student volunteers enrolled. At the present moment 1,000 men and women from the British colonies are in preparation for work as foreign missionaries. There is a central executive for coordinating these various student associations, with a general secretary, five traveling secretaries, a summer conference, and a monthly magazine.

THE WORLD FEDERATION.

In 1895, representatives of the movement in America, Great Britain, Germany, Scandinavia, and the foreign mission field met in conference at Wadstena Castle, in Sweden, and founded the World's Student Christian Federation, with a general secretary, Mr. J. R. Mott. The federation now embraces Christian student movements in America, Canada, Australia, Great Britain, China, Korea, Hongkong, Belgium, France, Holland, Switzerland, Germany, India, Ceylon, Japan, Scandinavia, and South Africa. The writer claims for this Christian student movement that it makes the important contribution to academic life of a practical outlook on the world. It breaks down the cloistered seclusion of the college, it brings the rising young men of all nationalities into touch with one another, and it promotes the great cause of Christian unity.

THE ECLIPSE OF THE SUN.

A PARTY to observe the eclipse of the sun on August 30, last, got together by Sir Arthur Rücker, principal of the University of London, went out on the Royal Mail steamship *Ortona*. Arrangements had been made with the Orient Company to have the steamer athwart the path of totality at the right time. This was done, and the eclipse was successfully observed. Prof. H. E. Armstrong contributes to the October number of *School* (London) a very readable account of what was seen.

THE BIRTH OF AN OUTER SUN.

Of the event itself, says Professor Armstrong, it is difficult to give a description; the glory of it is indescribable.

Let astronomers, if they will, in future speak of

eclipses; but let us poor men in the street think of an effulgence of divine glory as coming into view when the main body of the sun is blotted out by the moon. Up to the moment of totality, nothing is seen; the eye is blinded by the sun's brilliance; then, on the instant, an outer sun is born with magic haste; without click or break to announce its appearance, the corona shines forth around the velvet-black disk of the dead sun, a wondrous new light extending far out into space. The silent suddenness of its entry upon the scene is in itself marvelous. Its disappearance is equally sudden,—it is instantaneously killed by the emerging sunbeams; and perhaps the most striking aspect of the phenomenon is the impression which is produced at this stage of the marvelous illuminating power of, so to speak, the least little bit of real sun.

Professor Armstrong gives the following example to describe the eclipse:

Those who have played with fireworks in their youth know well the appearance of a catherine wheel near to its end,—the emergence of the black disk within the irregular whirling circle of fire, at the same time that this is crossed by lateral streamers due to the piercing of the case, so that fire no longer issues only from the central tube. Such, more or less, was the aspect of the totally eclipsed sun,—that of a huge, black-centered, silver-fire catherine wheel near to its end, but betraying no indication whatever of motion; on the contrary, one of awe-inspiring stillness and indescribable loveliness. Its illuminating effect on the present occasion was surprisingly great,—most of us, in fact, had expected to see the corona against a far darker background. Near to the black disk the light was very bright, but it diminished rapidly in intensity outward, from silver-white to an ethereal blue haze.

DAY AND NIGHT.

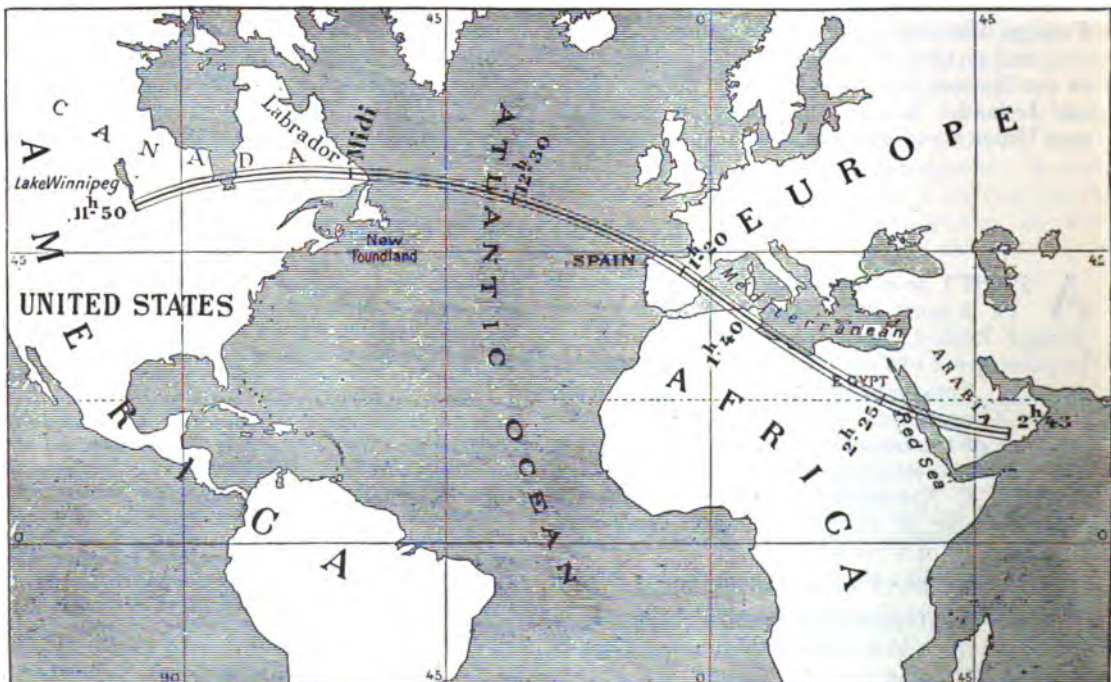
The actual eclipse lasted only three minutes and forty seconds, nor was it at any time completely dark.

Under ordinary circumstances, the change from day to night involves a general darkening, but a total eclipse of the sun produces an entirely different and more localized effect, a composite night-and-day effect. On the one hand we saw black night strike the far-distant hills and advance rapidly toward us, while on the other the day appeared to be dawning, but in weird and strangely beautiful colors. Sketching was easy during the whole period of totality, the illuminating power of the corona being apparently far greater than that of the brightest moon—and yet not a few stars were visible.



APPEARANCE OF THE SUN DURING THE ECLIPSE OF AUGUST 30, 1905.

Mlle. Renaudot gives in the November *Cosmopolitan* a most interesting account of the eclipse as seen from the monastery of Piedra, in Aragon, Spain. M. Camille Flammarion also comments on the phenomenon.



PATH OF THE ECLIPSE OF AUGUST 30, 1905.



THE KING OF ITALY VISITING THE CALABRIA EARTHQUAKE SUFFERERS.

THE BENEFITS FROM THE CALABRIAN EARTHQUAKES.

THE earthquakes in southern Italy have called attention to the need of relief for that section in more than the temporary disasters due to the cataclysm. The rather complex problem is discussed by Mario Mandalari in the *Nuova Antologia* (Turin-Rome), and by Prof. Carlo Maranelli and Antonio Monzilli in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome). Calabria has about one and one-third million inhabitants, with about sixty to the square kilometer, the sparsest settlement in Italy. The inhabitants speak Grecian or Albanian dialects or an antique Italian. Many communities are isolated, without roads, schools, or markets, whether of goods or edibles. Bread is often unknown, and the people live on beans, peas, and potatoes. Stuffs lacking, they cover themselves partially with skins, like primitive savages. They tend flocks and herds in the immemorial way. All who can do so emigrate

to far countries, and the rest hide away in the mountains. As Professor Maranelli points out, their villages are built on the thin soil of the rocky hills that receive the full shock of the frequent earthquakes, and are of the least stable



IN THE PATH OF THE EARTHQUAKE.

(A view in Tiscopio, near Cosenza, one of the hundred or more Calabrian villages devastated. About one hundred and fifty people were buried under the ruins. The picture affords a good idea of the havoc made.)

and homogeneous geologic formation. The houses are built of small stones set in mud mortar, and with steep roofs,—just the architecture to suffer most from seismic shakings. In 1783 a catastrophe similar to that of September helped shake off feudal customs by destroying the castles and monasteries that held the people in slavery to fifty barons and thirteen thousand five hundred priests and monks, and causing the government to better general conditions. The recent visit of the King and his personal observation of conditions may result in needed reforms. If the disaster shake the stubbornly backward inhabitants from their

rocky perches into the safer valleys, and induce them to submit to saner regulations of building, the catastrophe will have its blessings as well as its curse, and this will help to make future visitations less fatal. Five or six such disasters to the century seem pretty certain in this region. The writers call attention also to the need of more observatories for seismic records, in which Italy is far behind Japan. Signor Monzilli urges that agriculture be made more intelligent and more productive, that taxation be made less oppressive, that capital from northern Italy be invested, and that scientific direction be accorded the region in its struggle toward progress.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF AN INCREASING POPULATION.

A STUDY of the increase in population in the different leading nations of the world is contributed to the *Hilfe*, the German periodical, by the well-known economist, Professor Hickmann, of Berlin. The tables of population of the principal civilized nations during the past century, at three different periods, are really a lesson in world-history. Following is the progress of the different powers by population in millions:

1800.			
Russia	39	Italy	18
France	27	Great Britain	16
Austria-Hungary	23	Spain	11
Germany	21	United States	5
1850.			
Russia	62	Great Britain	27
France	35	Italy	24
Germany	35	United States	24
Austria-Hungary	31	Spain	14
1900.			
Russia	112	Great Britain	41
United States	76	France	39
Germany	56	Italy	32
Austria-Hungary	45	Spain	18

There are several exceptions to the general inference from these figures,—that population constitutes an exact index of national power,—principally in the case of Great Britain, which should stand higher in the scale because she is able to add other foreign figures to her present ones. Austria-Hungary really belongs to a lower rank than France, because the unity of the dual monarchy is less certain than that of the French republic. The low standard of education of the Russian population makes the apparently overwhelming figure for that country not as predominant as might be supposed. Nevertheless, "we must admit that Russia, from 1800 to 1900,

has been a first-class power." The two most remarkable features in the table just given are, no doubt, the loss of France and the rise of the United States. At the end of the century, the three Latin nations are at the bottom of the list, because they have not been able to keep pace with the increase of other nations. During the same period, the population of the smaller nations gave the following:

1800.			
Belgium	3	Switzerland	1.7
Portugal	2.9	Denmark	1
Roumania	2.7	Greece9
Sweden	2.3	Norway9
Holland	2.1	Servia8
1850.			
Belgium	4.5	Switzerland	2.4
Roumania	4.2	Denmark	1.5
Sweden	3.5	Greece	1.4
Portugal	3.4	Norway	1.3
Holland	3	Servia	1.2
1900.			
Belgium	6.8	Switzerland	3.4
Roumania	5.9	Greece	2.6
Portugal	5.3	Servia	2.6
Holland	5.2	Denmark	2.5
Sweden	5.2	Norway	2.3

Professor Hickmann points out the big step from Spain, the last of the great powers (18), to Belgium, the first of the small powers (6.8), showing that the middle states have practically ceased to exist. From these figures, it will be seen that the political influence of the Balkan states is increasing, and that of the Baltic states decreasing. Commenting on the falling off in population and influence in the Latin countries, Professor Hickmann says: "The history of the Roman peoples is the history of their mothers. France, Italy, Spain, and Portugal have lost ground because their mothers were averse to bearing children."

HUGE SCHEME TO REGULATE THE NILE.

THE first place in the *Nineteenth Century* (London) for September is given to Sir William Garstin's elaborate discussion of problems of the Upper Nile. He is exercised by the fact that the White Nile contains a larger volume of water before it enters the sudd region, or vast territory composed of reedy marsh, than when it leaves it. He proposes to cut a channel between Bor and the Sobat Junction, a distance of two hundred and ten miles, sufficiently large to take the entire future summer discharge of the Upper Nile, but not large enough to take in the flood water, which may expend itself, as usual, in the marshy bend to the west. A masonry regulator at each end of this large artificial canal would secure the most perfect control over its discharge, and over that of the river. For the Blue Nile, which meets the White Nile at Khartum, he suggests, with a view to irrigating the Sudan, one or more barrages or weirs between the hills and Khartum.

The expenditure of money and life in carrying out these colossal schemes would necessarily be very large, but, the writer maintains, would be also highly remunerative, and bring in a marvelously quick return. He expects the following results :

Egypt will benefit by the extension of perennial irrigation throughout the entire length and breadth of its river valley from Aswan to the Mediterranean. A large portion of the Sudan will be restored to a state of prosperity far exceeding that for which it was once renowned. The rich floods of the Blue Nile and its tributary rivers will be made use of to render fertile the tracts of country watered by those streams, instead of passing through them without benefit, as is now the case. The deplorable waste of water in the dreary swamps of the White Nile will be obviated, and the waters of Lake Albert will pass down undiminished to Egypt, where they will mean wealth to the landowner and gladden the heart of the tiller of the soil. Most important of all, a control over the waters of the great river will have been secured, from its sources to the sea, which will render it possible to regulate its flow at all seasons, almost as easily and as effectually as if it were one of the great canals of the Egyptian irrigation system.

Such results are, I venture to think, well worth striving for, even if their attainment involves a large expenditure of money, and perhaps of life. The last item is, I fear, equally inevitable with the former. The extreme unhealthiness of the entire region in which these works must be carried out, and the exposure to the climate at all seasons which their execution must entail to the working staff, will, I am afraid, mean loss of health to many of those engaged upon them.

Even so, the object aimed at is worthy of such a sacrifice, and I feel sure that no such considerations will deter Englishmen from coming forward and giving their services for the attainment of such noble ends.



MAP SHOWING THE COURSE OF THE NILE.

THE CAPE TO CAIRO RAILWAY.

FROM time to time we have given the readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS the benefit of important articles relating to the progress of the Cape to Cairo Railway. Mr. J. Hartley Knight writes in the *Engineering Magazine* for October on this subject. The idea and the phrase he attributes to Sir Charles Metcalfe, and though the scheme owed much to the powerful personality of Mr. Cecil Rhodes, it has not, he says, suffered in any way through his death. The Southern Line is a good many miles beyond Kalomo, and well on the way to Rhodesia Broken Hill, the next great stage to the terminus on the southern end of Lake Tanganyika. Sir Charles Metcalfe is quoted as saying that Providence was very kind to the projectors in placing coal fields at Wankie and a rich copper region at Broken Hill.

THE HIGHEST BRIDGE IN THE WORLD.

The Victoria Falls Bridge, which has just been opened by the British Association, is thus described :

It is the highest,—420 feet,—in the world, and it was built in the shortest time recorded for such a work,—viz., nineteen weeks. Sir Charles Metcalfe also claimed that no other bridge of its size and capacity had ever been built so cheaply. At the time of writing, the bridge is still incomplete, some fifty thousand rivets having yet to be hammered in before the finishing touches can be made. The bridge was designed by Sir Charles Metcalfe, consulting engineer in Africa of the Rhodesia Railways (Limited), and Mr. G. A. Hobson, M. Inst. C.E., of the firm of Sir Douglas Fox & Partners, the same company's consulting engineers in London. The work of construction was under the immediate charge of Mr. G. C. Imbault, who had with him a staff of English bridge-builders, which never exceeded twenty-five men, and about one hundred native laborers. This gentleman practically supervised the con-

struction of the bridge at Darlington, where it was made by the Cleveland Bridge & Engineering Company, and also its erection across the Zambesi. The total length of the bridge is 650 feet, of which the central span accounts for 500 feet between the pin centers on the two banks, the balance being made up of the two short spans. The great center span rises in a graceful parabolic arch to the center, the spring of which starts from the bases of the main booms. The vertical rise to the crown is 90 feet. The main span is made of twenty bays, each 25 feet long; and lateral stability was secured by a wide spread at the feet of the bridge. At the rail level the distance between girder centers is 37 feet 6 inches, whereas at the bases the width between pin centers is 50 feet. The roadway projects beyond the side girders so as to allow a clear 30 feet between parapets. The bridge is of steel, and as it is coated with gray paint it is rendered as invisible as possible against the cloud of spray,—“the smoke that sounds,” as the natives call it,—that rises from the Falls, and the undue obtrusion on the landscape which so many feared has thus been obviated.

The most difficult work was at the beginning, in securing a firm basis on the rock.



AFRICAN RAILWAYS AND WATERWAYS.

"Once we began to build the arch outward from either bank," said Mr. Hobson, "everything was plain sailing, and the work went on with the smoothness and regularity of clockwork." So carefully had the whole thing been thought out that the two ends of the bridge, which was built from both sides of the gorge simultaneously, met so exactly that there was not a difference between them of even an eighth of an inch. The actual erection of the bridge commenced in October, 1904, and the girders were joined on April 1, 1905.

An interesting feature of the construction of the railway bridge at Victoria Falls is the huge net hung below the growing bridge, for the purpose of catching workmen and tools that might drop from the bridge. While the bridge was building, the railway to Kalomo went on at the rate of a mile and a half a day. Between Kalomo and Broken Hill, a distance of two hundred and sixty miles, the only practical engineering difficulty is a bridge some seventeen hundred feet long which will have to be constructed over the river Kafue.

THE EXTENSION NORTHWARD.

Sir Charles Metcalfe said to the writer :

My own opinion is that in the future there will probably be two lines running from Broken Hill,—one going up through the Congo Free State to Lake Chad and right through French territory, coming out perhaps at Algiers or some other place on the north coast, the other coming up through German East Africa and ultimately joining up with Khartum and Cairo.

Broken Hill is 1,984 miles from Cape Town. Mr. Rhodes preferred the water route by Lake Tanganyika. Sir Charles prefers the railway line by the side, but whether Germany will permit of the latter is doubtful. As to the northern section, the writer reports little change. Lord Cromer, while approving the rail and river transit, thinks the whole route by rail commercially impossible.

His opinion of the scheme was expressed very clearly in his official report on Egypt published in April, 1904, in which he stated that while he was not prepared to say that, from a purely engineering point of view, the



VICTORIA FALLS.

(The falls are more than four hundred feet high and about a mile wide, from bank to bank, with several islands intervening.)

execution of this plan,—i.e., the establishment of a continuous railway communication from Cairo to Cape Town,—"would be absolutely impossible," he was quite confident that, in view of the very great physical difficulties which would have to be encountered, the cost of constructing any such railway would be altogether out of proportion to its utility. Proceeding, Lord Cromer said: "I am, however, given to understand that this project—if it was ever seriously entertained—has been abandoned, and that the idea of establishing communication by rail and river between Cairo and Cape Town has been substituted in its place. This is altogether a different matter. A very difficult, if not the most difficult, part of the original project is thus abandoned, for it would be no longer necessary to construct a railway across vast marshes lying, roughly, between the fifth and tenth parallels of north latitude."

PROSPECTS.

Of the Rhodesian section, the writer states that the percentage of expenditure to receipts was in 1903–04 75.8, the previous year 61.3. He concludes his optimistic sketch by saying :

When the depression under which South Africa is still laboring is removed and the waters of the Victoria Falls are "harnessed" for electrical production, it is only reasonable to assume that the Rhodesian railways will be worked at considerably less cost, and that the net revenue will be proportionately greater. At the present rate of progress, the next five years should see some wonderful developments in the African railway world, and, speaking personally, I shall be very greatly surprised indeed if by that time the Cape to Cairo Railway is not within a stone's-throw, as the saying is, of Lake Tanganyika.

A STATE LIFE-INSURANCE SYSTEM: THE NEXT STEP?

SHALL our States go into the life-insurance business? A plausible argument for such a course is set forth by Mr. Ernest Howard in the current number of the *International Quarterly* (New York). This writer maintains that "State supervision of insurance cannot be extended sufficiently to overcome the abuses and extravagances of private and competitive life insurance at their source without practically assuming a direct and detailed control of the whole business. Why not, then, State insurance instead? Many of the States are already deeply concerned in the business through the exercise of their supervisory functions.

The State specifies for private companies the mortality table to be used; it can use that table for itself. It names a rate of interest to be assumed in computing premiums and reserves; it can do this for its own as well as the guidance of other companies. It compels the attachment of a reasonable surrender value to lapsed policies and specifies how such value is to be determined; it has something to say, here and there, of how and when the surplus shall be divided;—it can simply take over these standards of general conduct and apply them to an insurance business of its own through the machinery already established for their application to private companies. The State can as well make safe investments as it can prescribe such investments for others. And the State can do some things which it cannot compel private companies to do and permit them to remain such,—it can eliminate competition, abolish solicitation through an expensive agency system, and so radically reduce insurance charges; or it can establish a business in competition with private companies, and, by applying a moderated system of solicitation by agents or advertising, effect, perhaps, a material cheapening of insurance to those who want it from the State.

HOW A STATE MIGHT ENTER THE INSURANCE FIELD.

The State of Massachusetts, for example, having a competent insurance bureau already in operation, might constitute this bureau a home office which would establish branches in every considerable city and town, all being placed in charge of officials and clerks on small salaries (the governor of the State receives \$5,000, and the justices of the Supreme Court, men of the highest professional training and ability, \$8,000 each.)

What life insurance will then be in search of is common honesty, and not brilliancy in leading speculative forays with trust funds or in acquiring business at two or three times what it is worth; and common honesty is not so uncommon as to command such salaries as have been named. If it were, we should have to despair of our civilization.

Through these branches, then, the State will offer for sale insurance in a small variety of desirable forms, including endowment or insurance with a savings-bank attachment, at the net level premium dictated by its

present or amended laws regarding mortality table and reserve, plus whatever expenses may have to be incurred. As the State holds a substantial monopoly of the business, it can sweep away all the vast expense of present-day life-insurance solicitation beyond a trifle expended in calling public attention to the desirability of taking life insurance, the kinds of policies the State has for sale, and where they can be obtained and at what price.

A COMPARISON WITH SAVINGS-BANKS.

In seeking to arrive at the approximate cost of such State insurance, Mr. Howard institutes an interesting comparison between insurance companies and savings-banks. The proposed system of State-directed insurance would be similar to the savings-banks as now conducted by disinterested trustees and salaried officials responsible to a directing State authority, on the non-competitive principle and with the element of profit excluded.

Four of the largest of the Massachusetts savings institutions are compared with four regular life insurance companies of the State which are among the soundest and most conservative old-line companies in America.

These two groups of institutions stand close together in the volume of business and magnitude of trust. They show for the year 1903:

	Aggregate assets.	Total income.	Expenses exclusive of taxes.	Per cent. of expense to income.
Four life comp's...	\$105,217,962	\$19,845,799	\$3,326,161	16.6
Four savings-bks.	114,413,722	21,215,452	201,889	00.9

From the expenses of the life companies are excluded, besides taxes and licenses, also medical fees, peculiar to the business, which would pass with it to the State. The total income is made up of returns from investments in both cases; and for the savings-banks deposits presented during the year, corresponding to the premium income of the life companies.

These two classes of institutions are very similar in a financial sense. Neither is engaged in money-making beyond the interest improvement in invested funds. Both are engaged in receiving, investing, guarding, and distributing or returning money. Both perform the function of conservator of the social economy against the time of need or loss by death. Nevertheless, the remarkable fact appears that the costs of conducting the one class of institution are nearly twenty times greater than those of the other, whether considered in relation to gross income or the assets or trust funds in charge. And it is worthy of further remark that the single expense item of salaries of officers and home-office employees of the four life companies for the year in question (\$461,292) is more than double the entire expenses of the four banks. The great salaries common to life-insurance management are usually justified on the ground of guardianship of large bodies of trust

funds; but the savings-banks in this case have the larger total assets to care for.

No time need be wasted over excuses and explanations which may be offered for this extraordinary difference in the costs of conducting two very similar trust institutions. What part of the difference legitimately or necessarily pertains to life insurance as a private and competitive enterprise will be readily understood: and as readily, also, perhaps, what part has been unnecessarily and unwarrantably imposed. But life insurance need not remain a private and competitive business, and the way is open for reducing its expenses very close to the savings-bank level. For the four life companies under consideration this would admit of a reduction in their aggregate yearly expense of some \$3,000,000. Their aggregate premium income during the year taken for illustration was a little less than \$17,000,000, which might therefore have been reduced to \$14,000,000 to carry the same amount of insurance.

Here, then, is the clear practicability of reducing the charges of insurance by from 16 to 20 per cent., without affecting in the slightest the additions to and divisions

from surplus. The gross level-premium charge for an ordinary whole-life policy at age 30 would thus be \$30 per \$1,000 at the most, instead of \$24, and other policies would come in for proportionate reductions. The magnitude of saving on such a scale, when extended over large bodies of policy-holders and for stretches of years would be incalculable. Moreover, endowment or policies with the savings-bank feature would in this case have a greatly enhanced desirability; for, as it is, such a policy involves the absurdity of turning savings from a bank of low expense ratio to an insurance company with a ratio many times higher.

The State might either take over the business of existing companies within its borders or permit them to live out the slow liquidation of existing contracts. There is, however, an alternative. The New Zealand method might be adopted, by which the State would offer insurance in open competition with private companies. It would then be a case of "the survival of the fittest."

LIFE INSURANCE AS AN ECONOMIC FACTOR.

ONE phase of American life insurance that has largely escaped attention in the present discussion of the subject is closely related to our material development as a nation. We refer to the modern insurance company's investment functions. These are well described in an article contributed to the September *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (Philadelphia) by F. C. Oviatt, the editor of the *Intelligencer*.

Suppose that one hundred thousand men are each possessed of one thousand dollars in capital ready for investment. It is obvious that where a man is limited to investments of the thousand-dollar class he is under a marked disadvantage. Often the sum required is so large that his thousand dollars counts for nothing and he is unable to avail himself of opportunities that promise good returns.

The one hundred thousand men cannot be brought together at the time when this investment offers itself, so it has to be passed over to the man of large capital, who is equipped for handling such investments. Every one who has had small sums to invest has experienced this difficulty, and has, no doubt, often asked himself how the small investor can be placed on a par with the large investor; has asked how the really choice investments which result from the development of the country can be placed to his hand in available shape.

This important economic function is admirably performed through the medium of life insurance. The company gathers twenty dollars here and fifty dollars there, a hundred dollars there and a thousand dollars in still another place. Soon a large volume of money is ready for investment. With a hundred thousand dollars, or five hundred thousand dollars, or a million dollars, the company can go into the money markets and

buy securities of the very highest class. The men who desire to borrow money for the development of business interests know that if their security is first-class life insurance companies are ready to lend them money. By this means the man who has fifty dollars to invest in a given year insures its earning the same rate of interest upon the same safe security as can be obtained by the man with a million dollars to invest.

It is hard to overestimate the value of this to the community. The investors know that the life insurance companies have money to invest, and so they offer them the securities they have to sell. Opportunities that would never be offered the individual are offered the insurance company. No other medium for the investment of savings equals that of the life insurance company. There are, of course, other forms. Many persons patronize the savings-banks. The savings-bank, however, operates in a limited territory, and is not open to persons in small and medium-size communities. The life insurance company, however, offers the same advantage to the farmer as it does to the resident of the metropolis. The man who, after he has sold his grain, his potatoes, his live stock, has a hundred dollars to invest can do it just as satisfactorily as the man who does business in the heart of the financial district of a great city. Then, again, this man who lives in an out-of-the-way place can time his life-insurance investments so as to meet the time when his money is ready to invest.

He sells his property at about the same time every year, and he can have his premiums made payable at that time. If he is delayed a month or six weeks in receiving his money, the insurance company is willing to extend his time of payment. The life insurance company is, therefore, peculiarly well fitted in dealing with all kinds of people in all sections of the country and under all circumstances. In a sentence, the company accommodates itself to the needs of its patrons. It is always ready to help a man save his money and secure its highest earning power.

HOW INSURANCE HELPS LOCAL ENTERPRISE.

Another side of this power of accumulated capital is to be found in its aid in the development of business. The investments of a life insurance company are to be found in all parts of the country. They include all kinds of safe and profitable investments. The man who desires to borrow a thousand dollars on a first mortgage finds the company ready to do business with him. The man who plans the erection of an apartment-house finds that when his plans are completed the insurance company is ready to finance the investment up to the limit of wise financiering. The country bank which has a larger capital than its citizens can purchase can sell its shares to the insurance company. The railroad company planning to improve its property can sell its bonds to the insurance company. The municipality bonding itself for park improvements, additional water-supply, and other municipal improvements requiring the use of money for a long period of years always expects a

goodly amount of its bonds to find their way into the strong-boxes of life insurance companies. So the life insurance company brings together the different persons and corporations who need to borrow large sums of money and the great multitude of individuals who have small sums to loan upon terms that are satisfactory to both. Were it not for the life insurance company, it would be difficult to collect these small sums and make them available for development purposes. There is scarce a great enterprise which has not had the use of some of the money of the small investor by reason of the wonderful development of life insurance.

The life insurance company is, of course, continually distributing funds throughout the community in the form of dividends and maturing endowments to its policy-holders and death claims to beneficiaries. In this way fifty thousand dollars may be sent in a single year into a town of five thousand inhabitants.

LIFE-INSURANCE METHODS.

CRITICISMS of the methods pursued by the "old-line" American life insurance companies are appearing on every hand. Even the most conservative writers who attempt to deal with the subject find much to censure in the extravagance into which several of the great companies have been led in the quest of "business." Thus, Mr. Louis Windmüller, of New York, an experienced observer, writing in the current *Forum*, says:

The most successful system in this country has been the "mutual," so called because policy-holders are supposed to participate in the management of the companies, and to share with the administrators they elect the profits of the business. These profits are made by investing premiums, raised or "loaded" one-third above their cost, to provide for expenses and contingencies to the best possible advantage. A large part of this money goes to the agents, who receive from 50 to 75 per cent. commission on the first year's premium, and thereafter an average of 5 per cent. per annum during the life of every policy they procure; other expenses,—salaries, fees, rent, and so on,—are larger than they need be. They aggregate 22 per cent. of the premium receipts of the American companies, against 14 per cent. of the English and 10 per cent. of the German life insurance companies.

Contingencies comprise: First, an increase of mortality. While in cases of epidemics this occurs once in a while, the tendency is in the other direction. Longevity has increased over 6 per cent. during the last fifty years; with better sanitary conditions and a more rational hygiene in other ways, it will probably continue to increase. The second contingency is the interest obtainable on investments. With a greater supply, the usage of money has been cheapened, and the companies seldom derive as much profit by their investments as they had calculated upon. It will probably continue to diminish.

When the profits of a business exceed the estimates the surplus of a stock company belongs properly to the stockholders, while in a mutual company it ought to be divided among the policy-holders, who created it.

EXTRAVAGANCE IN MANAGEMENT.

Alluding to the Equitable disclosures, Mr. Windmüller refers to the "incautious selection of investments and the unjustified extravagance" which prevail in this business. The latter charge, if not the first, has been to a great extent substantiated.

Almost all companies who have succeeded in swelling to enormous proportions a surplus made from profits on high-priced policies, and all who try to emulate their example, are guilty of such extravagance. It was engendered by the custom of retaining for improbable eventualities a larger surplus than is necessary or judicious. Instead of dividing among policy-holders from the accumulation of assets all they can spare, managers direct their actuaries to credit what dividends they please, not explaining to their policy-holders how they were earned or apportioned. The example of wanton expenditure by large and wealthy companies is followed by their small, less fortunate competitors. An assessment company with a premium income of four millions paid forty thousand dollars' salary to its president in 1904. Such needless prodigality, the suspicious concealment of the details of the business, together with a few doubted investments, were reasons for the exclusion from Germany of two large American life insurance companies. The latter fact, indicating that our authorities guard the interests of their citizens with less care than is customary abroad, together with the more recent developments, have combined to create a distrust against our companies, not alone among present policy-holders, whose confidence has been rudely shaken, but also among those who would otherwise have become policy-holders. Savings diverted from life insurance companies begin to flow into banks and real estate.

HOW CONFIDENCE MAY BE RESTORED.

A shrinkage in business similar to that which occurred in the "hard times" of the seventies is threatened at this moment, and may only be averted, in Mr. Windmüller's opinion, by the adoption of the following measures on the part of the companies :

1. Sell stocks and securities the values of which fluctuate, investing proceeds in first mortgages on improved city realty for two-thirds of its marketable value. Savings of the thrifty should not be exposed to the risk of speculation.

2. Dispose of superfluous buildings acquired in all parts of the world to advertise business, and invest

likewise. Policy-holders care for absolute safety more than for marble halls.

3. Cut down salaries and other expenses. The measures taken by the Equitable do not go far enough ; re-trenchment should be instituted by every other company which does not want to become the target of criticism.

Owners of mutual policies are entitled to a yearly statement of the details and results of the business in which they are interested, just as much as holders of stock in banks, railroads, and industrials. Managers who find a disclosure of these details distasteful should quit the business.

Mr. Windmüller declares that the credulity of the public has really been responsible for the extensive sale of the more costly forms of policies.

THE MORTALITY STATISTICS OF THE TWELFTH CENSUS.

A GREAT many curious as well as interesting facts are disclosed in a *resumé* contributed under the above title to the *Cleveland Medical Journal* by Dr. H. E. Handerson. The paper is concerned entirely with the mortality statistics of the twelfth census, which are limited to what is called the registration area. This includes nine only of the forty-five States,—to wit, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Vermont, and the District of Columbia,—and 153 "registration cities" not situated in the States mentioned. According to the "Abstract of the twelfth census," these are all the States and all the cities having at least 8,000 inhabitants for which the registration of deaths under local laws and ordinances was found to be sufficiently accurate for use by the census office.

The necessity for the limitation of the statistics of mortality to a comparatively small area (less than 6 per cent. of the total area of the continental United States) gives to the figures an unavoidably local color, since seven of the nine States mentioned above are found in the North Atlantic division, one only—Michigan—in the north central division, and the District of Columbia alone in the South Atlantic division. The influence of climate upon the diseases and the mortality of the country is thus excluded almost entirely from consideration. As Dr. Handerson points out, it is true that this partial view is in a measure corrected by the introduction of the vital statistics of 153 cities not located in the registration States, but scattered throughout the other grand divisions of the country. Yet this correction itself thus takes on an exclusively urban character, which again distorts the evidence of the true condition of the

divisions represented only by a few cities within their territory. The State of Louisiana, *e.g.*, is represented only by New Orleans, with a death rate of 28.9 per 1,000 inhabitants, and Shreveport (apparently the charnel-house of the United States) with the frightful mortality of 45.5 per 1,000.

While Dr. Handerson deplored the imperfections thus noticed, he was compelled to recognize their necessity under existing circumstances, and therefore employed the figures furnished with rigid caution and circumspection in their application to communities other than those from which they were derived.

Mention is made of the fact that the population included in the "registration area" of the census is 28,807,269, or about 38 per cent. of the population of the continental United States in the year 1900.

A study of the mortality statistics given under "Deaths and Death Rates from Certain Causes, for the Registration Area, 1900 and 1890," reveals the following important facts :

The death rate from pneumonia, 186.9 per 100,000 in 1890, increased in 1900 to 191.9 per 100,000.

The death rate from consumption, which in 1890 aggregated 245.4 per 100,000, shows in 1900 the flattering decrease to 190.5 per 100,000. So far as they go, these figures seem to indicate that the recent campaign of popular instruction as to the causes and treatment of the greatest scourge of our race is bearing abundant fruit in a greatly decreased mortality.

The mortality from apoplexy, 49 per 100,000 in 1890, is increased in 1900 to 66.6 per 100,000. "Manifestly the notorious strenuousness of American life," Dr. Handerson observes, "has not

yet been materially tempered by the peaceful influence of Pastor Wagner."

The mortality from diphtheria, 70.1 per 100,000 in 1890, is cut nearly in two by the reduced mortality of 35.4 in 1900.

Typhoid fever in 1890 caused the death of 46.3 persons per 100,000, figures that are happily reduced to 33.8 in 1900.

Railroad accidents in 1890 destroyed 14 in each 100,000 of our population, a rate that was reduced to 13.2 in 1900.

The mortality from cholera infantum decreased from 79.7 per 100,000 in 1890 to 47.8 in 1900,—one of the most beneficent advances recorded in the tables.

Cancer, *bête noir* of both physician and surgeon, apparently increased its mortality from 47.9 to 60 per 100,000 in 1900.

Within the limits of the registration area, Michigan leads with a general mortality of only 13.9 per 1,000 inhabitants, and the District of Columbia closes the list with the relatively high rate of 22.8 per 1,000. How very sensitive the figures are to the presence of a considerable negro contingent is well shown in the rate last mentioned. The District of Columbia, with a negro population of 31.1 per cent., exhibits a total mortality of 22.8 per 1,000, of which the white population is responsible for a rate of only 19.1 and the negro for a rate of 31 per 1,000.

The lowest general death rate recorded in the tables of the registration area is 9.1 per 1,000, which figures are credited to St. Joseph, Mo., a city of about 100,000 inhabitants. The highest rate is 45.5 per 1,000, charged to Shreveport, La., with a population of only 16,000.

Of the individual registration States, Michigan again leads the way with a mortality of 121.3 per 1,000 of children under one year of age, and 36 per 1,000 of children under five. Vermont is, at least, a close second, with figures of 122.1 for children under one year, and actually takes the first place for children under five years with a rate of 34.4 per thousand. The District of Columbia again closes the list with figures of 274.5 and 81 for the two respective ages.

Of the registration cities, Helena, Mont., with a population of 10,770, carries the banner with the minimum rate of 52.6 for children under one year of age, while Charleston, S. C., must bear the unenviable reputation of the leader in this modern slaughter of the innocents with a maximum rate of 419.5 for children of the same age. Of course, the shadow of the negro is again reflected in this terrible maximum.

Popularly, mortality statistics are supposed to be dry reading. The reader is, therefore, scarcely prepared for the statement that the demand for the third edition of "The Abstract of the Twelfth Census of the United States of 1900" has been unexpectedly great.

THE RAILROAD RATE.

THE railroad question is a close second to the insurance question in public interest at the present time. The country is looking forward to a great debate in Congress, and no opportunity to provide ammunition for the debaters is permitted to pass unimproved. One of the most important contributions to the discussion is made by Mr. Ray Stannard Baker in an article entitled "The Railroad Rate: A Study in Commercial Autocracy," which appears in the November *McClure's*. In this article Mr. Baker describes the existing rate situation in this country in its bearings on the development of different geographical sections. He shows, for example, how the dairy interests of the middle West have prospered at the expense of New York farmers, largely through the operation of freight tariffs. He also shows the tremendous importance of freight classifications in determining the success or failure of a given industry.

Mr. Baker makes it clear that the small shippers and consumers who pay the small freights

have to make up for all the low rates granted to the big shipper. In that way the great public contributes to its own exploitation by the allied railroad and industrial interests.

THE RAILROAD THE TOOL OF INDUSTRY.

The importance of the railroad in our industrial life is well defined by Mr. Baker.

It is the regulator of business. It holds the scales of destiny. It decides where cities shall be located, and how fast they shall grow; it marks out in no small degree the wheat and corn areas; it sets boundaries for the business of the coal miners of Illinois as against those of Pennsylvania; it marks definitely how far the lumber of Washington shall go; it decides whether flour shall be manufactured in Minneapolis or Buffalo, and whether the chief export business in grain shall be done at the port of New York or at the port of New Orleans.

THE WORKINGS OF RAILROAD MONOPOLY.

And the great fact arising out of these conditions, the overwhelming fact, is that these enormous powers, the control of the very instrument of business destiny,

is in the hands of a comparatively few private citizens who are handling the tool, *not to build up the nation properly*, not to do real justice as between Chicago and New York, or between Rockefeller and the independent refiner, or between wheat and flour; not to make the rate system simple and time-saving, *but to fill their own pockets* in as short a time as possible. Hill says that the State of Washington shall grow, Tuttle says that Pittsburg shall not grow, the Western railroads say that Chicago and Kansas City shall butcher the beef, Eastern roads allow Rockefeller to dominate the oil industry and become dangerously rich. It is terrible power to place in the hands of a few men,—fewer every year,—about ten men, now, sitting in Wall Street. "Railroad property is the one kind of property which determines what tribute every other kind of property shall pay to it."

When a shipper or a citizen who thinks he is wronged attempts to get relief, he must submit his case, not to an impartial tribunal, *but to his adversary in the case*. What justice can be hoped for? He is poor, he does not understand railroad conditions, he does not dare, single-handed, to make a fight for the whole community and take a chance of earning the further enmity of the railroad; his adversary is rich, employs the best legal talent, is intrenched in power. Out of hopelessness of justice has arisen the present widespread demand, voiced by President Roosevelt, for some tribunal which is at once impartial and powerful enough to do justice as between the Railroad and the Citizen. The people have asked that the Government, through the Interstate Commerce Commission, be made such a tribunal,—in other words, that in case of dispute over a rate the government of the United States shall say, once for all, what is right and reasonable. They believe that such great power is better in the hands of the Government than in the hands of individuals. This demand the railroad owners are opposing with all the ability, legal acumen, money power, and political influence that they can command.

Rate-Making by Congress.

"Some Legal Aspects of Railroad Rate-Making" is the subject of an article by the Hon. Richard Olney in the *North American Review* for October. His argument is that the power to determine the charges for transportation is the very essence of the ownership of the transportation business, since upon the exercise of this power depend the profits to get which the business is undertaken. In this respect, Mr. Olney holds that the transportation business is like any other, and that "the severance of the ownership of a business from the power to determine the returns from it, being impracticable in point of fact, is to be deemed also impossible in point of law."

The question whether government rates as prescribed are or are not confiscatory and consequently illegal is a judicial question, to be determined only by the judiciary. But Mr. Olney argues that rates reasonable when prescribed by Congress may be found unreasonable when



HON. RICHARD OLNEY.

examined by the courts, or if unreasonable when enacted, may be entirely reasonable by the time the courts are called upon to investigate them. Yet in either event the courts are limited to action upon rates already established, and are without power to decree what shall be rates for the future. Mr. Olney concludes:

As only the courts, after hearing the parties, can determine whether legislative rates are reasonable or unreasonable, if such rates are made effective upon enactment and the carrier adopts them and they are afterward adjudged unreasonable, the result is that property of the carrier is in effect taken from the carrier to bestow it upon the shipper; if such legislative rates made effective upon enactment are not adopted by the carrier and are afterward adjudged reasonable, the result is that property of the shipper is in effect taken from him to bestow upon the carrier. The same confiscatory result follows in each case; because in the one the carrier, and in the other the shipper, is without any legal redress for the wrong suffered.

These considerations would seem to settle conclusively the practical impossibility of separating the ownership of the transportation business from the power to fix the carrier's charges; of permitting private persons to be proprietors of the business, and, at the same time, vesting in government the right to dictate what shall be their charges and their returns from the business.

And, as in deciding the question of the violation of a constitutional limitation the substance of things and not the shadow is taken into account, the organic inability of the national government to own and run the national railroads of the country includes the inability to prescribe their charges, the right to fix which is an inseparable constituent of ownership.

CAN PLANTS FEEL?

THIS is the question discussed with much knowledge and insight in the *Monthly Review* (London) for September by Mr. G. Clarke Nuttall. He begins by saying that in exploring the subtle link which binds together the living plant and the living animal he finds that the hard line of demarcation which once existed between plants and animals is now broken down. There is now no break in continuity of kind, only variation of position in nature's scheme of life. The contention that plants are actually endowed with sensation has, he says, been considerably furthered of late by Professor Haberlandt's researches. He claims to have found definite organs of sense among the higher flowering plants. He deals, of course, with the purely physiological side of sensation, and leaves alone the psychical side. The sense organs possessed by plants are of four kinds,—sensitive spots, sensitive papillæ, sensitive hairs, and sensitive bristles. The sensitive spots are notably found on the tips of tendrils, those of the passion flower being proved by Charles Darwin to be exquisitely sensitive.

THE SUNDEW.

In the little carnivorous plant called the sundew, found in boggy places on the Welsh and other hills—

each leaf is covered with crimson hairs, and since each hair has a swollen head, the green leaf looks as though it were stuck all over with very fine red pins of various sizes,—perhaps some two hundred on each leaf. Now, these little tentacles, for such they are, are supremely sensitive, owing to their glandular heads being richly provided with the sensitive spots already spoken of. If by chance a flying or creeping insect alights upon a leaf, these hairs immediately begin to move and close over it, the victim meanwhile being held down by a gummy substance on the leaf until it is squeezed to death.

But the curious part of the sensitiveness of these tentacles is that they appear to be able to gauge the quality of the object which touches them. Thus, if raindrops fall upon them they are unresponsive. If a piece of coal and a piece of beefsteak of equal weight be laid upon two leaves simultaneously, they will both begin to close at once. But in the case of the beefsteak they will take perhaps six minutes to complete the closing, and remain closed for days until they have absorbed it; while in the case of the coal they close slowly and

dubiously, and it may be three or four hours before they grasp it.

The tentacles of the sundew have actually a finer susceptibility to external stimulus than we have. It can feel a particle of fine human hair less than 1-25 of an inch in length, which if laid on the tip of the tongue would create no consciousness of its presence in us.

VENUS' FLY-TRAP.

Another carnivorous plant, however, surpasses the sundew.

Indeed, it is an open question whether in the whole of the animal world even there is a more perfectly constituted organ of touch than is found in the *dionea*, a plant popularly known as Venus' fly-trap. This plant is one of the curiosities of the plant world, and only grows native in the peat-bogs on a narrow strip of country on the east coast of North America. The peculiarity of the plant lies in its leaves, for the leaf stalk has become flattened out so as to be leaf-like, while the blade proper is edged with teeth, and has, moreover, six sharp little bristles standing straight up on the surface, three on either side of the midrib. Now, these bristles are the sense organs. Touch one ever so lightly, and the halves of the leaves on which they are placed close up together abruptly, "just like the slamming of a volume," says one observer, the midrib serving as hinge, while the teeth at the edges interlock like clasped fingers.

THE NERVOUS SYSTEM OF PLANTS.

Each of these bristles is made up of long cells filled with the jelly of life (protoplasm). After describing the sensitive plant the *Mimosa pudica*, the writer says:

It appears, then, that plants are not only sensitive to contact, and have special sense organs, but they are also able to transmit a stimulus from one part of their structure to another, as when the whole leaf of *dionea* closes because one bristle is touched, or when all the leaves of *mimosa* droop because one is stimulated. Now, the question arises as to how this stimulus travels.

His answer is, by the continuity of protoplasm, the complete inner structure of which the plant possesses hidden within its outer walls. This is the nervous system of the plant. He concludes:

In the light of these facts, it seems impossible to refuse to acknowledge plants as sentient beings, or to deny that they are capable of experiencing sensations.



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

Social and Political Questions of the Hour.

—Besides the articles on insurance to which reference is made elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, the current magazines have their usual complement of discussion and exposition in the field of applied economics. The *Atlantic Monthly* for November leads off with articles on "Immigration and the South," by Robert De Courcy Ward; "Recent Progress in the Study of Domestic Science," by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon, and "How Statistics Are Manufactured," by William H. Allen.—In *Scribner's*, Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin gives expression to "The Hope for Labor Unions," which he conceives to lie in the policy of productivity, as contrasted with the present unionist principle of a limitation of competitors. He believes that the adoption of this policy would result in higher wages and in permanent progress.—"A Music-School Settlement" is described in *Harper's* by Philip V. Mighels. This school of music for the children of New York's great East Side is one of the most hopeful agencies for social uplift now at work in the metropolis.—In the *Cosmopolitan*, Henry Watterson describes "European Society Contrasted with Ours."—In *Tom Watson's Magazine*, Joseph H. Parsons writes on "The Status of the Negro," setting forth the usual Southern view of the negro's place in the social order and citing much Northern precedent to sustain his position.—"Social Work: A New Profession," is the subject of an article by Robert A. Woods, of South End House, Boston, in the *International Journal of Ethics* for the current quarter.—Prof. John Cummings writes in the *Journal of Political Economy* (University of Chicago) of "The Chicago Teamsters' Strike: A Study in Industrial Democracy."—Municipal ownership is rapidly coming to the front, especially in some of the special quarterlies and reviews. In the *International Quarterly* (New York), "Public Ownership in New York" is discussed by Edward B. Whitney, "The Light and Water Services of New York" by ex-Commissioner Robert Grier Monroe, and "The Chicago Traction Question" by Clarence S. Darrow. Prof. Hugo R. Meyer, of the University of Chicago, contributes to the *Journal of Political Economy* a study of municipal ownership in Great Britain. His conclusions are unfavorable to experiments in this based on British experience.

Current History in the Magazines.—Aside from the article in the *Atlantic Monthly* on "Korea and Manchuria Under the New Treaty," by K. Asakawa, there is hardly a single feature in the November magazines which has any direct reference to the recent sanguinary conflict between Russia and Japan. In *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine* there is published the first of a series of papers by Harold Bolce, entitled "Japan, Our New Rival in the East." These articles are to deal with the future of our commerce with the Orient in the light of the new era for Japan, dating from the conclusion of her war with Russia. The au-

thor, Mr. Bolce, is an official of the Treasury Department at Washington, and the information that he gives in his magazine articles was obtained during a recent trip to China and Japan taken especially for the purpose.—In the *Century*, that great engineering enterprise of our government, the Panama Canal, is the subject of an extremely interesting paper by Mr. William Barclay Parsons, one of the consulting engineers. Mr. Parsons discusses the more important problems confronting the engineers at the outset, especially the Chagres River, the Culebra cut, the matter of sanitation, and the vexed question of sea-level or locks.—In the *Cosmopolitan*, the opposing views regarding the separation of church and state in France are represented by M. Clémenceau, on the part of the government, and by the Marquis de Castellane, who sets forth the orthodox, conservative view.—In *Harper's*, Mr. Henry W. Nevins continues his exposures of the African slave trade of to-day.—"Open Korea by Rail" is the subject of a well-informed paper by Homer B. Hulbert in the *World's Work*.—Dr. Jean B. Charcot gives, in *Harper's*, the second installment of his account of recent Antarctic explorations.—A French naval officer's amusing comments on the recent festivities in England in honor of the French fleet are embodied in a brief article which appears in the November number of the *Grand Magazine* (London).

Nature Notes.—Mr. Henry C. Merwin contributes to the November *Atlantic* one of his characteristic essays on "The Country in November."—The November number of the *Country Calendar* gives the results of a long series of observations by Prof. C. F. Hodge, of Clark University, on the drumming grouse, accompanied by some remarkable photographs of a grouse cock in the acts of "strutting and drumming." Professor Hodge has reared grouse from the egg in order to observe the drumming process, and he concludes that this peculiar sound called "drumming" is made solely by the bird's wings striking the feather cushions of the sides, that it is purely a mate-call, and that the reaction is definitely inherited.—"The Tax We Pay to Insects" is the title of an article contributed by Clifford Howard to *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine* which verges on the sensational. This writer declares that if the destructive insects of the world were to increase tenfold in any one year the human race would go out of existence.—Dr. H. C. McCook writes in *Harper's* on "Insect Herds and Herders," describing many curious customs of ants and other social insects.—President Roosevelt relates, in *Scribner's Magazine*, his wolf-hunting experiences in Oklahoma last spring. The President's article well bears out the characterization of him made by Mr. Grinnell in this month's *Country Calendar* and quoted on page 614 of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. In this, as in many previous instances, the President's writing shows him to be first of all a naturalist.—It has been some time since a month has

gone by without at least one of the popular magazines bringing out an article on Burbank, the California plant wizard. For this month the contribution is by Mr. Garrett P. Serviss, in the *Cosmopolitan*.

Art Topics.—Several articles this month are of architectural interest. In the series on the "Historic Palaces of Paris," in the *Century Magazine*, the German embassy, a finished example of the Empire style, is described this month by Camille Gronkowski.—In *Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*, Mr. Christian Brinton begins a series of illustrated articles on recent college architecture. In this first paper, examples from Prince-

ton and the University of Pennsylvania are described.—In "The Story of American Painting," which Mr. Charles H. Caffin is contributing to the *American Illustrated* (formerly *Leslie's Monthly*), the third paper of the series deals with the beginning of the foreign influence, and especially with the careers of Hunt, Inness, and La Farge.—H. G. Dwight contributes to *Scribner's* a charming article entitled "An Impressionist's New York," with illustrations by Walter Jack Duncan. This paper is a good illustration of the transformation in prosaic materials that is wrought by a touch of artistic imagination. It suggests comparisons between the American metropolis and certain foreign cities.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

A Moslem Grievance.—Ameer Ali, late judge of the High Court, Calcutta, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* (London), indulges in an interesting retrospect of progress in India since the Mutiny. He refers with satisfaction to progress in finance, in revenue, police, taxation, and in other respects. He makes suggestions for the future. Among these are denominational universities, where Hindus, Mohammedans, and Christians could be educated according to their own ethical standards. He does not think that home rule is within the range of practical politics, but urges that Englishmen should expect from their Hindu fellow-subjects more manly comradeship. The special grievance to which the writer refers is one bearing on the Moslem community. It rests on an English misconception and mistranslation of the word "wakf," which is taken to mean charity. It is a legal fiction whereby Mohammedan families have tied up their property and prevented it being divided and subdivided among a number of others. These family benefactions have, however, been set aside, of late, by English law courts, and the ordinary law of dividing the inheritance has been enforced. Ameer Ali asks the legislature to validate by special enactment this particular branch of the Islamic law.

Protection in Germany.—Mr. W. H. Dawson treats, in the *Contemporary Review* (London), of the German workingman and protection. He quotes freely from speeches of working-class representatives in the Reichstag and elsewhere to show the uncompromising hostility of the German labor party to protection in any form or degree. He lays stress on the fact that "this attitude is the clear and unmistakable result of reasoned conviction and of practical experience. Twenty-five years ago, the Socialists held an openness of mind on the fiscal question which would have delighted not a few wavering politicians known to us at home. No inherited preconceptions and no conviction of the inherent reasonableness of free trade prejudiced them against Prince Bismarck's departure from the old tariff." He shows how hardly the rise in the price of food has affected the already meager diet of the German people.

H. G. Wells and the Sociologists.—Dr. Crozier having challenged Mr. Wells to say what he has added to the science of sociology, Mr. Wells, writing in the *Fortnightly Review* (London) for October, answers at once, and finally, "Nothing." He goes on to repeat his thesis that the so-called science of sociology is not a science at all; that Comte, Spencer, Kidd, and Crozier

have furnished interesting intellectual experiments of extraordinarily little permanent value, and that the proper method of approach to sociological questions is the Utopian way of Plato, Moore, and Bacon. He continues: "Dr. Crozier says chiefly that I speak disrespectfully of Comte and Herbert Spencer. There is no denying I do that, and no doubt it will seem very shocking to some of your readers. But it will not continue to be shocking. Both these remarkable products of the nineteenth century justify me by example; they were ridiculously disdainful of Plato; and Herbert Spencer quite preposterously refused to read Kant. The world at large has still to realize how wordy and shallow both these writers were, and the sooner it is shocked into that realization the better. I grew up in the atmosphere of their reputations, and I have had to overcome the prejudices of my type and class in repudiating them. But who could turn repeatedly, as I had to do, from the lean pretentious emptiness of Spencer to the concrete richness, the proliferating suggestions, of Plato and not be forced at last to that admission? I shall count myself fortunate if it is given me in any measure to help rescue sociological questions, the only questions that really interest adult human beings, from the sea of abstractions, from the seas of thinnest intellectual gruel, under which the nineteenth century, so busy and preoccupied about so many things, permitted them to be submerged."

Byzantine Craftsmanship.—Mr. Edwin F. Reynolds begins, in the *Art Journal* (London) for October, a paper on Byzantine craftsmanship. He writes: "The Byzantine craftsman came of Greek blood, and his natural subtlety of discrimination supplied precisely that quality which had been lacking in the more practical and prosaic Roman character.... It is a curious irony of history that the Greek spirit should have removed that burden of Greek forms which had so long oppressed the art of Rome; and the thought naturally turns to compare that early art which raised the perfection of the Parthenon with that later art which inspired the splendor of St. Sophia. But the Byzantine Empire was more complex in racial character than a mere fusion of Greek and Roman elements. It included within its borders much of western Asia, and a tinge of Oriental feeling runs through the warp and woof of its art like a brightly colored thread."

Morocco a New Field for German Enterprise.—In the *Deutsche Rundschau*, Theodor Fischer, in an article entitled "The Economic Significance of Mo-

rocco," discusses the future possibilities of Morocco from the German point of view. He tells us that in the past five or six years Germany has been recognizing the economic significance of Morocco, and he thinks the new understanding between France and Germany promises the dawn of a new era in that country. In his view, German enterprise has a rich future in store, though the initial difficulties to be overcome in opening up the country are very considerable. With regard to the resources of Morocco, the writer thinks they will prove of immense commercial value. The sea fisheries are at present neglected, save for German enterprise. The rivers are known to contain excellent fish, but the fish is at present little used. Certain regions are most favorable to agriculture, and the writer recommends the cultivation of grain and cotton, but even there artificial irrigation would be necessary. So far, practically nothing is known of the mineral resources of Morocco. The trade statistics are not very reliable, but in the last few years it is stated that England has 48 per cent. of the trade of the country. France comes next with 21 per cent., and then Germany with 15 per cent. Germany will find it difficult to compete with England and France. The chief advantages which England enjoys are the cotton industry and her convenient position at Gibraltar. Tea, the national drink, is also entirely in English hands. France supplies nearly all the sugar, and all German attempts with sugar have hitherto failed. Only Belgium may be said to compete with France for the trade in this commodity. The Germans have introduced woolen goods, coffee, metal wares, chemicals, paper, etc., and though German trade with Morocco is more important than the German trade with East Africa, it is as yet nothing compared with the future it may have in store.

Andrew Carnegie Suggests a New Triple Alliance.—An appeal to Frenchmen for a "Franco-English-American Trinity," by Andrew Carnegie, appears in the *Echo de Paris*. After outlining what he regards as the international missions of England and France, Mr. Carnegie says: "England peoples distant climes; France beautifies her own clime like a garden. The first ships away a prodigious quantity of articles of practical utility; the second supplies the world with a thousand and one delicate and inimitable things. England and France are the complements of each other, not the rivals. Not only is there room for both in the world, but the possibility of conflict between them is reduced to a minimum. Each fills a different sphere. Each can sincerely desire the advancement of the other. In short, the two antagonistic powers, escaping from the thralldom of nightmares and hatred, perceive that it is their interest henceforth to esteem each other and to live like good neighbors. . . . The United States, as the son of England and the godson of France, holds these two countries by close bonds. Does one need to be reminded that the good-fellowship that has been established between France and England has warmly interested the American republic? There is not a student of economics, not a politician, who has not made it the object of his meditations. The bare possibility of hostilities between America and France holds, for the future, no place in our range of vision. The shades of Washington and Lafayette would turn such a picture into a crime. Whatever comes, whatever differences may arise between us, will be settled in a friendly way. . . . While France and England are

becoming reconciled, the United States and England will strengthen the bonds which unite them, thanks to the good influence of the late Lord Salisbury and Mr. Chamberlain. . . . Behold, then, the establishment of a trinity of world-dominating nations, sincerely dedicated to safeguarding a lasting peace on the most simple basis—a diversity of paths as distinct as their geographical situation and their ethical genius. You may add to that the similarity of their institutions, based, as they are, upon this identical principle,—the government of the people, for the people, and by the people. This trinity is made up of two republics without crowns and of one crowned republic. As a matter of fact, there are three sister republics existing in the shadow of hereditary dynastic fantasies sufficiently imbued with the rights and duties of the individual to have no fear of the autocratic minority's tyranny. This community of fate ought to serve them most strongly in the steady development of their fortune. And the day will come in the history of the world when a decisive influence might and should be exercised by the concerted action of the three brother-peoples."

Marriage and Divorce in China.—In *La Revue*, Paul d'Enjoy concludes his articles on the marriage laws of China, which appear to resemble those of Japan very much. The last installment deals with divorce. Repudiation of the legal wife by the husband may be exercised in case of sterility, misconduct, lack of respect toward the husband's parents, slander, theft, or jealousy. A divorced woman is free to marry again. She may also appeal to the mandarin of the place against the decision if there has been any abuse of authority or violation of the law on the part of the husband, who may be punished with eighty stripes and compelled to take back his wife. Divorce by mutual consent takes place for incompatibility of temperament, and when the husband and wife both desire a separation. Optional divorce takes place when the husband or the legal wife leaves the conjugal home. The legal wife who leaves the conjugal home commits a fault which is punished by a hundred stripes. In this case the husband has the right either to take her back or to take advantage of divorce to separate from her. He may also give her in marriage to any one he pleases. The woman who marries again of her own accord, after her flight and before divorce, is punished by strangulation,—the punishment reserved for the adulteress. When it is the husband who has deserted the conjugal home, the legal wife must wait till three years have passed without news of him before she can divorce him, and this divorce must be authorized by the mandarin. The woman may then marry again. If the legal wife does not wait for three years, but also leaves the conjugal home, she receives eighty stripes, and if she marries again, a hundred stripes. Divorce is compulsory for adultery on the part of the wife, for blows inflicted by the wife on her husband, or for blows inflicted by the husband on the wife, when serious wounds or permanent injuries have been the result, such as fractures, the loss of an eye or of a limb.

The Make-Up of Drinking Water.—Few of the nutritive elements within our reach answer to the exigencies of alimentation, and still fewer are favorably received by the digestive organs. Chemically pure water, as furnished by the most careful distillation, is

far from being an agreeable drink; and as much may be said of rain water and water boiled until it is hygienic,—the water thus prepared is vapid, even when iced. To be actually potable, says a scientific writer in the *Revue de Belgique*, the condensed product of the clouds ought to penetrate the earth and dissolve, in its passage, certain health-giving salts, notably carbonate of lime drawn from the rock. After running under ground and gathering the elements necessary to man's growth and nourishment there, water should regain the surface of the earth and take in a charge of oxygen by coming in contact with the atmospheric air. Aëration cannot be too great; it can never exceed the demands of the human body,—not to say of the animal. The normal proportion of calcareous principles may be exceeded, or saline principles may be mingled with it. In the latter case, the water loses its hygienic qualities and becomes nothing but a medicinal water. But the real danger is the contamination due to the atmosphere or to the soil through which the water runs,—soil poisoned either by decomposed animal or vegetable matter. The danger from microbes is still greater. Organic *débris* communicates a color (generally yellow or brown) and a more or less suspicious odor; but, generally speaking, infectious germs change neither the color nor the taste of the liquid. Limpid and to all appearances absolutely pure water may swarm with microbes, and when it is reduced by tests its precipitate may be more fertile than the slimy bed of a sewer. Our only safeguard against such danger is the projected optical instruments now in use and still to be used, aniline re-actives, careful analyses and studied cultures of the bacilli as yet undiscovered or unrecognized. We shall be in danger until we know all the bacilli and just where to find them.

Effect of the Russo-Japanese War on Some Commercial Products.—Formosa makes Japan the most important producer of camphor in the far East, and as camphor plays a considerable part in the world's manipulation of picric acid, an article in demand for the manufacture of explosives for war, it is easy to understand why Japan holds up her production, says the *Illustration*, of Paris. Camphor is now so scarce that it can hardly be considered a commercial item. The war has raised the price of another product—the bark of the black alder, an article valued (aside from its medicinal properties) as necessary for the manufacture of smokeless powder. It is very strong and tough, and when powdered it coarsely divides into separated fibers which serve as supports for explosive matters (as hair serves in making plaster). Having been powdered in coarse grains, the fibers are soaked in picric acid in fusion, and after a few simple operations smokeless powder is produced. Naturally, the Russians and the Japanese have bought up all the black alder bark within reach, and Austria is now the only place in which it is possible to procure it at a price within reach of the ordinary consumer.

Disproving an Accepted Theory.—The *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) mentions in a scientific note an experiment by Lefèvre which goes against the accepted belief that carbon dioxide is essential to the growth of green plants. He has succeeded perfectly in growing water cress under a bell in atmosphere and soil absolutely devoid of carbon dioxide, but furnished with suitable hydro-carbonate substances.

Swiss Alcohol Monopoly Reduces Drinking.—The government monopoly of the liquor traffic in Switzerland has met the wishes of the legislators, says the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence). The consumption of alcohol has been reduced from 6.27 liters to about four liters per head. Ten per cent. of the net profit of the monopoly is given to the cantons, provided they devote it to measures repressive of drunkenness. The cantons have been so zealous in reform that they have spent this tithe and more in the work.

A Useful New Scientific Instrument.—In the popular Spanish magazine *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) is a description of a most useful new scientific instrument invented by Prof. Aurelio de Gasparis, of the University of Naples, together with curious photographs of live insects obtained by its aid. The instrument, called a bioscope, might be likened to a telescope applied to minute objects. It is a microscope of great focal distance. It consists of a tube inclosing a system of objectives absolutely free from spheroidal aberration, provided with an eye-piece of extensive field and a camera lucida for drawing observed objects. There is also a system of measuring-scales. At a distance of fifty centimeters (nineteen inches) the instrument gives an object the appearance of one hundred and forty-four times its real surface. Through it one may observe the actions of flies and spiders in their deadly struggles, the wounds inflicted in ants' battles, and the workings of the internal organs of insects. The bioscope is adapted, also, to physicians' use in examining the larynx, the ears, or other faintly illuminated cavities, making more accurate diagnoses possible.

The Average Heights of Europeans.—According to a report of the anthropometric commission of the British Medical Association, as set forth in the *Illustration*, of Paris, following are the average heights of the different European peoples. The meter, it will be remembered, is equal to thirty-nine inches. English and Norwegian, 1.70 meters; Danish and Hollanders, 1.67 meters; Swiss, Russians, Belgians, 1.66 meters; Germans, 1.66 meters; Italians, Spanish, French, 1.63 meters; Hungarians, 1.649 meters.

A New Treatment for Broken Bones.—Dr. J. L. Championnière, to whom the world is indebted for an entirely new method of setting broken bones, recently declared: "I have proved that the ancient principle of immobility in fractures is wrong. Bones do not escape the law common to all the elements of the human organism. Despite their rigidity, they need movement, and when broken, if set, they must have movement to reach the maximum of vitality demanded for their recovery. After an experience of a quarter of a century, Dr. Championnière, says Henri de Parville, writing in the *Annales*, has discovered another and a better way, comprising a certain amount of mobility of the fracture with a very precisely ordered and special massage, quite unlike the maneuvers known as "massage" by professional masseurs. The massage recommended is very gentle, very progressive, and very systematic, and its effect is not painful or exciting, but anæsthetic. Combined with methodical movement of the broken bones, it brings about several very different but very beneficial results, notably, gain in time in the formation of tissue, freedom from symptoms of atrophy, and a notable lessening of pain. To resume, the special benefits

noted by the discoverer of this method are,—first, a very considerable abbreviation of the duration of time required for the healing of the lesion or lesions, and a rapid suppression of pain, even when the fracture involves the joints of the elbow, the superior and inferior fractures of the humerus, the majority of fractures of the radius, fracture of the two bones of the forearm, of all the bones of the hands and feet, and also fractures of the clavicles, scapula, femur, knee, etc. The discovery is important by the fact that it is of interest to one-fourth of the total number of invalids demanding treatment by doctors, one-fourth being the proportion of persons suffering from fractures, compound or otherwise.

Proposes an Art Exposition in Classic Rome.—The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) has a brief article, signed "Faoldo," proposing an exposition in Rome in 1911, coinciding with the inauguration of the colossal monument to Victor Emmanuel II., so many years in building. The writer says Rome could not hope to excel in a commercial exposition, but should make one purely artistic. The site, he affirms, should include the Forum, the Colosseum, the Palatine Hill, the Circus Maximus, the Baths of Caracalla, and the Aventine Hill as far as St. Paul's Gate. Vineyards and orchards on the Aventine should give way to gardens surrounding the palaces for modern painting and sculpture. The cloisters of the churches of St. Saba, St. Alessio, and St. Sabina would serve for sacred art. Galleries for ancient art should rise on the Aventine, with terraces looking on the Tiber and the Alban Hills. All structures should bear the highest artistic impress and be in keeping with their classic surroundings. Thus, it would be fitting to have a monumental portal to the Aventine, a boulevard from the Arch of Constantine and the Circus Maximus, and another from the Circus to the Catacombs and the Appian tombs, touching the Baths of Caracalla. Rightly carried out, such landscape gardening in such surroundings would remain forever to enhance the attraction they have for all the world. Two things are necessary, the writer says, to make it feasible,—forty million francs and a genius. The money might be raised, in view of the almost certain returns from tourist visits. The genius is harder to find, but not impossible.

The Care of Deaf-Mutes in Europe.—In an article in the *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) by Manuel Carretaro it is stated that of 10,880 deaf-mutes in Spain only 414 are receiving instruction, the other ten thousand being left in complete idiocy. There are only 371 blind being educated. Nevertheless, it was a Spanish Benedictine monk, Pedro Ponce de Leon, who died in 1584, who first successfully taught deaf-mutes, and his successor, Juan Pablo Bonet, published the first book on the subject, in 1620. From a table given in this article it is shown that Germany has the most institutions for these unfortunates, 96, with the United States next,

with 73, and France third, with 70. The United States has nearly twice as many pupils as Germany, 8,372 to 4,133, and has 606 instructors, as against Germany's 563. In the number of deaf-mutes in proportion to the population, Switzerland leads greatly, having 24.52 per 10,000, while the other countries follow thus: Austria, 13.45; Sweden, 11.80; Russia, 9.90; Norway, 9.81; Germany, 9.66; Ireland, 8.25; Italy, 7.34; Spain, 6.46; France, 6.26; Denmark, 6.20; England, 5.75, and Belgium, 4.89.

Patriotism in French Schools.—This subject is considered at length by Mr. Georges Goyau in two successive numbers of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He tells how patriotism is regularly taught in the German schools. Two or three times a week there is a lesson in "Heimatkunde." It is not a lesson in geography or in history, and yet it is a lesson in both, and something more. The German school is national by tradition. In Japan, England, and the United States, patriotism as a school subject is a novelty of recent years. According to Paul Bert and Jules Ferry, the school ought to serve as an introduction to the army. How does France stand in this matter? asks Mr. Goyau.

Union of French Socialist Bodies.—In a long article in the Dutch review *Vragen des Tijds*, the history of Socialist groups in France is given. The Socialists of the French republic have agreed to combine in one great association, and the minor clubs and societies will vanish. This, says the writer, is a great step in advance, and leads to a sketch of the Blanquists and other groups that were prominent in France at various times.

The International Position of Italy.—The anonymous political contributor of the *Nuova Antologia* writes in a very pessimistic mood of the present position of Italy in regard to international politics. Italy, he declares, is the only great power that has not been able to make its influence felt in the peace negotiations between Russia and Japan, and, at the same time, she is directly menaced by any French and German disagreement over Morocco. But a still worse danger threatens her in the possibility of a conflict between England and Germany, for the foreign policy of Italy has a twofold traditional basis,—alliance with Germany over Continental questions, and a friendly understanding with England over all Mediterranean matters.

The Late Flowering of Music.—A French student, Arthur Coquard, who is writing a book on the history of music, contributes a brief survey on the subject to the *Correspondant*. He asserts that music was the first-born of the arts, and he asks why should it have been the last to bloom, attaining its complete development only at a comparatively recent date, whereas sculpture, architecture, and even painting have long ago attained perfection.



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

ONE of the few really remarkable books of the year is Dr. C. G. Schilling's "With Flashlight and Rifle" (Harpers), edited and translated from the German by Dr. Henry Zick and illustrated from photographs taken by the author. These pictures and the accompanying text all have to do with wild-animal life in equatorial Africa. Many of the photographs were taken by flashlight, at night. They have been reproduced from the original plates without any attempt at retouching. Naturalists have said of these photographs that they reveal to us the most intimate life of the animals, which no human eye had ever before witnessed. Dr. Schilling is himself a naturalist of eminence, and his comments on the habits of the wild animals which he studied in the African wilderness are exceedingly valuable. The lion, the elephant, the zebra, the rhinoceros, and the hippopotamus, with many other native species, have become to him as common and as companionable as the gray squirrels are with us.

A bit of description of personal experiences in Jerusalem and throughout the Holy Land, told in the language of a devout woman of artistic insight, is Mme. Hyacinthe Loyson's "To Jerusalem through the Land of Islam" (Open Court Publishing Company). Mme. Loyson lived and loved and worked among Jews, Christians, and Moslems, and her style is saturated with Christian devotion.

"Two Bird-Lovers in Mexico" is the title given to an interesting volume by C. William Beebe, curator of ornithology of the New York Zoölogical Park (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In this volume Mr. Beebe tells of a journey with his wife across Mexico from Vera Cruz to the Pacific and back, covering a period of three or four months during the winter-time. The author devoted considerable attention to other forms of animal life than birds. In the last chapter, which is contributed by Mrs. Beebe, there are practical suggestions to those who wish to take such a trip as is here described, relating to the questions of supplies, clothing, and so forth. The appendix gives a list of the birds and mammals observed. The volume is illustrated from photographs taken during the trip.

Another of Mr. William Eleroy Curtis' encyclopædic but entertaining books is entitled "Modern India" (Revell). This volume contains a series of letters written by Mr. Curtis for the Chicago *Record-Herald* during the winter of 1903-04. It contains a wealth of carefully gathered and sifted information upon almost every topic concerning which any student of Indian affairs of the present day would desire to be informed. The chapter on "American Missions in India" is

especially complimentary to the work of Dr. Robert A. Hume and his efficient colleagues. The book is dedicated to Lady Curzon,—“an ideal American woman.”

A description of French domestic life and conditions which is written with sympathy and enthusiasm is Miss

Betham-Edwards' "Home Life in France" (McClurg). Miss Betham-Edwards, it will be remembered, is an officer of public instruction in France, and has lived among the French people for many years. This volume is illustrated.

Readers of Mr. Jones' account of "Rural Ireland as It Is To-Day," in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, will find an entertain-

ing study of the Emerald Isle from a different point of view in Mr. T. W. H. Crosland's little volume entitled "The Wild Irishman" (Appletons). This writer names the potato, the Scotch, and Dublin Castle as "the three bitter curses which have brought the Irish people to the ghastliest social and political passes. All three are ineradicable, but they may be mitigated. This is what Ireland wants."

A NEW BOOK ABOUT RUSSIA.

The text of Prof. Paul Milyoukov's indictment of Russia, in his recently published book "Russia and Its

Crisis" (University of Chicago Press), is found in an old French phrase: "Too feeble to govern, and yet too strong to submit to being governed." This is the fault of the Russian autocracy and of the Russian Czar. Professor Milyoukov's book consists of his lectures on Russian civilization delivered during the summer of 1903 at the University of Chicago, on the Crane Foundation. To these have

been added several other lectures on the Russian crisis delivered at the Lowell Institute, in Boston, 1904. The whole has been thoroughly revised and brought down to the middle of the past summer. There were two names in Russia that characterized the two



MISS BETHAM-EDWARDS.



MME. HYACINTHE LOYSON.



PAUL MILYUKOV.

kinds of life which are struggling for mastery in the empire,—Plehve is official Russia, "an anachronism deeply rooted in the past, and defended in the present by an omnipotent bureaucracy;" the other, Tolstol, is "the Russia of the future, of the people, of the intellect, of the Muscovites." "Russia and Its Crisis" is a very valuable addition to the literature on the subject of Russian conditions. The book is provided with a number of maps.

BOOKS ON ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL PROBLEMS.

It will be remembered that some of the most interesting testimony given at the hearings of the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce last spring was offered by Prof. Hugo R. Meyer, of the University of Chicago, who addressed the committee on the subject of government regulation of railroad rates. In a volume just published by the Macmillan Company, Professor Meyer gives the results of twelve years' study of the experience of the United States, Germany, France, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Australia in dealing with this intricate problem. Professor Meyer states that he entered on his inquiry with a strong bias in favor of state intervention, but that as he proceeded with the investigation he became firmly convinced of the unwisdom of government regulation of railways and railway rates. Apart from the matter of personal opinion on this subject, however, Professor Meyer's book contains much valuable material, which is summarized in a way that cannot fail to interest all students of the railroad question, whatever may be their views as to the expediency of federal legislation. The second part of the work, which is devoted to the United States exclusively, includes a full exposition of the more important decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission.



PROF. HUGO R. MEYER.

The present widespread interest in the question of railroad regulation makes timely the volume entitled "Restrictive Railway Legislation," by Henry S. Haines (Macmillan). Mr. Haines, besides being an eminent engineer, has served as vice-president and general manager of the Plant system of railroad and steamship lines, and also as commissioner of the Southern States Freight Association, and is qualified to write ably and instructively on railroad topics. The present volume contains interesting chapters on railroad traffic, rate-making, the regulation of rates, State railroad commissions, and pending legislation affecting interstate commerce.

A little pamphlet bearing the title "For the Railroads" has been written and published by H. T. Newcomb (Bond Building, Washington, D. C.). Within the space of less than two hundred small pages, Mr. Newcomb has compressed an immense amount of material bearing on the question of federal regulation of railroads.

One of the excellent and useful volumes lately contributed to the Citizen's Library (Macmillan) is Prof. Henry C. Taylor's "Introduction to the Study of Agricultural Economics." The very fact that such a book should be published is itself evidence of a new stage in American industrial development. The farmers of our country have been brought into close economic relations with those engaged in other industries, so that in a sense the farmer has become dependent upon the manufacturer, the merchant, and the commercial carrier. This fact has led to a more minute study of the economic basis of farming, which has been recognized in the establishment of professorships in several of our agricultural colleges and State universities. The present work may be regarded as a development along this line.

A valuable "Industrial History of the United States" has been written for use in high schools and colleges by Prof. Katharine Coman, of Wellesley College (Macmillan). While it is impossible for a one-volume work of this character to treat of every phase of our economic history in detail, the numerous marginal references enable the student to investigate for himself, while the essential elements of the story are clearly presented. The book as a whole is a model of clear statement and systematized information.

In "The City, the Hope of Democracy" (Scribners), Mr. Frederick C. Howe, of Cleveland, attempts a novel interpretation of municipal problems. Departing some-

what from the ordinary point of view adopted by writers on municipal institutions, Mr. Howe ascribes most of the ills to which the American city is heir to economic and industrial rather than to political or ethical causes. Instead of the city being controlled by a charter, the suffrage, or other purely political institutions, Mr. Howe has become convinced that it is the economic environment which creates



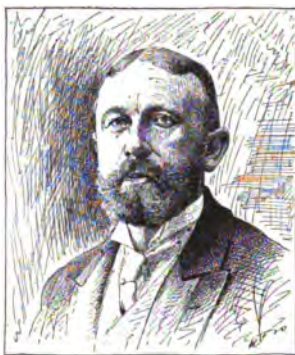
FREDERICK C. HOWE

and controls man's activities as well as his attitude of mind. In the economic motive he finds an explanation of the "activity and the apathy, the heavy burden on reform, and the distrust of democracy." Most municipal reformers have been content to accept the personal explanation of all the evils of which they complain. The effort has been to improve the individual man by education or by charity, not to improve the city by a change in industrial policy. Mr. Howe's remedy for the present evil conditions consists in offering opportunity to labor, in taxing monopoly, and in the abolition of privilege. His book is a frank discussion of municipal problems as they are actually encountered in the more typical of our American cities. The prevailing note is one of optimism.

The Committee of Fifty for the Investigation of the Liquor Problem, which was organized in 1893, has published a brief and convenient summary of its investigations, prepared by John S. Billings, Charles W.

Elliott, Henry W. Farnam, Jacob L. Greene, and Francis G. Peabody (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It has been the purpose of this committee to collect and collate, impartially, all accessible facts which bear upon the liquor problem, in order that some consensus of competent opinion might be reached that would provide a starting-point "for a rational and trustworthy method of action." Reports of its sub-committees have been published in four volumes, under the titles "The Physiological Aspects of the Liquor Problem," "The Liquor Problem in Its Legislative Aspects," "Economic Aspects of the Liquor Problem," and "Substitutes for the Saloon." A summary of the conclusions reached by these various sub-committees, as set forth in their respective reports, has been prepared for the present volume.

Mr. William E. Smythe, who has written much on the subject of irrigation in the West, is the author of a new book entitled "Constructive Democracy: The Economics of a Square Deal" (Macmillan). As remedies for present industrial evils Mr. Smythe advocates in this volume Senator Newlands' plan of railroad consolidation under government regulation, Mr. Garfield's plan to require all corporations engaged in interstate commerce to take out a federal license and so come under federal supervision, and, finally, a system of national irrigation for the development of our unused lands. Mr. Smythe makes a good presentation of these propositions, and in discussing the irrigation question especially he is quite at home. His book impresses one as the work of a keen observer of modern industrial life and a thoughtful student of its problems.



WILLIAM E. SMYTHE.

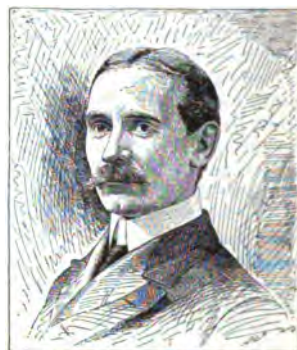
"Plunkitt of Tammany Hall" is the title of a series of plain talks on practical politics delivered by ex-Senator George Washington Plunkitt from his rostrum, the New York County Court House bootblack stand, and recorded by William L. Riordon (McClure, Phillips & Co.). These utterances as reported by Mr. Riordon in several of the New York newspapers have attracted unusual attention, because they have been recognized and accepted at once as the frank self-revelations of a typical Tammany politician. Now that they have attained the dignity of publication in book form, they are likely to be read, not only by New Yorkers, but by Americans everywhere, to whom the mystery of New York politics has a lasting fascination. Especially is there food for reflection in the ex-Senator's chapter on "Honest and Dishonest Graft." One who masters the philosophy of these charming discourses will have mastered the whole secret of New York metropolitan politics,—Tammany's secret.

"Uncle Sam and His Children" is the title given to a volume prepared by Judson Wade Shaw, the field secretary of the Young Citizens' Loyal League (Barnes). In prosecuting the work of his organization Mr. Shaw found everywhere a demand for a book that should not

simply outline the machinery of government, but should emphasize its special advantages and the duty of citizens in the use of their privileges. He has, accordingly, embodied in the present volume an account of the struggles through which the founders of the country passed, a statement of the principles that actuated them, an outline of our territory and its resources, and some discussion of the perils that threaten us and how to meet and escape them. In short, his book is a sort of elementary manual of American good-citizenship.

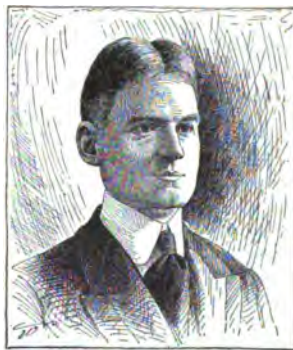
COLONIAL TOPICS.

Prof. Paul S. Reinsch contributes to "The Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology" (Macmillan) a volume on "Colonial Administration," which is rather a statement of the various problems confronting colonial governments, and an indication of the main lines of solution that have been attempted, than a complete and conclusive discussion of the principles involved. The book gives in small compass a broad survey of the most important activities of modern colonial governments, and deals with the facts of colonial administration rather than with the underlying philosophy. Such topics as education; finance; commerce; currency; banking, and credit; agriculture; the land policy; and the labor question are tersely and instructively discussed.



PROF. PAUL S. REINSCH.

Of recent publications on the Philippines, one of the most useful from the point of view of the general reader is the work by Fred W. Atkinson, who was the first general superintendent of education in the islands (Ginn & Co.). While engaged in the administration of his office, Mr. Atkinson visited nearly every part of the archipelago, and enjoyed unusual opportunities for learning actual conditions in the islands. In addition to the information acquired in interviews with prominent natives and correspondence with American officials, Mr. Atkinson was enabled, by investigations in Java, China, Japan, and India, to institute comparisons which make his present work more valuable. It has been his endeavor in this volume to exhibit the real conditions in our Philippine possessions,—geographical, economic, social, and political, including a detailed study of the characteristics of the Filipinos themselves.



PROF. FRED W. ATKINSON.

In "Our Philippine Problem," by Henry Parker Willis (Holt), will be found an avowedly hostile criticism of the American policy in the islands. The writer spent several months during 1904 in the Philippines, traveling about twenty-seven hundred miles outside of Manila, through the provinces of central Luzon and in



BAYARD TAYLOR.

some of the southern islands. His opinions of the working of our governmental institutions in the islands had been formed before he made this brief tour of observation, while he was an editorial writer on the *New York Evening Post* and Washington correspondent of the *Springfield Republican*. The material that he gathered in the archipelago was utilized to some extent in the campaign of Judge Parker for the Presidency, but we believe that this is the first complete presentation of Mr. Willis' case against the government.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE.

"Cambridge Sketches" is the title given to a series of personal reminiscences of distinguished citizens of Cambridge, Mass., by Frank Preston Stearns (Lippincott). Among the personalities thus sketched are Prof. Francis J. Childs, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, James Russell Lowell, C. P. Cranch, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Charles Sumner, Chevalier Howe, Gov. John A. Andrew, Elizur Wright, and W. T. G. Morton. Some of these names have attained a wider celebrity than others, but, as Mr. Stearns remarks in his preface, they all deserve well of the republic of humanity and of the age in which they lived.

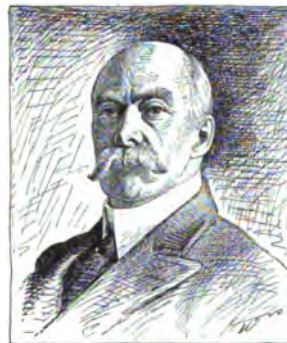
The widow of Bayard Taylor has written a book of recollections bearing the title "On Two Continents: Memories of Half a Century" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), in which are recorded many entertaining reminiscences of the American journalist, author, and diplomat, whose life was so closely associated with many of the most eminent Americans of his day. Almost all of Taylor's associates among the literary men of New York have

passed away. There were Richard Henry Stoddard, George William Curtis, Charles A. Dana, Horace Greeley, and William Cullen Bryant, not to mention a score of lesser lights, while of all the names mentioned in these reminiscences we recognize only those of Edmund Clarence Stedman and Thomas Bailey Aldrich as living to-day. Among the intimate friends of Taylor in the latter years of his life was Sidney Lanier, whose portrait has a place in the present volume.

In the "Lives of Great Writers" series (Barnes), written by Tudor Jenks, the third volume is entitled "In the Days of Milton." The point is well taken by Mr. Jenks that the England of John Milton is the England from which our own America drew its life, and that, hence, to know our own history we must know the England of that age. This little book is a story of the times of Milton, not merely a record of his own personality. It will be found extremely helpful to an understanding of the Puritan period in English history. One thing to be said of all the books of the present series is that they have a distinct point of view in the human interest of their subjects rather than in purely literary criticism.

BOOKS ADDRESSED TO YOUNG MEN.

Senator Beveridge always puts the qualities of force and imagination into everything that he says, and he has managed to write some papers for young men that are far from commonplace, while hard-headed, practical, and uplifting. Mr. Beveridge has made his own way in the world with frankness and courage, and young men will recognize what he says as having the genuine ring. His papers in the *Saturday Evening Post* were widely read, and, as revised and developed in "The Young Man and the World" (Appletons), they will not only have a present use, but will occupy a permanent place with books of their general character.



DR. ORISON SWETT MARDEN.

Another of Dr. Orison Swett Marden's books of encouragement for young people is "The Making of a Man" (Lothrop). Dr. Marden has already scored the success which comes of helping others in a number of books, the best known of which are "Stepping Stones," "Stepping to the Front," "Winning Out," and others. Dr. Marden's style is full of inspiration and suggestion.

William Mathews' book, "Getting On in the World," which was published thirty years ago, had great success. He has lately written a similar volume entitled "Conquering Success" (Houghton, Mifflin), also addressed to young men on the threshold of life, and written with all the author's old-time earnestness and enthusiasm. It is equipped with a wealth of anecdote and example which makes it an interesting as well as a helpful book.

"Business Philosophy" is a little volume of practical suggestions, written from personal experiences, by Benjamin F. Cobb. It is published by Crowell.

A HISTORY OF EDUCATION.

Prof. Paul Monroe's new "Text-Book in the History of Education" (Macmillan) contains far more material than has been incorporated in earlier text-books on this subject. The author undertakes especially to make evident the relation between educational development and other aspects of the history of civilization, to deal with educational tendencies rather than with men, to show the connection between educational theory and actual school work in its historical development, and to suggest relations with present educational work. So full are the lists of references for wider reading that the student provided with this book is equipped for as thorough investigation of the subject as ordinary circumstances will permit. The work is broad in range, and provides an immense accumulation of data.



PROF. PAUL MONROE.

BOOKS ABOUT THE HORSE.

Mr. John Gilmer Speed's interesting treatise on "The Horse in America" (McClure, Phillips & Co.) gives a great deal of information about the various equine types common in the United States. Mr. Speed is merciless in exposing false pedigrees. Some of his comments on the origins of famous breeds of American horses will probably be unpalatable to partisans of this or that great name in the horse world. Yet on the whole the book is reassuring to the breeder and admirer of horses. It points out the characteristics of the true thoroughbred with the unerring skill of the expert.

The volume in the "American Sportsman's Library" (Macmillan) entitled "Riding and Driving" really consists of two distinct treatises, each complete in itself. The chapters on the saddle horse, his breeding, care, and use, were written by Edward L. Anderson, the author of "Modern Horsemanship," while those relating to driving were contributed by Price Collier, a recognized expert. Both writers offer many helpful suggestions to the amateur, and not a few hints that any owner of horses may find acceptable.

THE FINE ARTS.

Mr. Charles H. Caffin, who has already done so much to make helpfully interesting the study of graphic and plastic art, has brought out (Century) "How to Study Pictures." The whole field of painting is surveyed, and a number of the most significant paintings, from Cimabue to Monet, are compared, with historical summaries and appreciations of the painters' motives and methods. The book is quite voluminous, containing more than five hundred pages, including fifty-six reproductions of well-known paintings. Mr. Caffin's aim has been to make us able to say, not only "I know what I like," but "I know *why* I like it."

A critical survey of "The Art of the National Gallery," being a critical survey of the schools and painters

as represented in the British collection, has been prepared by Julia de Wolf Addison and published by L. C. Page & Co. This is one of a series on the art galleries of Europe. Reproductions of most of the famous masters in the British Gallery complete this volume, which is very attractively printed.

In "The Art of James McNeill Whistler" (Macmillan), Messrs. T. R. Way and G. R. Dennis endeavor to point out as simply as possible, and without any unnecessary technicalities, the characteristics of Whistler's works. The short biographical chapter prefixed to this appreciation gives only the dates of certain important events in Whistler's career, avoiding personal matters. The authors have deliberately excluded anecdotes. The volume is illustrated from photographic reproductions of several of the most famous of Whistler's paintings.

LITERARY MISCELLANY.

A number of literary texts, edited and annotated for use in the schools, have been recently issued by Henry Holt & Co. Among the French texts are the "Waterloo" of Erckmann-Chatrian, abbreviated and annotated by Victor E. François; Alphonse Daudet's "Robert Helmont," edited, with introduction, by W. O. Farnsworth, and Anatole France's "Le Livre de Mon Ami," edited by O. G. Guerlac; two of the German texts are Schiller's "Der Dreissigjährige Krieg," edited by Arthur H. Palmer, and "Two German Tales" (Goethe's "Die Neue Melusine" and Zschokke's "Der Tote Gast"), edited by A. B. Nichols, and the English text (one of the Temple School Shakespeare series) being the play "King Henry V.," with notes and introduction by W. H. Hudson.

A quaint little volume is "The Only True Mother Goose Melodies" (Lee & Shepard), which is a reprint, "without addition or abridgment, also a life of the Goose family," from the original edition of 1833, published in Boston by Munroe & Francis. There is an introduction by Edward Everett Hale, and the quaint old blackwood cuts, which have delighted thousands of children for three or four generations, are reproduced.

An anthology of satire has been compiled by that industrious anthology-maker, Miss Carolyn Wells. This "Satire Anthology" (Scribners) contains most of the representative and well-known bits of this sort of literature. We do not write satire so much as did our fathers, says Miss Wells in her introduction, probably because "fads and foibles follow one another so quickly that we have neither time to write nor read satiric disquisitions about them."

"Catchwords of Cheer" is a collection of bright, comforting, helpful sayings, compiled by Sara A. Hubbard (McClurg). The first thought quoted, which gives the keynote of the collection, is Carlyle's dictum: "A friendly thought is the purest gift a man can afford to man."

We do not suppose that a collector of books ever entered deliberately on his career with any studied plan, but if such were the case he would find extremely useful for his purposes a little book recently written by Mr. J. Herbert Slater, the experienced English collector (Macmillan). This treatise, entitled "How to Collect Books," is a handbook intended to illuminate the simple phases of the study. Authorities are freely quoted, and the zealous collector is aided in various ways, both by precept and example.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE NEW KING AND QUEEN OF NORWAY AND THEIR SON,
PRINCE ALEXANDER.

(Prince Charles of Denmark, son of the Danish Crown Prince Charles, who has just been elected King of Norway by a large popular majority, was married in 1896 to Princess Maud Alexandra, youngest daughter of King Edward of England. Their little son, Alexander, who was born in 1903, is now heir-apparent to the Norwegian throne. The new King will reign as Haakon VII. For a sketch of the new King's career, see article on page 708 of this issue.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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No. 6.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*For
Freedom in
the World.*

The eternal struggle for justice and fair play goes steadily forward in the world, even in times when its manifestations are obscure. There are, however, times like the present when this great movement shows itself in bold forms and in objective things that give the historian his fixed dates and his striking incidents. When we look back to the period of the American and French revolutions, we can see clearly that the Western world was moved by a connected chain of influences. And so at the present time events in one part of the world bear a real and important relationship to events elsewhere. The most colossal of all recent or current matters is the uprising of the subjects of the Russian Emperor against the tyranny of the system that their intelligence has outgrown. Under Count Witte's advice, the Czar has granted freedom of speech, of the press, and of assemblage, with the beginnings of representative government, and other rights and privileges that belong to modern peoples. The Finns have won back their prized institutions of local self-government. Whether or not Russia will now settle down for a time, and learn how to use these great grants of liberty, remains to be seen. It is to be feared that the spirit of revolution cannot so readily be calmed. No one can foresee what will happen.

*Revolt
in
America.*

Meanwhile the political struggle that has been going on in the United States is, fundamentally, part and parcel of the same movement that has stirred up the Poles, the Finns, the Russian Jews, and great masses of the Muscovite peasantry. There are hundreds of thousands of men in this country who know in their own experience that the boss system in our politics has curtailed freedom of speech and of the press, and has reduced to a sham and a mockery the most sacred rights guaranteed by our constitutions. Thousands of citizens know that the boss system,—controlling legislation and governmental action through

alliance with powerful corporations,—has damaged them in their business interests and has denied them all redress. There is, indeed, much more excuse for Russians who submit to the well-meaning rule of an hereditary Czar than for Americans who allow themselves to be governed by a Charlie Murphy, of Tammany, or a George B. Cox, of Cincinnati. It is for the Russians to acquire the forms of liberty and the institutions of modern self-government. It is for the Americans not to lose the substance of liberty while keeping the forms, and not to exhibit themselves before a jeering world as incapable of governing themselves by the methods which their democratic institutions provide.

*Rooseveltian
Victories.*

President Roosevelt came into office on a great tidal wave of demand for a new era of real freedom and vitality in our institutions of politics and government. This year's elections, which have been chiefly local and municipal, show clearly that the people have not repented of their action last year, and that they propose to continue thinking and acting for themselves. All the bosses in the country were, at one time, in league to prevent the renomination of President Roosevelt. They surrendered only when they saw that they were beaten. The fight against bosses this year, even where it led to Democratic victories, has been Rooseveltian in its spirit, and will make for support of the President in the policies that he will this winter urge upon Congress.

*Public Issues
on Their
Merits.*

One of the chief aims of party machines has been to present public issues to the people in such form as to make it difficult to deal with them upon their intrinsic merits. An important part of the movement of the people for emancipation from the tyranny of crystallized party organizations has been the separation of local from general elections. Thus, until a few years ago municipal elections in New York were held along with

State, Congressional, and national elections. Under those circumstances, it was well-nigh impossible to fight municipal campaigns upon questions relating to the affairs of the community. While municipal elections continue to be held in November in the State of New York, the Constitutional Convention of 1894 made careful provision for the holding of the municipal elections in the odd years rather than in the even years, when State and national elections are pending. The Hon. Joseph H. Choate and the Hon. Elihu Root were the leaders in that Constitutional Convention, and to them is largely due the bringing about of one of the essential conditions under which the great forces making for municipal progress have been able to accomplish so much in the metropolis during the past few years. With State and national tickets in the field, the municipal questions have a tendency to become obscured; and candidates for local offices are elected by partisan voters, who mark a cross at the top of their respective party columns over the names of Presidential electors, governors, and State officers.

The New York Election. It was a great disappointment to thousands of progressive citizens this year that the elements opposed to Tammany Hall failed to unite upon a common ticket and platform; but although the fusion conferences had failed to bring about an agreement, it was impossible for party organizations to hold the voters in line. Tammany never worked harder in all its history, and never had so strong a pecuniary backing. Yet its vote was split, and seemingly more than half of its normal support went over to the ticket headed by Mr. William R. Hearst on the municipal ownership platform. As for the Republicans, although they had eventually put an excellent ticket in the field,—and although Mr. William M. Ivins, as the Republican candidate for mayor, had made a brilliant and notable personal campaign,—the Republican voters did not rally squarely to the support of their ticket, but were so badly divided that Mr. Ivins probably did not receive much more than half of the normal Republican vote that he had counted upon. Of the remaining half of the Republican vote, a part went to Mr. Hearst by way of a general protest against bossism and corporation influence, while a still larger part went to Mr. McClellan, the Tammany candidate, as the surest way to defeat Mr. Hearst. The so-called independent vote, which on several former electoral occasions has rallied quite solidly around the standard of the Citizens' Union, was this year divided into three more or less equal parts. A

considerable part supported Mr. Ivins, as being, in fact, the best representative of genuine municipal reform and of effective independent administration. Another portion supported Mr. Hearst, as representing the most sweeping revolt against Tammany Hall and the corrupt domination of bosses. Still another considerable group of independents supported Mayor McClellan because they thought there was no chance for Mr. Ivins, and the Hearst movement in their view was a greater evil than another Tammany victory could be.

Who Was Elected? As the election day approached, Mr. Ivins gained steadily in the opinion of the voters, but lost steadily in actual support, because of a pervasive feeling that he could not possibly be elected, and that the choice must lie between Hearst and McClellan. In the last two or three days of the campaign the contest grew bitter and intense. When the preliminary count of votes was made, Mr. McClellan was declared elected by the slender plurality over Mr. Hearst of 4,128 votes. Mr. Hearst had received in round figures 225,000 votes, and Mr. McClellan 229,000, while Mr. Ivins had only 138,000. Evidence began to flow in from various parts of the city of questionable methods on the part of Tammany to defeat Hearst, and the demand was at once made by Mr. Hearst and his friends for a reopening of the ballot-boxes and a careful recount of the votes under judicial direction. It remains to be seen what the result will be, but there is a widespread impression in New York that if the votes could be counted, and the result declared, in accordance with the actual intention of the voters, Mr. Hearst and his ticket would be found to be elected by a plurality larger than that which on the face of the returns was accorded to Mr. McClellan.

Extent of Corruption. It is not to be supposed that it is any longer possible in New York City to commit election frauds in the glaring, wholesale fashion of many years ago. But there are parts of the great, crowded metropolis in which it is very difficult to prevent a certain amount of false registration, repeating, bribery, intimidation, throwing out of ballots on the pretense that they are defective, counting votes of one candidate for another, and so on. It is only in close elections like that of last month that such methods in New York City can endanger the main result. So widespread, however, has been the belief that Tammany stole this mayoralty election that many thousands of citizens who did not vote for Mr. Hearst, and would not like to see him in the mayor's chair, were eagerly de-



DISTRICT ATTORNEY JEROME ADDRESSING A MEETING IN THE WALL STREET SECTION THE DAY BEFORE ELECTION.

manding a recount in the interest of fair play and democratic institutions. If the citizens cannot have their votes cast and counted in accordance with their wishes, our government becomes a farce. Thus, whatever the outcome of a recount may be, it is right and proper to look upon the general stirring up of parties and factions as a good thing for the metropolis. We must add this municipal election to its recent predecessors as indicating in a most hopeful way the growing capacity of our largest city to put conviction and intelligence into its efforts to govern itself. Everybody is now independent in New York City politics. At least, no great group or faction can any longer count upon being able to hold its full voting strength in line when it comes to a municipal contest. This is certainly a great gain.

*Mr. Jerome's
Victory.*

The most significant incident of this year's elections was the success of Mr. William Travers Jerome, who was not, strictly speaking, a municipal candidate at all, but merely a candidate running independently and alone for the office of district attorney of New York County, which is one of the sub-divisions of the present metropolis. Of course, New York County is by far the most important part of all the metropolis, and the office of district attorney is one of great influence and power. Mr. Jerome ought to have been the fusion candidate for mayor. He was clearly the most available candidate, and would have been elected by a large majority. But not one of the three principal tickets included his name even as a candidate for the district-attorneyship, in which office he had served so efficiently for four years, and he was nominated by petition, so

that his name was placed in a separate column on the voting paper. To experienced politicians it seemed impossible that enough voters could be persuaded to face the difficulty of voting a split ticket to secure Mr. Jerome's election over one of the candidates whose name was in a regular party column,—especially inasmuch as both Tammany and the Municipal Ownership League had named strong and popular candidates for the office, expecting to elect them.

*Triumph
of a
Principle.*

Yet Mr. Jerome was elected by a plurality of more than 16,000 votes, and good citizens throughout the whole country, regardless of party affiliation, rejoiced in his plucky fight and splendid victory. Mr. Jerome had served the people faithfully, and had shown the kind of courage that the American public admires and will support. His victory is not that of a man so much as it is that of a principle. Party bosses and machines have always been against Theodore Roosevelt, but the people have believed in him, and he has been able to kindle the enthusiasm of young men. Hence, his hold upon the country. Mr. Jerome is another New Yorker who comes forward to show that it is possible to appeal from the bosses and machines direct to the sovereign people with overwhelming success. The lesson will not be lost, and the younger class of politicians everywhere will have a fresh incentive to keep their own independence of thought, word, and deed, and to rely upon the people rather than upon the favor of a boss or a machine. In this aspect, Mr. Jerome's victory is even more valuable to the country at large than it is to the metropolis, which will have the benefit of his continued services as district attorney.



MR. CHARLES F. MURPHY.

(The Tammany boss and the dictator of the McClellan administration.)

*Some Men
and
Reputations.*

The New York campaign has brought certain men so conspicuously before the American people that they will figure henceforth upon the national stage. Mr. Ivins a good many years ago was identified with the movement for ballot reform that gave us our modified Australian system. For a number of years past he has immersed himself in private affairs. From this time forth his consummate talents ought to be placed at the public service. He has no reason to regret the campaign he made, for it was creditable in the highest sense, and it leaves him a man of great public prestige. The people of the country are in a mood for a new ballot-reform movement, and those who led in the original fight, like Mr. Ivins, Mr. Horace E. Deming, and others, must now take advantage of the awakened public mind to press for a better system. The party column ballot as now generally in use ought to give place to a wholly different kind of ticket. Simultaneously, there ought to be a movement for the abolition of some of our elective offices, especially in a city like New York. Mr. Jerome the other day remarked that there was not a

man of his acquaintance who could so much as name the three or four leading candidates on each of the three leading tickets. He pointed out the absurdity of cumbering the voting paper with the names of a long list of functionaries, such as county clerks and coroners. Such offices might well be put in the appointive class, and the attention of the voters concentrated upon candidates for mayor and a few other offices, and upon nominees for the council or board of aldermen. Mr. Ivins promptly offered his services as counsel in the case of Mr. Hearst's contest and demand for a recount of the votes. Whether in office or out of office, Mr. Ivins should be made to feel that these are times that demand his activity in public affairs.

*Mr.
McClellan's
Future.*

The Tammany organization, dominated by Mr. Murphy, had arranged an ambitious programme for its gentlemanly *protégé*, Mayor McClellan. It was expected that he would be elected by a large majority, and that next year he would become the Democratic candidate for governor of the State of New York, with a view to making him a Presidential candidate in 1908. But Mr. McClellan's political future would seem to lie behind him, to quote a current political phrase. He has made the fatal mistake all his life of following the line of least resistance. He has been a recipient of favors at the hands of Tammany bosses, and has never fought his own square fight in public life. He possesses ability and intelligence of no mean order, and in this lies his condemnation. Men of his parts cannot serve to give Tammany an air of respectability without a full perception of the rôle they are playing; and when for a long and unbroken series of years they have fed comfortably at the Tammany crib, they have rendered themselves incapable of a really independent and self-directed public career. There is a great deal to be said for a certain class of men prominent in the Tammany organization. The district leaders, for example, are men who fought their way up from the ranks, and hold their own among their fellows, as a general rule, through sheer manly strength and largeness of heart, and born gifts of leadership and command. Their political ethics may not be refined, but they are men of strong characters, and they must stand or fall upon their own merits when judged by certain established standards. But this sort of praise cannot be meted out to a group of "gilded youths" who have allowed themselves to be used as stool pigeons by the Tammany organization, who have never lifted their fingers in the real struggle of politics, who have never for a

day fought openly for their convictions in the presence of the community, and who have been willing to help clothe Tammany with an air of respectability in return for offices and emoluments. This is not the sort of stuff out of which Presidents of the United States are made. Mr. Jerome could have moved as smoothly as Mr. McClellan along that well-lubricated political track, but he is of a different fiber, and he would not sell his independence of speech and action for any sort of public job. It is barely possible that Mr. Jerome's extreme independence may prevent his filling high offices in the future. But he has already made his name a household word from Maine to California, and he has made the quality of his political thought and action an inspiration to thousands of young men destined to fill important places in the nation. Thus, if Mr. Jerome never serves in any other public position than the New York district-attorneyship, he is, nevertheless, a marked man before the nation.

Mr. Hearst's Public Position. The political career of Mr. Hearst will doubtless be vitally affected by the result of the expected recount of the votes. The country regards him as having been morally the victor. His political strength



HON. WILLIAM R. HEARST.



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HON. GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN.

is far greater than in 1904, when he sought the Democratic nomination for the Presidency. Thus, if he should fail to secure the mayor's seat, he would, nevertheless, stand before the country with an enhanced prestige and influence. If, however, he should be successful in his contest, his position would become a difficult one. He had made promises and raised expectations that no man in the mayor's chair could fulfill, as against an opposing legislature at Albany and other obstructive conditions. Incidentally, it may be said that Mr. Hearst's recent political activity has brought into an increased prominence several other men. One of these is Mr. Arthur Brisbane, the brilliant editorial writer and director of Mr. Hearst's newspaper enterprises, who is regarded as his chief adviser in the theory and practice of politics. Another is his legal adviser, Mr. Clarence Shearn, who ran for district attorney on Mr. Hearst's ticket. Mr. Bird S. Coler, who was candidate on the same ticket for the presidency of the Borough of Brooklyn, was elected by a decisive plurality.

Referendum in New York.

The only thing that made the election a general one throughout the State of New York was the submission to the people of a series of amendments to

the Constitution. Two or three of these are of interest beyond the confines of the State. For example, one of them provides for incurring a State indebtedness of fifty million dollars for the purpose of extending the work of building good roads under State direction and control. The success of this amendment constitutes the greatest advance that the good-roads movement in America has yet made. Another of these New

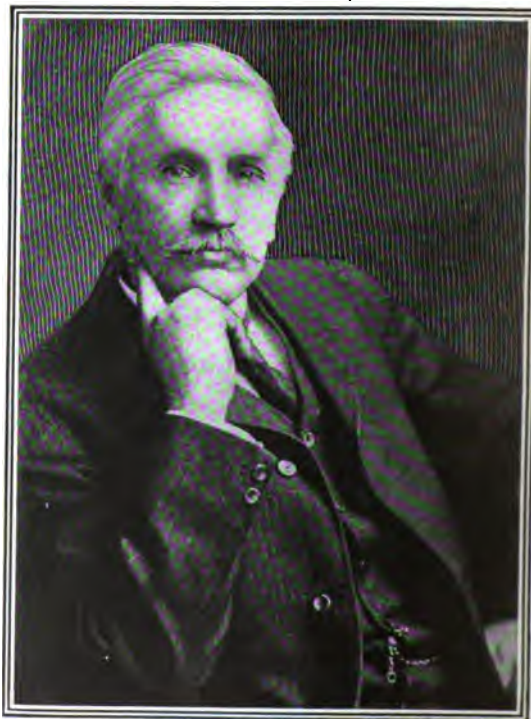


MR. ARTHUR BRISBANE.

(Mr. Hearst's chief political adviser.)

York amendments confers upon the legislature the power to regulate the hours and rate of wages of men employed upon public work in the State. This was to meet certain court decisions which had been to the effect that the legislature lacked such power. The amendment was supported by labor leaders as being in the interest of workingmen. A third amendment will make possible vast expenditures in the near future for extending the water supply of New York City. All municipal indebtedness has had to be held within the limit of 10 per cent. of the assessed valuation. Henceforth, expenditure on account of water supply is not to be included within this 10 per cent. limit, and thus the borrowing capacity of the city is greatly increased. Another amendment will increase the number of judges, and lessen the law's delay.

There will be a special session of the legislature of Pennsylvania next month, expressly called by Governor Pennypacker for the purpose of embodying in the laws of the State some of the principal reforms for which the people have lately indicated their preference. The Philadelphia revolt against the Republican bosses had extended throughout the State, and it expressed itself in the defeat of the Republican nominee for State treasurer by a plurality of about 100,000. The successful candidate was William H. Berry, supported by Democrats, Prohibitionists, Independents, and the reform wing of the Republican party, which for temporary purposes has called itself the Lincoln party. A bank in the Pittsburg district failed under sensational circumstances during the course of the campaign, and facts came to light which showed more plainly than ever how corruptly the Republican bosses had used State funds for their own private ends. These disclosures helped in the overthrow of the machine.



HON. WILLIAM H. BERRY.

In the city of Philadelphia, Mayor Weaver and his City party won a splendid victory and completely overthrew the Durham ring. This election was not so important in the offices to be filled as in the principles at stake. For the first time in years, Philadelphia has had an honest



WILLIAM PENN TO MAYOR WEAVER: "Congratulations! You have won a glorious victory!"

From the Press (Philadelphia).

election. The extra session will be expected to provide laws sorely needed for personal registration and the future protection of the ballot against fraud. Mayor Weaver has become a leader of marked strength, and the congratulations of good citizens of all parties throughout the country have been justly extended to him.

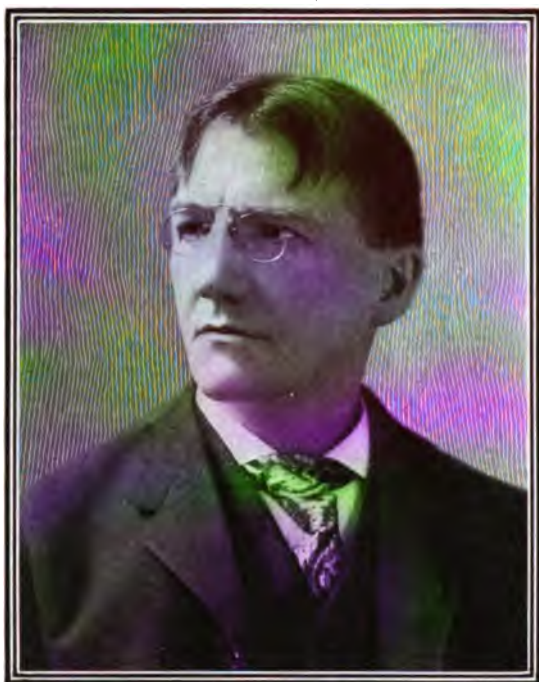
*Independent
Victories
Elsewhere.*

At various points in the East the uprising of independent citizens against the control of communities by political bosses showed that the influence of the great movements in New York and Philadelphia was affecting other cities. Thus, in New Jersey, Everett R. Colby, whose campaign was mentioned in these pages last month, was successful by a large plurality, while Mayor Fagan was re-

elected in Jersey City against a combination of public-service corporations and political machines. In Elmira, N. Y., a famous citizen, Mr. Z. R. Brockway, for many years at the head of the State reformatory prison, was elected mayor. In Boston, a remarkable independent canvass was made for the office of district attorney by Mr. John B. Moran, who is now called "the Jerome of Boston." His opponent, Michael J. Sughrue, was on both Democratic and Republican tickets, and was regarded as certain of election.

*Moran, "the
Jerome of
Boston."*

Moran nominated himself, made his own campaign, advertised himself picturesquely, and carried Suffolk County by a plurality of more than 4,000 votes. He floated into success upon the current wave



HON. JOHN B. MORAN.

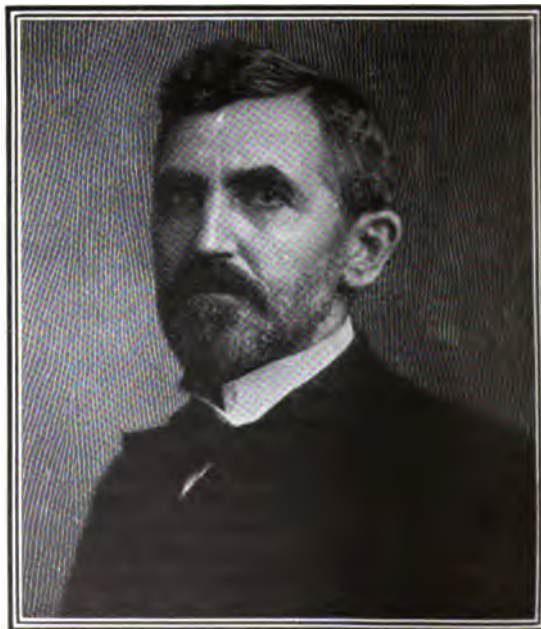
of hostility to bribery, corruption, and all sorts of improper things in public life. He dilated upon the successful careers in the office of district attorney of Mr. Deneen (now governor of Illinois) in Chicago, Mr. Folk (now governor of Missouri) in St. Louis, and Mr. Jerome in New York. He persuaded Boston that it greatly needed that sort of a district attorney, and everywhere he proclaimed, "I am the Jerome of Boston, and when I am elected I will fight graft. The big thieves will get the same treatment as the little ones." And so Boston, feeling the current unrest, took Moran at his own valuation and elected him. Such incidents are wholesome, quite apart from the question whether or not the reformer who wins the office may or may not be able to carry out his promises.

Political Freedom in Massachusetts. The general State election in Massachusetts resulted in Republican victory, but there was everywhere in the State a valuable exhibition of independence in discussion and in action. Mr. Curtis Guild was elected governor by a plurality of 23,000, while Mr. Eben Draper was elected lieutenant-governor by less than 2,000 over Mr. Henry M. Whitney, the Democratic candidate. Mr. Whitney had made a vigorous canvass for tariff revision and reciprocity with Canada. If the Republican candidates had not also favored reciprocity and admitted the need of some tariff revision for the

benefit of Massachusetts industries, they would have been defeated. One of the useful results of the Massachusetts campaign will be that Republicans everywhere who believe that the Dingley tariff ought to be revised will feel at liberty to say so with frankness, and will not allow their party standing to be called in question by reason of their dissent from the doctrine of the stand-patters who would not have the present tariff touched for twenty years to come.

*The
Pendulum
in Ohio.*

The Republican plurality for Roosevelt in Ohio last year was 255,000, and that for Governor Herrick in 1903 was nearly 114,000. This year the pendulum swung far back, and Governor Herrick was defeated by more than 40,000 votes by his Democratic opponent, the Hon. John M. Pattison. These figures show very well how the voters of Ohio have broken away from party domination. The Republican party of Ohio, being strong and successful, became the prey of men who proposed to control it for their own corrupt ends. Whereupon the voters deserted the party in order to punish the bosses. The temperance people of Ohio had disapproved of Governor Herrick's attitude toward a certain local-option measure, but the chief cause of his defeat was the belief that he was in alliance with George B. Cox, the Cincinnati boss, who had extended his sphere of control from muni-

HON. JOHN M. PATTISON.
(Governor-elect of Ohio.)



HON. TOM L. JOHNSON.
(Mayor of Cleveland.)



JUDGE EDWARD DEMPSEY.
(Mayor-elect of Cincinnati.)



MR. BRAND WHITLOCK.
(Mayor-elect of Toledo.)

cipal and county politics to the legislature and the State at large. The people of Ohio desired to deal boss Cox a telling blow. There seemed to them no way except by defeating Governor Herrick. In Cincinnati, where for a number of years Cox has ruled with the absolutism of a czar, the machine was overthrown and a Democrat, Judge Dempsey, was elected mayor.

Cox meanwhile announces his retirement from politics, following the example of boss Durham, of Philadelphia. Cox has been a thrifty boss, and if once a humble saloon-keeper, is now the president of a trust company and reputed to be worth millions. Secretary Taft had in the course of the campaign made a speech at Akron, Ohio, in which, while advocating the election of Governor Herrick, he had denounced the Cox machine in Cincinnati. Undoubtedly, this speech had much influence with the voters, and it was regarded as indicating the feeling of President Roosevelt. Ohio Republicans will now have a chance to return to first principles, and to act along the line of their own convictions and preferences in free and open conventions, and Governor Herrick will deservedly keep his important place in the party. The results in other Ohio cities have significance outside of the State. Thus, the Hon. Tom L. Johnson was elected mayor of Cleveland for a third term, and will remain an

influential figure in the radical wing of the Democratic party. In Toledo, the supporters of the late Mayor Samuel M. Jones have remained true to their tradition as independents, and have carried the city for their candidate, Mr. Brand Whitlock. Mr. Whitlock, who is a young man, is known as the author of a political novel and some short stories, and is a lawyer by profession.

The Republicans were successful in Indianapolis, and Mayor Bookwalter was reelected, while throughout the State the municipal contests showed an increased spirit of independence and a growth of capacity for forcing the fight upon actual municipal issues. In Chicago the vote was light, several judges being elected, and eight trustees of the sanitary district,—these having control of the Chicago Drainage Canal. Some very important questions were submitted to the voters, one of them being the extension of the term of the mayor from two years to four, and another being the reform of the local judiciary system, while still another gives the city council the authority to fix the price of gas and electric light. All these propositions prevailed. Another that future generations will praise is the accepted plan to create outside of the city limits several forest areas, or large natural parks, to be owned by the city and held in anticipation of its future growth and needs. There was a

Cox in Retirement.

In Chicago and Elsewhere West.



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HON. EUGENE E. SCHMITZ.
(Relected mayor of San Francisco.)

bitter contest in Salt Lake City along the old and regrettable line of cleavage between Mormons and anti-Mormons. Mayor Morris, a Mormon, was defeated for reëlection by Mr. Ezra Thompson, of the American, or anti-Mormon, party.

Schmitz Wins in San Francisco. In the San Francisco contest, described in these pages last month, an overwhelming victory was won by Mayor Schmitz, the Union Labor candidate, who was thus elected for a third term, against Mr. John S. Partridge, the fusion candidate. The San Francisco situation is one that is not easily understood by people at a distance. But it may be stated in a general way that the feeling of unrest and protest among workingmen, which gave Mr. Hearst so tremendous a vote in New York City, had something to do with the clean sweep of a San Francisco ticket that professed to represent the masses as against the classes. Unfortunately, Mayor Schmitz has shown himself a very different sort of radical mayor from such an executive, for example, as Mayor Tom L. Johnson, of Cleveland.

The Franchise in Maryland. In Maryland, as our readers will remember, the contest did not turn upon candidates, but upon a question of altering the franchise arrangements of the State.

The so-called Poe amendment to the Constitution, the main object of which was to disfranchise the negro voters, was decisively defeated by a majority of about 20,000 votes. This was Senator Gorman's pet measure, and its chief opponent was Mr. Bonaparte, now Secretary of the Navy.

*Other
State
Elections.*

In Rhode Island, also, although there was a gubernatorial election, the real issue before the people was the attempt to amend the present antiquated constitution in such a way as to provide for a more equal representation. The Republicans had submitted to the people an amendment so inadequate to meet the real needs that it was not accepted by a sufficient majority to give it effect. Governor Utter, the Republican candidate, was re-elected by a small majority. In Virginia, there was, of course, the expected Democratic victory, and the Hon. Claude A. Swanson is elected governor over the Republican candidate, Judge L. L. Lewis. But the plurality was only 20,000, which would plainly indicate some growth of a healthy opposition in a State where political capacity is too great to allow permanently a one-party situation. The fight in Kentucky was for control of the legislature, and the Democratic majority was about 15,000. Much local interest in the campaign was due to the fact that Senator Blackburn was making a fight for the retention of his seat, as against the rivalry of Judge Paynter.



HON. CLAUDE A. SWANSON.
(Governor-elect of Virginia.)

*Ballot Reform
in
New York.*

One outcome of the election in New York, as intimated in a previous paragraph, was the beginning of an agitation for reform in the ballot laws, which bids fair to extend to other States. The difficulties that had to be overcome to secure the election of Mr. Jerome brought out in strong relief the enormous disadvantages under which all independent candidates labor with a ballot system which was adopted in its present form by the New York Legislature in the interest of straight party voting. It may be worth while to remind our readers that when the Australian ballot was imported into this country, about fifteen years ago, it encountered bitter opposition from the

political machines of all the States. After the popular demand for the so-called blanket ballot had become so strong that its adoption could no longer be prevented, the machine politicians resorted to various devices by which it might be made unpopular and ineffective, if not actually contributory to machine success. The scheme that was found to work most satisfactorily from the machine point of view in most of the States was the so-called Belgian system of party grouping of the candidates' names. The original Australian ballot, as adopted in Massachusetts and several other States, groups the names of the candidates alphabetically under their respective offices, and requires a separate mark

opposite the name of each candidate, thus making the splitting of a ticket an operation quite as easy as straight voting and absolutely prohibiting the voting of a straight ticket by a single mark. The ballot law under which New York has been voting for many years,—and in its main features this is the system that prevails in most of the States of the Union,—encourages the voting of a straight ticket by admitting of a simple mark in the circle under a party emblem to indicate a vote for each and all of the candidates whose names appear in that column. Independent voting under this system is discouraged by the very fact that the voter is made to feel that the validity of his ballot is imperiled if he puts any other mark upon it than the mark at the head of the party circle.

To vote for a candidate, obliterate with a pencil having black lead the whole of the white circle in the black square at the left of his name. To vote for a candidate for an office if his name is not printed on this ballot as a candidate for that office, write his name with a pencil having black lead in the blank space under the printed names of candidates for that office. Any other mark will make this ballot void.

PEOPLE'S	SOCIAL-LABOR	PROHIBITION	DEMOCRATIC	REPUBLICAN
☛	☛	☛	★	☛
GOVERNOR. (VOTE FOR ONE.)				
•	•	•	•	•
1 FRANCIS E. BALDWIN	Prohibition			
2 DAVID R. HILL	Democratic			
3 CHARLES H. MATCHETT	Social-Labor			
4 CHARLES B. MATTHEWS	People's			
5 LEVI P. MORTON	Republican			
6				
LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR. (VOTE FOR ONE.)				
•	•	•	•	•
7 ROBERT C. HEWSON	People's			
8 DANIEL N. LOCKWOOD	Democratic			
9 JUSTUS MILLER	Prohibition			
10 CHARLES T. SAXTON	Republican			
11 WILLIAM F. STEER	Social-Labor			
12				
SECRETARY OF STATE. (VOTE FOR ONE.)				
•	•	•	•	•
13 HORATIO C. KING	Democratic			
14 JOHN PALMER	Republican			
15 ERASMUS PELLEZ	Social-Labor			
16 WILLIAM W. SMITH	Prohibition			
17 THADDEUS B. WAKEMAN	People's			
18				

SAMPLE BALLOT IN FORM PROPOSED BY THE JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE NEW YORK INDEPENDENT CLUBS.

*Voting
Split
Tickets.*

This was strikingly shown in last month's New York election, when 13,000 votes were cast for Judge Flammer, who had withdrawn from the candidacy against District Attorney Jerome, although too late for his name to be taken from the ballot. These 13,000 voters undoubtedly de-

sired Mr. Jerome's election, but were afraid to put a mark opposite his name lest by so doing they should lose their votes for mayor and other city officials. Unnecessary difficulties and pitfalls inherent in the New York ballot were demonstrated so conspicuously in the recent election that all the organizations of the metropolis interested in ballot reform have united in recommending a new form of ballot which is essentially the same as that of Massachusetts, with the additional feature of the party emblem to be printed opposite each candidate's name, thus retaining an opportunity for the illiterate voter to identify candidates. It is also proposed that the voter's choice shall be indicated by blacking a small, white circle opposite each name rather than by marking a cross on a white background. This, however, is a matter of detail. The main principle of the proposed New York ballot is essentially the same as that of the Massachusetts ballot,—namely, the requirement that a mark be made opposite every candidate's name. In the election of 1904, the two States of the Union in which the greatest number of split tickets were voted were Massachusetts and Minnesota, each of which, it will be recalled, elected Democratic governors while giving President Roosevelt normal Republican majorities. In both Minnesota and Massachusetts, the Australian ballot is used in essentially its original form, and the ease with which voters of these States may split their tickets under this system possibly accounts, in some degree, for the election results shown one year ago, as well as for the difference this year in the votes in Massachusetts for the offices of governor and lieutenant-governor.

*The President
and His
Policies.*

There can be no doubt of the friendliness of the South toward the President, since his recent visit which extended to New Orleans. Everywhere his frankness, tact, and intelligent understanding of Southern sentiment and conditions were fully appreciated. Thus, his visit to New Orleans before the yellow-fever scourge was wholly abated was carried out in such a way as to call public attention, not so much to that city's misfortune as to the effectiveness with which means employed by the locality and by the Government were limiting the epidemic, and were providing guarantees for the future. Since entering upon the duties of the Presidency, Mr. Roosevelt has visited and spoken in every State and Territory of the Union. This, of course, does not include Alaska and the island dependencies. With his firm adhesion to his announcement, made on election night of last year, that he would under no circumstances be a candidate for another

term, his position before the whole country is almost or quite without precedent in its strength and influence. He has only to stand firmly for the policies that he believes to be necessary and right in order to gain an almost invincible popular support for those measures that he lays before Congress. His message will be presented at the opening of the Congressional session on December 4. It has been announced that this will be a state paper of unusual length, and that it will present the President's views upon what he deems to be the subjects of greatest immediate concern.

*Controlling
the Avenues
of Commerce.*

He sees clearly that this is a period of immense industrial activity and progress, and that recent economic changes are having widespread and profound results. He sees that the transportation system of the country is the most vital thing in our commercial life, and he therefore considers that the better regulation and control of the railroads as the chief highways of commerce has become far more needful than ever before. The railroad men themselves admit that there are grave evils to be remedied. They profess, however, to see great danger in the President's desire to confer upon a governmental body the right to substitute provisionally a reasonable freight rate for an unreasonable one. No one regards average railroad rates in this country as exorbitant. But there is much that must be remedied before discrimination ceases and the railroads are run in the interests of the stockholders on the one hand, and in the interests, on the other hand, of the shippers and patrons, who have a right to equal and impartial treatment.

*As to
Tariff
Issues.*

The President probably believes that tariff revision and railroad regulation cannot well proceed effectively in the same session, and he desires to have the railroad bill enacted and out of the way. Nevertheless, he is well aware that in some phases the tariff question must come before Congress. He will, for example, unquestionably advocate something approximating freedom of trade between the Philippines and the ports of the United States. He will also hope for a changed attitude on the part of the Senate toward commercial reciprocity with other countries. And doubtless he will not deny some sympathy with the people of New England, who ask for certain specific changes in the general tariff schedules. In one way or in another the tariff question is bound to assert itself. It will come up, as in Massachusetts, on practical business grounds rather than upon old-fashioned doctrines and theories.

The Lobby at Washington. Powerful interests will be represented at Washington,—some to oppose tariff revision, some to prevent railway regulation, and some to obstruct the Panama Canal. If these interests arrange to help one another, it will mean hard fighting. Thus, almost the first thing that Congress should do when it gets together is to adopt the President's advice and get rid of the Statehood controversy by admitting Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one State, and Arizona and New Mexico jointly as another. There are reasons why certain railroads in combination with other private interests will do their utmost to prevent this consummation. Since they cannot now secure the admission of four States, they will work for indefinite postponement. They have enlisted political support for their project, and they will mislead many people who do not know the facts. Some of the same lobby influences that will oppose these parts of the President's programme will combine with still other agencies to create a powerful opposition to the Panama Canal. Since the American people have committed themselves to this enterprise, the President wishes to have it executed promptly. The advocates of competing routes have not given up all hope, for great private fortunes hang in the balance. The railroad influences which so long opposed all projects for an isthmian canal are not eager to have the Panama waterway completed at an early day. The consulting engineers have made a divided report. Five are in favor of a canal with locks, to be completed in about ten years, and eight are in favor of a sea-level canal, which they estimate will require fifteen years. It is to be feared that this difference may be taken advantage of by mere obstructionists. It may be inferred that the President will again seek support from the Senate for his Santo Domingo policy. It is reported that Mr. Root is at work, in his broad, constructive way, on our relations with South American countries; and in any controversies that may seem to arise between the administration and the Senate the country can hardly go very far wrong in giving its support to the President and to Mr. Root.

Large Educational Movements. Following Mr. Rockefeller's great gift of ten million dollars to the General Education Board for the promotion of the work of American colleges comes the organization of the Carnegie Foundation, with an endowment worth at market value \$11,500,000 and an income of half a million. Primarily, the Carnegie Foundation is intended to provide pensions for workers in the field of higher education. Ultimately, however, it will doubtless have



DR. HENRY S. PRITCHETT.

(President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.)

a wider scope, and Mr. Carnegie has given it a charter which will enable him to use its admirable board for the management of his future benefactions to university, collegiate, and technical education in America. Eminent educators from one coast to the other make up the board. Dr. Henry S. Pritchett is to leave the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and become the executive head of this new organization. The rules which this board and the General Education Board must lay down for the administration of their trusts will undoubtedly operate to raise the standard of college effectiveness in the United States. These new educational forces will provide tests that the better colleges will welcome, and to meet which the poorer ones must strive earnestly on penalty of losing rank. An article elsewhere in this number describes a new effort to bring the university life of Germany and America into closer relations. A professorship of American institutions in the University of Berlin and one of German institutions in Columbia University (New York) have been arranged upon a most remarkable basis; and this is said to be only the beginning of a series of such international exchanges. Truly, it will be a hopeful day when the Russian Emperor invites Dr. Butler to visit him and arrange for professorships of American institutions in the leading universities of Russia.

*Russian
Autocracy
Surrenders.*

Constitutional Russia emerges. No matter how long the actual formulation of a Russian constitution may be delayed, no matter how much violence and how many temporary triumphs of reaction there may be before a representative government is formally established in the empire of the Czars, one thing is certain,—autocracy has at last surrendered. Nicholas II. is the last absolute Czar, and, if the Romanov dynasty survive, the little Czarevitch Alexis, even if he succeed to the title of Czar of All the Russias, will be the first ruler of modern, Occidental Russia. Six great facts stand out as beacon-lights through the fog and storm of violence, suffering, bloodshed, and horror which have been enveloping Russia for months past: (1) The Czar has really abdicated his autocratic power, conceding to the people almost universal suffrage and a fully representative assembly, (although not constit-

uent,) with a responsible cabinet, headed by Count Witte; (2) amnesty has been granted to the greater number of political prisoners throughout the empire; (3) the censorship of the press has been completely abolished; (4) Pobyedonostzev, Trepov, and the Grand Dukes Vladimir, Alexander, Alexis, and Michael have resigned, thus removing the very last of the hated reactionary influences around the Emperor; (5) Finland has had her constitutional rights fully restored; and (6) most of the obnoxious prefects, governors, and police officials throughout the provinces have been removed, and vast sections of the state lands are in process of actual allotment to starving peasants on such terms as amount virtually to a free gift. The great questions which remain to be settled are those of the Jews and the Poles. November was a month of tremendous significance for Russia.

*The Russian
Magna
Charta.*

As the culmination of a long and bitter struggle between the forces of reaction and liberalism, and after weeks of earnest solicitation on the part of Count Witte, Czar Nicholas (on October 30,—the 17th, Russian style) signed the historic document terminating three centuries of Russian autocracy and granting real liberty to one-tenth of the human race. The troubles and agitation in the cities of Russia, the Czar declared, "fill our heart with excessive pain and sorrow." The ukase then continues in these words:

The happiness of the Russian sovereign is indissolubly bound up with the happiness of the people, and the sorrow of the people is the sorrow of the sovereign. From the present agitation may arise great national disorganization and a menace to the integrity and unity of our empire. The supreme duty imposed upon us by our sovereign mission requires us to efface ourselves, and with all our reason and all our power to hasten the cessation of the troubles so dangerous to the state.

Having directed the different authorities to take steps to prevent open manifestations of disorder, excesses, and violence, and to protect our peaceable subjects, who are anxious for the quiet accomplishment of the duty which lies upon us all, we have recognized that, in order to assure the success of the general measures for the pacification of the public life, it is indispensable to coördinate and unify the powers of the central government. We, therefore, direct the government to carry out our inflexible will in the following manner:

The government is to abstain from any interference in the elections to the Duma, and to keep in view a sincere desire for the realization of the ukase of December 25, 1904, it must maintain the prestige of the Duma and confidence in its labors, and not resist its decisions so long as they are not inconsistent with the historic greatness of Russia. One must identify one's self with the ideas of the great majority of society, not with the echoes of noisy groups and factions, too often unstable.



THE AWAKENING OF A PEOPLE.

THE MUZHNIK TO THE CZAR: "Now I am awake for good. Why don't you awake?"

From the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

(The smaller picture at the upper right-hand corner makes the Czar say, "What, I thought you were asleep?" when the muzhnik calls, "Little Father." It was reproduced from the *Amsterdammer*, in this REVIEW for March last.)

It is especially important to secure a reform of the Council of the Empire on an electoral principle. We believe that in the exercise of the executive power the following principles should be embodied :

1. Straightforwardness and sincerity in the confirmation of civil liberty and in providing guarantees for its maintenance.

2. A tendency toward the abolition of exclusive laws.

3. The coordination of the activity of all the organs of government.

4. The avoidance of repressive measures in respect to proceedings which do not openly menace society or the state.

5. The resistance to acts which manifestly threaten society or the state, such resistance being based upon the law and on moral unity with the reasonable majority of society. Confidence must be placed in the political tact of Russian society. It is impossible that that society should desire a state of anarchy which would threaten, in addition to all the horrors of civil strife, the dismemberment of the empire.

The official version, as published later, included the following :

1. To grant the population the immutable foundations of civic liberty, based on real inviolability of the person and freedom of conscience, speech, union, and association.

2. Without deferring the elections to the state Duma already ordered, to call to participation in the Duma, so far as is possible in view of the shortness of the time before the Duma is to assemble, those classes of the population now completely deprived of electoral rights, leaving the ultimate development of the principle of the electoral right in general to the newly established, legislative order of things.

3. To establish it as an immutable rule that no law can come into force without the approval of the state Duma, and that it shall be possible for the elected of the people to exercise a real participation in the supervision of the legality of the acts of the authorities appointed by us.

We appeal to all faithful sons of Russia to remember their duty toward the Fatherland, and to aid in bringing to an end these unprecedented troubles, and to apply all their forces in cooperation with us to the restoration of calm and peace upon our natal soil.

The Abdication of an Autocrat. It was a most dramatic moment, pregnant with tremendous import for 140,000,000 people, when, at Peterhof, the Czar affixed his signature to this virtual abdication of autocratic power. Dr. E. J. Dillon, many of whose excellent descriptive articles on Russian subjects have appeared in these pages, describes the historic moment so graphically in his letter to the London *Daily Telegraph* that we reprint his words here. While all Russia was up in revolution,—marching, shouting, bomb-throwing, and demonstrating,—Count Witte was having a last pathetic interview with the Russian autocrat. Dr. Dillon's words follow :

For days—nay, weeks—the ill-starred monarch had been deliberating, listening to advice, now from this



GENERAL TREPOV, MILITARY GOVERNOR OF ST. PETERSBURG, WHO HAS RESIGNED.

(He was one of the most cordially hated of Russian officials and his removal was one of the demands of the revolutionists. He was also assistant minister of the interior.)

side, now from that, wavering, waiting, actuated by good intentions which could not get incarnated in useful acts. For nights, like Count Witte, he had not slept. Men like Count Ignatiev assured him that force was the sole efficacious remedy, but they themselves recoiled from employing it. Count Witte, on the other hand, had besought him to recognize the fact that the Russian people had attained man's estate, outgrown their political short clothes, and wanted the virile toga. He added, it is said, that no longer days or hours, but the very minutes, were precious, and that lost opportunities could never be recalled. And at last a decision was come to. . . . His Majesty's final remarks to Count Witte deserve, it is said, to be engraved in letters of gold as a maxim for the guidance of kings. The tenor of his remarks was that he had never valued autocratic rights for aught but the weal of his subjects, nor ever wittingly exercised them for any other purpose. He had upheld them because he was convinced that the welfare of the nation demanded this, and he now laid a portion of them aside because he had good reason to believe that this was to the advantage of the Russian nation, and, without further words, without changing color or altering his mien, the Emperor made the sign of the cross, took up a pen, wrote the word "Nikolai," and thenceforth ceased to be autocrat. Russia became a constitutional realm, 140,000,000 slaves were henceforth their own masters. In the neighboring room the mem-

bers of the suite, losing their self-control, burst into tears. Count Witte issued forth from the apartment with moist cheeks, but Czar Nicholas II. walked calmly and naturally, with perfect dignity and composure, as though he had been signing nothing more significant than the nomination of a senator.

*How the
Manifesto
Was Received.*

Despite the concessions in this memorable document, and the joy with which it was received throughout all sections of the empire, the revolutionaries and many of the Liberals expressed open dissatisfaction and disgust with the half-hearted recognition of their demands. The Czar, they aver, has failed to recognize what the people wanted, and has simply waked up to a realization of his people's needs when the whole country, thrown into revolt, forced him to do so. The programme of the League of Leagues (or Union of Unions, as it is sometimes known), which consists of a union of all the reform elements and the Liberals of the empire, including the professional men, has been adhered to consistently from the beginning. It was embodied in the form of a resolution presented to Count Witte, first, the day after the signing of the manifesto, and a number of times since, in these words :

We demand universal suffrage for all, regardless of station, sex, or belief.

At the same time, we demand the consummation of civic rights, amnesty, and the abolition of punishment by death.

We furthermore declare that we will continue the democratic propaganda until our objects are attained and a constitutional assembly has begun its work.

The reformers, also, using the editors of Moscow and St. Petersburg as their mouthpiece, had for months been demanding the removal of General Trepov, governor of St. Petersburg and assistant minister of the interior, who is hated for his stern policy of oppression, and accused of sending *agents provocateurs* throughout the country to incite violence and create a condition of anarchy, so as to compel the Czar to resume the policy of repression ; the withdrawal of the Cossacks from the police department ; the creation of a national militia for the protection of property and the maintenance of order ; the abolition of the notorious "Third Section" of the secret police ; the repeal of martial law ; autonomy for Finland and Poland ; alleviation of the condition of the Jews ; such changes in the law of land tenure as would ameliorate the hard condition of the peasants and prevent an agrarian uprising ; and, finally, the immediate convocation of a *zemstvo* congress as an advisory board pending the actual operation of reform measures. For the reforms already granted they demanded sufficient guarantees.

*Position
of the
Liberals.*

The Liberals bitterly criticise the manifesto for what it did *not* grant. In the first place, it contained no authorization to the courts to issue writs of *habeas corpus*, which is the only efficient method of assuring in practice that inviolability of person which the Czar somewhat vaguely promises in the rescript. In the second place, the manifesto did not actually empower the National Assembly to frame a constitution, and, in Count Witte's commentary, it was expressly stated that the army, the navy, and the imperial domain should not be subject in any way to the authority of the Duma. In the third place, the manifesto left hazy and unsettled the questions of the suffrage and the principle of ministerial responsibility. It did, however, grant the primary civil rights, freedom of conscience, freedom of speech (which, of course, includes freedom of the press and the right to hold public and private meetings) ; and it did constitute the coming Duma a law-making instead of a purely consulting body, since, instead of the "unchangeable rule" of the Czar, henceforth "no law shall be enforceable without the approval of the state Duma." Within ten days after the issue of this manifesto, a supplementary ukase had given the desired amnesty for political prisoners ; Count Witte had agreed that the delegates from all cities and towns to the Duma should be chosen by universal suffrage (doing away with all but one set of intermediate electors for the peasants) ; Procurator Pobyedonostzev, General Trepov, Ministers Khilkov of railroads and Schwannebach of agriculture, and several grand dukes had resigned ; and the new head of the Holy Synod, Prince Alexis Obolenski (no relative of the former governor of Finland, Prince John Obolenski) had announced his "unalterable determination to enforce discipline on all ecclesiastics, from the Metropolitan of Moscow down."

*Finland's
Constitutional
Rights
Restored.*

With the whole empire aflame with revolt from Vladivostok to Warsaw, with the former city all but destroyed by the torch of rebellion and General Linevich's army honeycombed with sedition, with Poland torn by industrial war, with the navy and army in open insurrection at Kronstadt and the rattle of their musketry distinctly heard at the Czar's palace at Peterhof, with the agrarian uprising already begun on the great central plains, with the Caucasus region in a state of civil war, and the industries of the entire empire paralyzed by such a gigantic industrial and labor strike as has perhaps never been seen before anywhere else in the world, the Finns realized their supreme opportunity. Seizing all government

buildings and military posts throughout the province, they drove out the obnoxious Muscovite officials. So thorough, moreover, and so well timed was their work that the local Russian administration was powerless. The governor, Prince John Obolenski, submitted to the wishes of the Finnish patriots, and at once dispatched by gunboat to St. Petersburg their request for the restoration of the ancient constitutional rights of Finland, which every successive Czar since 1809 (when the province passed from Sweden to Russia) had sworn to observe. The Czar's reply was a prompt and complete accession to their demands. In a manifesto abolishing the secretary of state for Finland and summoning the Finnish Senate, which has not met for the past six years, the Emperor said :

By the grace of God, we, Nicholas II., etc., command the opening at Helsingfors, December 20, of an extraordinary Diet to consider the following questions :

First.—The proposals for the budget of 1906-07, provisional taxes, and a loan for railway construction.

Second.—A bill providing, by a new fundamental law, a parliament for Finland on the basis of universal suffrage, with the establishment of the responsibility of the local authorities to the nation's deputies.

Third.—Bills granting liberty of the press, of meeting, and of unions.

NICHOLAS.

In a subsequent manifesto, all the vexatious Russifying regulations are swept from Finland in the following words :

Having examined the petition of January 13, 1904, we have ordered the elaboration of bills reforming the fundamental laws for submission to the deputies of the nation, and we order the abrogation of the manifesto of February 15, 1899; the ukase of April 15, 1903, concerning measures for the maintenance of public order and tranquillity; the imperial ukase of November 23, 1903, according exceptional rights to the gendarmerie in the grand duchy; Article 12 of the ukase of July 13, 1902, on Finnish legislation; the ukase of September 21, 1902, on the reform of the Senate and the extension of powers of governors; the ukase of April 8, 1903, on instructions for the governor-general and the assistant governor of Finland; the law of July 25, 1901, on military service; the ukase of August 13, 1902, on the duties of civic officials in Finland; the ukase of August 27, 1902, on the resignation of administrative officials and judicial responsibility for offenses and crimes of officials, and the ukase of July 15, 1900, on meetings.

We further order the Senate to proceed immediately with the revision of the other regulations enumerated in the petition, and we order the immediate suppression of the censorship.

The Senate should prepare bills granting liberty of speech, of the press, of meeting, and of union; a national assembly on the basis of universal suffrage, and the responsibility of the local authorities as soon as possible, in order that the Diet may discuss them.

We trust that the measures enumerated, being dictated by a desire to benefit Finland, will strengthen the ties uniting the Finnish nation to its sovereign.

*Will Poland
Get
Autonomy?*

The correct attitude of the Poles toward Russia in her hour of trial,—correct both from the standpoint of moral and of political expediency,—has been more than once pointed out in these pages. While there has been a good deal of violence and disorder attending the industrial strikes in that part of the old Polish commonwealth which fell to Russia at the partition, this has not been more than was to be expected when it is remembered that Poland is the busiest and most prosperous commercial and industrial section of the empire. Strikes have been chronic in Warsaw, Łódz, and other of the Polish cities for the past year, but they have been economic in character and not political. The reforms made possible by the ukase of October 30 and the restoration of full constitutional rights to Finland had convinced the Polish leaders, who had learned caution by the terrible lessons taught in their bloody failures of 1831 and 1863, that while an armed uprising would be madness, the present was their opportunity, also, to ask for autonomy. A delegation, consisting of twenty men bearing names famous in Polish history, journeyed to St. Petersburg, and, on November 10, petitioned the Czar, through Count Witte, for full autonomy, with a Polish Diet at Warsaw. Acting upon the advice of the premier, the Czar, it was announced, had decided to concede to Poland the same privileges of local self-government which had been granted to Finland.

*A Warning
to the
Poles.*

In this generous determination, the Czar would have the sympathy of the reform element, since most of the zemstvoists and all the Russian proletariat, including the Social Democrats, have already declared themselves in favor of Polish autonomy. No disorder or outbreak had occurred in Poland for a week,—nothing worse than orderly parades of the populace, with priests at their head, bearing the Polish flag. Nevertheless, within forty eight hours after the announcement of the intention to grant autonomy, martial law had been proclaimed throughout the "provinces of the Vistula," several prominent editors of Warsaw had been arrested, and, in a long official communication, the Poles were warned that they were not to participate in the promised reforms, and that there is no hope of ever restoring the ancient kingdom. Recalling the imperial ukases of December 25, 1904, and of October 30 last, by which "the Poles were fully recognized as free citizens, thereby obtaining complete opportunity to prove their capacity for participating in a great creative work," the rescript (dated November 13) says :

The government will not tolerate attacks on the integrity of the empire. The plans and acts of the insurrectionaries force it to declare in a decisive manner that, as long as the troubles in the Vistula districts continue, and as long as that part of the population which adheres to political agitators continues its present sway over the country, these districts will receive none of the benefits resulting from the manifestoes of August 18 and October 30, 1905. There could, obviously, be no question of realizing their pacific principles in a country in revolt. For the restoration of order, all the districts of the Vistula are temporarily declared to be in a state of war.

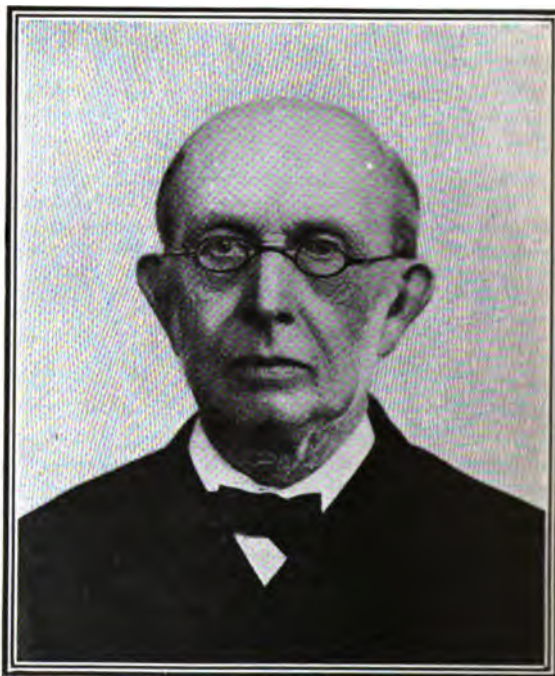
The future of the Polish people thus depends upon themselves. The government, which intends to continue to safeguard the integrity of the national rights of the Polish people as extended by recent legislative acts, expects the nation to recover from the political intoxication which has overcome the kingdom of Poland, the population of which has become a prey to agitators, and at the same time warns the people against entering on a dangerous path, which, unfortunately, they would not be treading for the first time.

*Is the German
Kaiser
Responsible?*

The sudden change in the determination of the Czar to grant autonomy is generally attributed in Europe (indeed, Count Witte openly avowed it to the Polish delegation) to the German Kaiser, who, not being willing to grant anything in the shape of an autonomous *régime* to his own Poles, would regard with apprehension any example of local self-government afforded to Posen by the spectacle of autonomy in Warsaw. Certain mysterious movements of large bodies of German troops in the immediate vicinity of the Russian border and the concentration of Austrian forces in Galicia had led to the rumor that, in the event of a revolution in Poland, Germany and Austria would assist Russia in suppressing it. The foreign offices at Berlin and Vienna have officially denied any such intention. It is felt throughout Poland, however, that autonomy would actually have been granted had it not been for the dread of German intervention. As soon as it was known throughout the empire that martial law had been declared throughout Poland, the united radical bodies ordered another general strike as a protest against this oppression of the Poles, and against the condemnation to death of the Kronstadt mutineers. The Polish liberation movement, they declare, is part and parcel of Russia's fight for freedom. If the Poles, however, can only possess their souls in patience until the meeting of the Duma, in January, it looks as though they would receive the self-government they desire, since all the Russian "intellectuals," the Jews, the Finns, and their own members would favor it, and the peasant delegates would not oppose it. It would seem as though the future of Poland had distinctly brightened.

*The Passing
of Poby-
edonostzev.*

A stern and relentless fanatic, cast in the mold of the Inquisitors, an absolutist of unbending character, and the evil genius which has blocked every attempt within half a century to make Russia constitutional, was removed with the resignation of Constantine Petrovitch Pobyedonostzev, Procurator of the Holy Synod, the representative of the civil arm in the Russian Church. The late procurator has been the evil genius of three Czars,—Alexander II., Alexander III., and Nicholas II. It is stated, on authority that has not yet been repudiated, that Alexander II. had actually signed



CONSTANTINE PETROVITCH POBYEDONOSTZEV.

(Late Procurator of the Holy Synod, who has resigned.)

a rescript granting a constitution, which was to have been published on March 14, 1881. The day before this he was assassinated, and the fact that the rescript was never actually published was due to Pobyedonostzev. During the reign of Alexander III., the stern, unrelenting hand of the late procurator can be traced in the prosecution of the Jews, the Polish Roman Catholics, and the unfortunate Stundists. The notorious law of May, 1882, which placed the Russian Jews outside the pale of modern civilization, was the work of Pobyedonostzev, who was reported to have said that, under the operation of this measure, "a third of the Jews will be converted, a third will emigrate, and the remaining

third will die of hunger." All through the reigns of Alexander and Nicholas II., up to the present, the relentless will of this man has stood between the autocrat and such reforms as might have kept off the present revolution. With his resignation, the Orthodox Russian Church stirs into new life. His successor, Prince Alexis Obolenski, is a man of humane and progressive ideas.

*Terrible
Massacres
of Jews.*

It is certainly to the everlasting honor of the Jew that the Russian bureaucracy hates him. The Jew is never a good basis for despotism, and he is generally too intelligent and industrious to be genuinely loyal to an autocracy. During the past half-year the most brutal and sanguinary attacks upon Jews have been the order of the day throughout Russia. In recent outrages, since the close of the war with Japan, it is estimated that 25,000 Jews lost their lives and more than 100,000 were wounded. Since January 1, last, more than 100,000 Russian Hebrews have been murdered. In towns and villages throughout the entire empire, the rough element burns and pillages Jewish property and commits the most horrible atrocities, the worst massacres occurring in Odessa, Kishinev, and Kharkov. Even some of the reactionary journals admit that much of this outrage has been done under the eyes of the police, troops, and railway officials, who even confess that they have received orders to kill the Jews. In a "Leading Article" this month, on the "Black Hundred," a notorious organization of the Russian Hooligans, the almost anarchic condition of every section of the empire is vividly set forth. The idea of discrediting reforms by inciting violence upon their promulgation, and thereby alienating the sympathy of the sovereign and causing the withdrawal of the reforms, is an old trick of the Russian bureaucracy. It has been used effectively many times in the past and has been very largely instrumental in preventing the repeal of the brutal laws against the Jews. Much sympathy has been manifested throughout the world with the suffering Hebrews, and in this country and England large sums of money have been donated for the alleviation of their misery, not only by wealthy Hebrews, but by Christians as well. Count Witte is known to be absolutely opposed to the prosecution of the Jews, and has already dismissed a number of provincial governors who are charged with being responsible for the massacres. All Russian statesmen, he recently declared, now agree that Jewish disabilities must cease. Meanwhile, however, the massacres go on, and the Jews have organized into "the Defense," an organization already embracing most of the Hebrews who remain in the empire.

*Can
Witte
Succeed?*

Autocracy is dying too slowly for the Russian radicals, and all the extreme parties have, apparently, combined to demand more sweeping changes than are possible at once. It is significant of the prospect for better things that, while Count Witte has the opposition of the bureaucrats and reactionaries of St. Petersburg and of the radical revolutionaries of Odessa, he has the earnest support of the Progressive party, with its center at Moscow, and particularly of the zemstvoists. At the great zemstvo congress which began its sessions in the "mother of Russian cities," on November 19, there was a great struggle to unite all the liberal and moderate elements of the empire with the workingmen's organizations to support the Premier. As this issue of the REVIEW goes to press the struggle is still in progress. The Premier has not been successful in the formation of a thoroughly Liberal cabinet as yet, a number of the most eminent reformers declining to accept portfolios. He has, however, persuaded Ivan Shipov, formerly his assistant to the ministry of finance and his associate at Portsmouth, to be finance minister; Mr. Kutler, to be minister of agriculture; Mr. Timiriazev, to be minister of commerce; Dr. Nemechaiev, to be minister of communications (succeeding Prince Khilkov); and Count John Tolstoi (no relative of the great author), to be minister of education. Count Lamsdorf, the present minister of foreign affairs, and Mr. Manukhin, the present minister of justice, who are in sympathy with the Liberal movement, will retain their posts. This leaves only the very important post of minister of the interior to be filled, an office Witte himself has been managing since his accession. It is a tremendous task which faces the Premier, that of transforming Russia from a medieval and Asiatic to a modern and European state. He has the prayers of all Europe and America for an abundant success.

*The Premier's
Tremendous
Task.*

It has been Witte's misfortune, however, to please neither radicals nor reactionaries. In this fact, probably, is his best title to the commendation of history and the gratitude of his countrymen. In the present state of mind of the Russian people, however, anything the government does is likely to be condemned, and, despite the great value of Witte's services, his resignation in the near future is not an impossibility. He has displeased the working classes by counseling moderation. Replying to his proclamation to his "Brother Workmen," advising them to cease disturbances, "since all that is possible will be done for them

if they only have patience," the proletariat repudiates the fraternal relation with one whom they call "the Emperor's favorite." The workmen further declare :

Count Witte reveals the benevolent intentions of the Emperor toward the working classes. The council reminds the proletariat of Bloody Sunday. Count Witte begs us to give the government time, and promises to do all possible for the workmen. The council knows Count Witte has already found time to give Poland into the hands of the military executioners. The council does not doubt Count Witte will do all that is possible to strangle the revolutionary proletariat. Count Witte calls himself a man who is benevolent toward us and wishes our good. The council declares the working classes have no need of the benevolence of a court favorite, but demand a popular government on the basis of universal, direct, and secret suffrage.

The attitude of the Liberals is much the same, and is expressed in the words of a prominent St. Petersburg Liberal :

Of all the reforms promised in the manifesto of October 30 only one has been realized,—namely, the freedom of the press,—and that was done in spite of the opposition of the government. The papers are appearing without censorship, but all the editors have been indicted. We consider that our attitude of skepticism

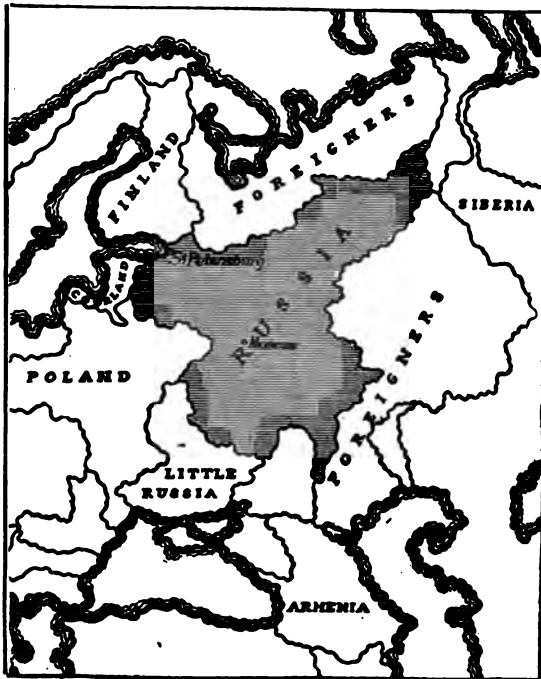
has been fully justified by events, and this skepticism explains the seemingly uncompromising character of our demands for a Constituent Assembly and universal suffrage. We do not aspire to the impossible, and do not expect the instant realization of these demands, and if we could trust the government we should not even press them at this juncture, but, unfortunately, our bureaucratic government is like an insolvent debtor, with whom no transaction is possible except for cash down. We insist that the government should pledge itself at once to what will be the essential conditions of Russia's evolution in the future, because we have no assurance of the continuity of Count Witte's liberal policy.

*The Danger
of Delaying
Reforms.*

The task before the new government is certainly arduous, for it is well-nigh impossible to remodel in a twinkling the entire social and political framework of the nation, including the penal code. The people, however, seemed to be exasperated rather than soothed by the government announcement that, "pending the complete development of the change, the old laws must remain in force." It is against these "old laws" that the people have risen, and they know that, if they once abandon the weapons which have caused the withdrawal of these "old laws," the "old laws" will remain in force for another indefinite period. The development of the situation up to November 20 had made the outlook rather gloomy, leaving, according to the best-informed patriotic Russians, but two alternatives to the Czar: (1) a constitutional monarchy differing little from a republic, or (2) a military dictatorship accompanied by a reign of terror. So far, it has been a revolution by strike, and has demonstrated the remarkable power of the organized labor of the empire allied with the "intellectuals" in the so-called Union of Unions. The great, patient Russian people, without political organization, military power, or financial resources, has put its faith in the justice of its cause, and quietly refused to yield one inch of the ground it has conquered. It will insist upon political liberty in full measure, even though in the securing of it the vast, heterogeneous Muscovite empire should break up into its constituent parts.

*The
Norwegians
Elect a King.*

While Russia is in the throes of a violent upheaval, Norway completes her governmental overturn in a peaceful, constitutional, and entirely orderly manner. On November 12 and 13, the Norwegian people, by a vote of 259,563 to 69,264, chose Prince Charles of Denmark as their King. The advocates of a republic recorded only some 33,000 votes. Several days after the election, the Storting formally elected Prince Charles, and, on November 25, the new King and his Queen



MUSCOVITE AND NON-MUSCOVITE RUSSIA.

(A map, printed by the Pan-Slavist Moscow *Vyedomosti*, to show how little would remain to the empire if all the subject peoples were given autonomy—"which would inevitably mean eventual separation and the break-up of the empire.")

formally entered Christia-
 nia. An intimate view of
 the new monarch, by one
 who was a boyhood com-
 panion in the royal Danish
 navy, appears on another
 page of this issue. This
 is probably the first time in
 history in which a king has
 been elected by such a de-
 cisive popular majority.
 King Haakon VII. will be
 monarch of Norway by
 grace of the Norwegian peo-
 ple, and not by divine right.
 It is interesting to note
 here that by this election
 another crown comes into
 the family of old King
 Christian of Denmark, "the
 father-in-law of Europe."
 King Edward's daughter is
 now to be Queen of Nor-
 way, and his niece, the Prin-
 cess Margaret of Con-
 naught, who married Oscar,
 the Swedish crown prince's
 son, will some day become
 Queen of Sweden. British
 prestige and influence in
 the Scandinavian peninsu-
 la, already considerable, is
 thus greatly increased.



From stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

THE KING OF GREECE AND SOME OF HIS FAMILY.

(Reading from left to right, this photograph shows Prince Nicholas, of Greece, son of the King; Prince Christopher, son of the King; Princess Alice, the daughter of the

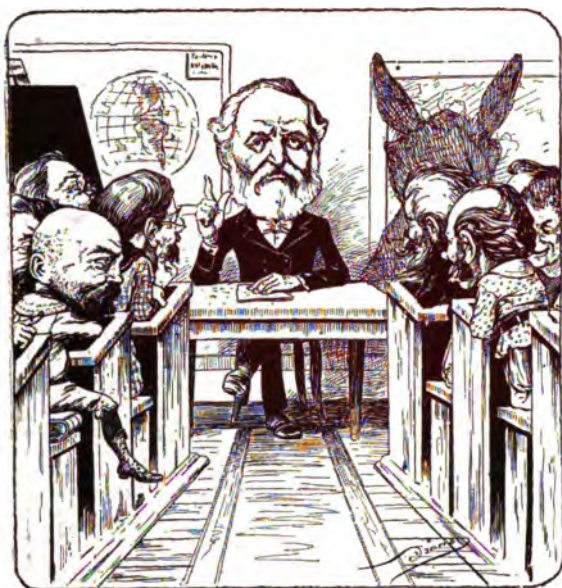
Prince of Battenberg,—the admiral who recently brought the British visiting squadron to the United States; Prince Andrew, son of the King; Grand Duchess Ellene, wife of Prince Nicholas and daughter of Grand Duke Vladimir of Russia; Princess Marie of Greece, daughter of the King; and, finally, to the extreme right, King George himself, son of the King of Denmark. This royal group was photographed at the Tatoi Palace, in Athens, Greece, just preceding the visit of the party to London. King Edward is brother-in-law of King George.)



THE FRENCH PRESIDENT IN PORTUGAL.

(This picture shows President Loubet of France photographed with the royal Portuguese family at the palace in Lisbon. M. Loubet is at the extreme left. Next him, to the right, is Louis Philippe, the heir-apparent. Queen Amélie is seated. Behind her stands the Duke of Oporto, and to the extreme right is his majesty, King Carlos of Portugal.)

The months of
Some October and No-
International vember were
Visit-Making. marked by some very signif-
 icant international visiting.
 President Loubet of France
 made a most important and
 interesting tour through
 Spain and Portugal during
 late October and early No-
 vember. While the gov-



RUSSIA GOING TO SCHOOL.

(The comic weekly, *Strekoza*, of St. Petersburg, sums up the visit of Mr. W. T. Stead to Russia in this cartoon, which it explains as a session of Mr. Stead's traveling school for the inculcation of British political ideas. The Russian leaders are represented as sitting at the feet of the well-known British editor.)

ernments of France and Spain do not admit any political significance in this visit, undoubtedly there have been points cleared up between the two nations regarding the Morocco situation and certain commercial questions which have been agitating Spanish and French frontier cities for years. The Spanish King himself has just returned from a trip through Austria and Germany. Despite reports that on this trip his majesty became engaged to marry a German princess, it is again rumored, on his return to Madrid, that an engagement with a member of the English royal house has actually been consummated. King George of Greece and his family have made a recent tour through the Continent, and were especially well received in England. The photograph we reproduce was taken in Athens, and shows, besides his majesty, several others of the royal Danish house, the King's family. The visit of the British Prince Battenberg, admiral commanding the squadron of cruisers, to New York has already been referred to in these pages. Not the least interesting to the world at large of all these international visits has been the tour of Russian cities by Mr. William T. Stead, editor of the *English Review of Reviews*. Mr. Stead, with permission from and approval of the Russian imperial authorities,

spoke in many places throughout the empire, counseling moderation and orderly progress in the revolution, and advising both authorities and people against extreme measures. Mr. Stead was very well received, and the *Strekoza*, a new comic weekly of St. Petersburg, humorously sketches the situation in a cartoon which we reproduce on this page, showing the Russian leaders and people taking a course in the philosophy of British institutions at Mr. Stead's traveling school. On another page this month (675). Mr. Stead gives us a graphic survey of the progress of the Russian peasant revolution.

Radical Reforms for Austria-Hungary.

When the Hungarian Parliament again assembles at Budapest, on the 19th of the present month, it will consider a rather remarkable programme, offered by the representative of the Emperor-King, which promises well, in the opinion of Hungarian leaders, to settle the difficulties between the constituent parts of the much-troubled dual monarchy. The success of the Russian revolutionary movement has stirred the Socialists and other radical elements of the heterogeneous Hapsburg empire, and has given an impetus to the demand for universal suffrage made by some of the Hungarian leaders. A decade ago the programme which, according to reports from Budapest early in November, will be presented by Emperor Francis Joseph, in his capacity as King of Hungary, would have been regarded as the maddest of radicalism. It includes universal suffrage, conditioned only by the ability to read and write at the age of twenty-four, with the establishment of free universal compulsory education; a graduated income tax, in place of customs and excise; a redivision and redistribution of the lands of the State and of the Church into small farms, to be let out on long leases, with extensive banking facilities for agricultural credit; and, finally, increased protection for manufacturers, limitations on the labor of women and children, old-age and health insurance, and improved housing facilities for the working classes. The only condition asked is that the army and the foreign relations be left in the hands of the Emperor-King. Whether or not the Hungarians will regard this as sufficient return for yielding on the point of language in the army, will be settled at the coming session.

France and Belgium in the Congo.

Serious charges against the management of colonies by four European countries has been one of the important international developments of the past month. There was the bitter feeling in British India over the division of the Bengal presidency, following

upon the resignation of Lord Curzon as Viceroy, and the increasing seriousness of Germany's problem in southwest Africa in her campaign against the Herreros, which is not yet finished. Then last month came the publication of two reports on the French and Belgian Congo lands. Some months ago the late Count de Brazza was sent by the French minister of colonies, M. Clémentel to investigate the alleged atrocities which have taken place under the government of Emile Gentil, colonial administrator of the French Congo, which lies to the west, as the Belgian Congo lies to the east, of the great river so named. The de Brazza report has not yet been published, but newspaper summaries of its contents indicate that it cites many instances of Gentil's alleged cruelty, injustice, and extortion,—in general, severely condemning his administration. The report of the commission appointed by King Leopold of Belgium to investigate the charges of English and American missionaries as to the brutal treatment of the natives in the Congo Free State will excite wider interest because of the international concern aroused by the efforts of many philanthropic persons in this country and Great Britain. The inquiry has been in progress for fifteen months, of which five were spent on the Congo in taking testimony from officials, missionaries, and natives. In general, the report confirms the charges of cruelty made by the missionaries and the British agent (Mr. Casement), but exonerates, in large degree, the administration from responsibility for them. Most of the abuses are traced to the use of native foremen and the military expeditions sent out by the commercial companies. Despite its criticism, however, the report eulogizes the work of the Belgian Government, stating that security reigns to-day in a country which twenty-five years ago was "plunged in barbarity, plundered by Arab tribes, and strewn with markets for human flesh." "The slave trade has now disappeared, cannibalism seeks hiding, and human sacrifice has become rare. Villages have sprung up, railroads have been constructed to the head of the equatorial forests, steamers navigate the rivers, the post and telegraph operate, hospitals have been established, and government administration proceeds effectively in that vast, unsettled territory."

*Japanese
and Chinese
Affairs.*

Despite the deplorable incident of the murder of five American Presbyterian missionaries at Lien-Chau by Chinese on October 28, and the assault on the American admiral, Train, for accidental injuries to a Chinese woman during a hunting trip, the relations between the United States and China

have distinctly bettered during the past few weeks. Stirrings of a new life continue to be evident in the Celestial Empire, and the report that a Chinese constitution will soon be adopted is persistent. Chino-Japanese relations have become clarified since the cordial reception by the Chinese Emperor, on November 15, of the Japanese envoys, headed by Baron Komura, sent from Tokio to negotiate regarding the future of Manchuria. The Chinese Government, it must be also said, has given formal assurances to Russia that China will not enter into any secret treaty with Japan regarding Manchuria. Japan herself is evidently taking up the duties of peace with the same thoroughness and vigor which she applied to her obligations in war. The serious business of peace finances has been resumed, and the people have gone about their work in earnest, cheered by the two recent holiday celebrations of the Emperor's birthday (the Mikado is now fifty-three years of age) and the reception of Admiral Togo at the Japanese capital. By a fortunate coincidence, this second event took place upon the anniversary of the battle of Trafalgar. This enabled the Japanese to commemorate the great day of their British allies, and to dwell pleasantly on the similarity between Nelson and Togo. Toasting the great British sea-fighter, Baron Hayashi, the Japanese minister to London, said: "The Land of the Rising Sun has joined hands with the land on which the sun never sets, and between them they ought to dispel the darkness of the world forever, and maintain the world's peace."

*Korea
Becomes
Japanese.*

The Japanese hold has been tightened upon Korea. On November 18, the Korean Government acceded to the commands of the Tokio government in the protocol of a treaty to be elaborated later, by the terms of which all Korean diplomatic business is to be transferred from Seoul to Tokio, and a Japanese governor-general's office is to be set up in the Korean capital. The mission to Korea was under the personal conduct and direction of Marquis Ito. Many of the Koreans and some of the foreigners residing in the Hermit Kingdom, including the Rev. Homer B. Hulbert, editor of the *Korea Review*, severely criticize the Japanese administration in Tokio, charging it with harsh military rule. The general outcome of the Japanese occupation, however, cannot fail to be highly beneficial to the Koreans themselves, and, of course, the military demonstration will soon be superseded by the civil government,—if this has not already been brought about.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From October 21 to November 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

October 21.—President Roosevelt makes an address at Jacksonville, Fla., dealing with the Panama Canal Testimony is taken by the Interstate Commerce Commission regarding private-car-line rates.... Secretary Taft, speaking at Akron, Ohio, defends President Roosevelt's proposition for railroad-rate legislation, and advocates the election of the Republican State ticket, but protests against the dominance of "Boss" Cox in Cincinnati Republican councils.

October 25.—The Comptroller of the Currency orders a federal investigation of the wrecked Enterprise National Bank of Allegheny, Pa.... Charles A. Flammer, Republican candidate for district attorney of New York



Hon. J. F. Ahearn. (President of the Borough of Manhattan.) Hon. Bird S. Coler. (President-elect of the Borough of Brooklyn.)

TWO LEADING CANDIDATES IN THE NEW YORK ELECTION.

County, withdraws in favor of Mr. Jerome, the independent candidate for reelection.

October 26.—President Roosevelt is enthusiastically welcomed at New Orleans.

October 27.—The recalled Republican county convention in New York nominates William Travers Jerome for district attorney, in place of Charles A. Flammer.

October 31.—President Roosevelt returns to Washington from his Southern trip, and appoints Charles G. Stillings, of Massachusetts, public printer.

November 4.—The Comptroller of the Currency removes from the service Bank Examiner R. H. Mattern on account of his failure to discover conditions in the Enterprise National Bank at Allegheny, Pa.... Secretary Shaw closes the Ohio Republican campaign with a speech at Cleveland.

November 7.—The elections held in several States indicate a revolt against bossism. Massachusetts and Rhode Island choose Republican governors; Ohio and Virginia, Democratic governors; Pennsylvania elects a Democratic State treasurer for the first time in many years; in Maryland, the negro disfranchisement amendment, championed by Senator Gorman (Dem.) and opposed by Governor Warfield (Dem.), is decisively defeated; in New Jersey, the Republican candidates for the legislature, including Everett Colby, are generally successful. In New York City, Mayor McClellan (Dem.), is reelected (on the face of the returns) by a small plurality over William R. Hearst (Municipal Ownership), who contests the election on the ground of fraud in the counting of votes; District Attorney Jerome (nominated by petition) is elected for a second term; Republicans win a majority in the Board of Aldermen. In Philadelphia, the City party, pledged to reform, elects its candidates. In Cincinnati, Edward J. Dempsey (Dem.) is elected mayor. In Cleveland, Mayor Tom L. Johnson is reelected by an increased plurality. In Toledo, Brand Whitlock, the candidate of the followers of the late Mayor Jones, is elected. In Chicago, the Republican candidates for minor offices are successful. In Salt Lake City, the candidate of the anti-Mormon, or American, party is elected mayor. In San Francisco, Mayor Schmitz (Union Labor) is reelected.

Following are the names of the successful candidates in the four States in which elections for governor are held:

Massachusetts.....Curtis Guild (Rep.)
Ohio.....John M. Pattison (Dem.)
Rhode Island.....George H. Utter (Rep.)*
Virginia.....Claude A. Swanson (Dem.)

*Reelected.

November 10.—The federal grand jury, at St. Louis, returns a new indictment of United States Senator Burton, of Kansas, for alleged complicity in an attempted postal fraud.

November 11.—Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, calls an extraordinary session of the legislature.

November 13.—The canvass of the New York City vote is begun; eight indictments in election cases are filed by the grand jury.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

October 21.—All the railroads entering Moscow are tied up by the strike.

October 24.—The Russian railroad strike spreads throughout the empire.

October 25.—The strike of Russian railroad employees extends to all the lines entering Warsaw, Poland; engineers of all classes are called out at Moscow.

October 28.—The Spanish Government having resigned, Señor Montero Rios is asked by the King to form a new ministry.... The Swedish ministry, having concluded a settlement with Norway, resigns.

October 30.—The Czar of Russia issues a manifesto assuring civil liberty, extension of the suffrage, and inability to enforce laws without the consent of the Duma; Count Witte is clothed with special authority

....The French Chamber reassembles and passes the amnesty bill.

October 31.—Austrian Social Democrats demand a parliament elected by equal and direct suffrage.

November 3.—The Russian censorship over the press and private dispatches is abolished; the Czar grants amnesty to political prisoners; many political offenders are released from the citadel in Warsaw.

November 5.—Rioting continues in many Russian towns....In a Socialist demonstration at Prague the police are fired on; as a result of rioting the University of Vienna is closed.

November 6.—The Cuban Congress assembles at Havana; President Palma's message is read in both houses.

November 7.—Count Witte pledges himself to support an elective assembly for Russia if a single member of the Duma demands it; anarchy is reported from the Caucasus.

November 9.—A meeting of Russian sailors at Kronstadt results in heavy losses of life and property.... Count Witte removes General Trepov, governor of St. Petersburg....A meeting of Brazilian troops at Rio is suppressed.

November 10.—M. Bertreaux, minister of war, resigns from the French cabinet; Premier Rouvier is supported by a majority in the Chamber of Deputies.



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MR. JAMES HAZEN HYDE.

(The former vice-president of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, who gave important testimony last month before the insurance investigating committee in New York.)

November 11.—The war portfolio in the French cabinet is taken by M. Étienne, minister of the interior, who, in turn, is succeeded by the minister of marine, whose place is taken by the minister of commerce.

November 13.—Count Witte's new Russian cabinet meets and considers the proposition to make part of the council of the empire elective....Prince Charles of Denmark is elected King of Norway by a large majority of the popular vote (see page 703).

November 14.—Prince Urasoff is appointed assistant minister of the interior to succeed General Trepov.

November 15.—The Social Revolutionists of St. Petersburg begin a great strike with the object of overthrowing the Russian monarchy.

November 17.—The German Federal Council adopts the naval bill providing for the construction of six new cruisers at a cost of \$6,750,000 each, to be laid before the Reichstag.

November 18.—The Norwegian Parliament unanimously elects Prince Charles of Denmark to be King of Norway; it is announced that the new King will take the name of Haakon VII....The Constitutional party in Finland declares in favor of a single-chamber Diet, open to both sexes.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

October 23.—The Sultan protests against the interference of the powers in the internal affairs of Turkey.

October 27.—The treaties between Sweden and Norway are signed at Stockholm, the King of Sweden recognizing Norway as an independent state.

October 30.—Rear-Admiral Train, in command of



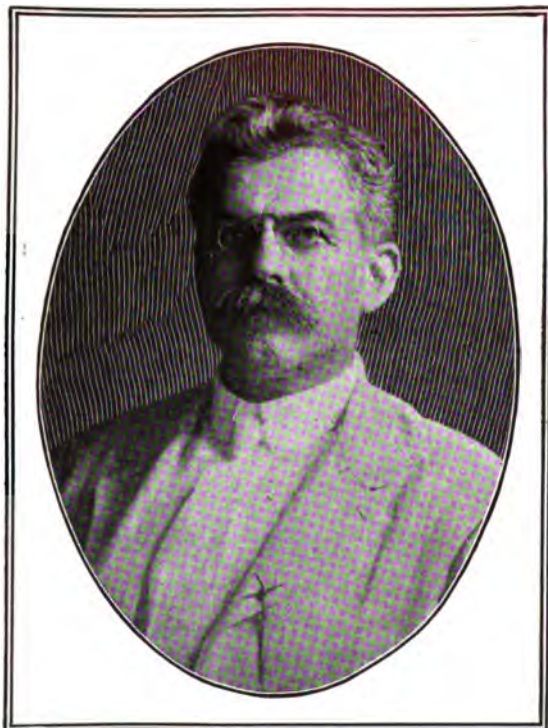
Stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

PRINCE LOUIS OF BATTENBERG GREETING GEN. FRED. GRANT AT GOVERNOR'S ISLAND, N. Y.

the American Asiatic fleet, is assaulted by a mob near Nankin, and his son held as a hostage on account of the accidental shooting of a Chinese woman.

November 6.—Lord Lansdowne declares that the Anglo-Japanese alliance was not intended as a threat to any nation....It is charged at Washington that the government of Cuba is not carrying out its agreement to continue the work of sanitation in Havana.

November 15.—The powers present an ultimatum to the Porte, demanding reforms and giving twenty-four hours for reply, with notice that a refusal will be followed by a naval demonstration.



DR. J. H. WHITE.

(The surgeon in charge of the yellow-fever campaign at New Orleans.)

November 16.—President Castro, of Venezuela, refuses to pay the second installment of the award to France made by the Plumley arbitration commission.... An Austrian admiral is selected as commander of the international fleet to make a demonstration against Turkey.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

October 21.—The centenary of the death of Nelson and the battle of Trafalgar is celebrated in Great Britain and her colonies.

October 22.—Admiral Togo makes his formal entry into Tokio to report to the Emperor of Japan the return of the fleet from the war.

October 23.—A great Japanese naval review takes place in the Bay of Tokio, the Emperor passing between the lines of 308 warships, including captured Russian vessels.

October 24.—Admiral Togo is given a great reception in Tokio by the Japanese people and officials.

October 25.—The New York municipal ferry to Staten Island is officially opened.

October 26.—The German Emperor unveils a statue to von Moltke at Berlin....General Booth, head of the Salvation Army, is presented with the freedom of London.

October 28.—Datto Ali, the insurgent Moro chief in Mindanao, Philippine Islands, is killed by United States troops.

October 30.—Twelve persons are killed and 35 injured in a wreck of an Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railway train near Kansas City....New York's first municipal lighting plant is inaugurated.

October 31.—George Bernard Shaw's play, "Mrs. Warren's Profession," is prohibited by the police authorities in New York City.

November 1.—The British squadron, under the command of Rear Admiral Prince Louis of Battenberg, arrives at Annapolis, Md....Five American missionaries sent to China by the Presbyterian Board are reported murdered at Lien-Chau.

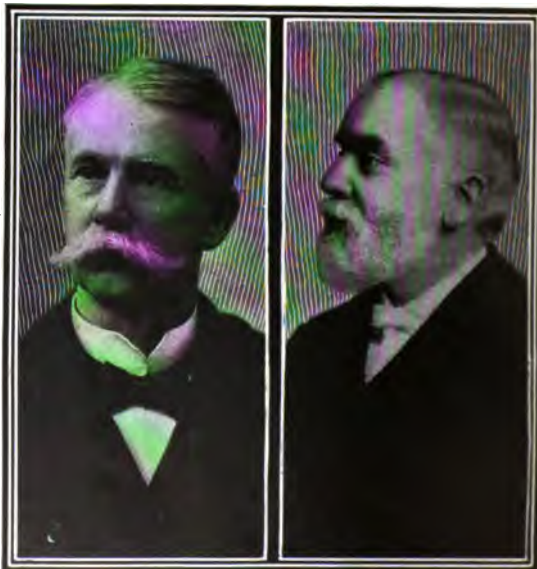
November 2.—Five thousand Jews are reported to have been killed in Odessa alone during the riots.

November 3.—President Roosevelt receives Prince Louis of Battenberg at the White House, Washington.

November 5.—Paul Deroulede is welcomed at Paris after a six years' exile.

November 6.—Housesmiths working on fifty buildings in New York City go on strike and refuse to obey the order of the Arbitration Board to resume work.

November 9.—The British squadron commanded by Rear-Admiral Prince Louis of Battenberg is received in New York by Rear-Admiral Robley D. Evans, with a fleet of American battleships.



REV. E. B. SANFORD, D.D.
(Secretary of the Inter-church Conference on Federation.)

REV. W. H. ROBERTS, D.D.
(President of the Inter-church Conference on Federation.)

November 10.—A monument commemorating the opening of the Erie Railway, seventy years ago, is unveiled at Deposit, N. Y.

November 12.—Announcement is made of the gift of \$50,000 by James Speyer, of New York, to Columbia University, to establish the Theodore Roosevelt professorship of American history and institutions at the University of Berlin (see page 679).

November 13.—Quarantine is declared against Havana on account of yellow fever; it applies to all Gulf

November 15.—A national conference on church federation opens in New York City.

November 18.—In the course of naval maneuvers at Kiel, a German torpedo boat is sunk in collision with a small cruiser, and 1 officer and 32 men are lost.... The Panama Canal board of consulting engineers decides, by a vote of 8 to 5, in favor of a sea-level canal.

November 19.—One hundred lives are lost in the wreck of the Southampton Railway Company's channel steamer *Hilda* off St. Malo.... Thirty-nine persons are killed and 80 injured in a lodging-house fire in Glasgow.

OBITUARY.

October 22.—Samuel Appleton Blatchford, of New York, formerly reporter of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 60.

October 23.—Ex-Congressman Jerry Simpson, of Kansas, 63.... Florent Willems, the French and Flemish painter, 83.... Father Marcello Massarenti, the noted art collector and intimate of Pope Pius IX., 88.

October 24.—Dr. J. Howard Taylor, a noted neurologist of Philadelphia, 80.

October 25.—Henry S. Storrs, general superintendent of the Michigan Southern Railway, 57.... Samuel W. Rawlins, founder of the New Orleans Cotton Exchange, 87.... Gen. Sir Charles Wilson, R. E., 69.

October 27.—Capt. Charles E. Vawter, superintendent of the Miller Manual Training School of Virginia, 64.... Ralph Copeland, astronomer royal for Scotland, 68.... Mikhail Ivanovitch Dragomirov, Russian general, former governor-general of Kiev, and prominent in the Russo-Turkish War, 75.

October 29.—Rudolph Lehmann, painter and author, 86.

October 31.—Ex-Gov. Andrew R. McGill, of Minnesota, 65.... Christopher Robinson, the well-known Canadian constitutional lawyer, 78.

November 4.—Prof. M. C. Frederiksen, of Copenhagen, 65.

November 6.—Sir George Williams, founder of the Young Men's Christian Association, 84 (see page 678).... William J. LeMoyné, one of the oldest American actors, 74.... Adolph Moses, a well-known member of the Chicago Bar, 68.

November 7.—Lady Florence Dixie, the poet, novelist, explorer, and champion of women's rights, 48.... Henry R. Stark, associate justice of the Vermont Supreme Court, 60.

November 8.—Judge William Tod Otto, a friend of Abraham Lincoln, 89.... William T. Richards, the marine artist, 72.

November 9.—Rt. Rev. Frederick Thomas Davies, bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Michigan, 74.... Gen. Francis T. Sherman, chief of staff under Gen. O. O. Howard in the Civil War, 80.... David Maxon Greene, formerly director of the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, N. Y., 73.

November 12.—Bishop Stephen Mason Merrill, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 80.

November 14.—Robert Whitehead, inventor of the torpedo which bears his name.

November 16.—Stephen Salisbury, a well-known philanthropist of Worcester, Mass., 70.

November 17.—The Count of Flanders, brother of King Leopold and heir to the throne of Belgium, 68.... The Grand Duke Adolph of Luxemburg, 88.

November 19.—Prof. John L. Morris, of Cornell University, 73.... Dr. Augustus Choate Hamlin, of Bangor, Me., 76.



STATUE OF GLADSTONE, BY THORNEYCROFT.

(Unveiled on November 4, 1905, by John Morley, Mr. Gladstone's biographer.)

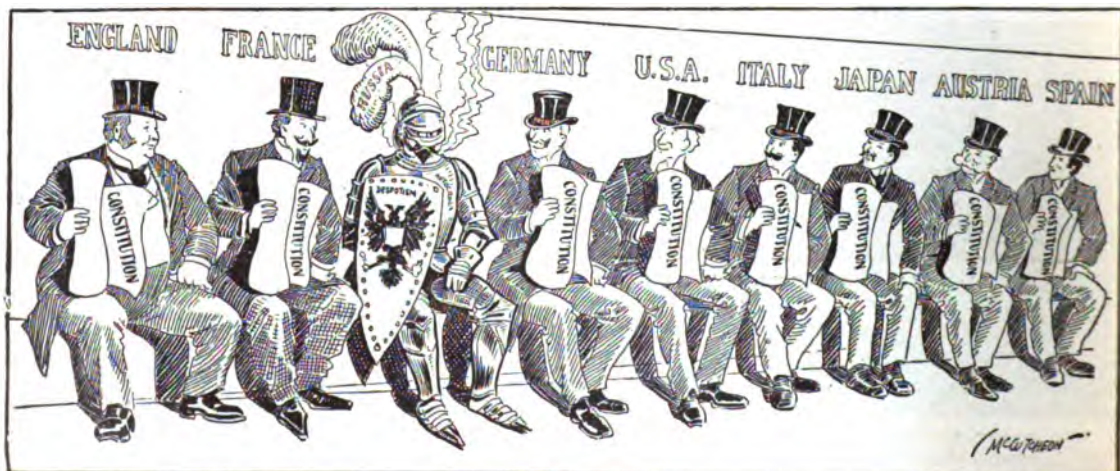
ports and Atlantic ports south of the southern boundary of Maryland.... An appeal for a general strike is issued at Brest, France.

November 14.—James Hazen Hyde, testifying before the insurance investigating committee in New York City, states that ex-Governor Odell's suit against the Mercantile Trust Company was settled at E. H. Harri-man's advice.

SOME AMERICAN CARTOON COMMENTS.



THE PRESIDENT AND THE HOSPITABLE SOUTH.—From the *Post* (Washington).



"Don't you find those old-fashioned clothes kind o' warm, Nicholas?"—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



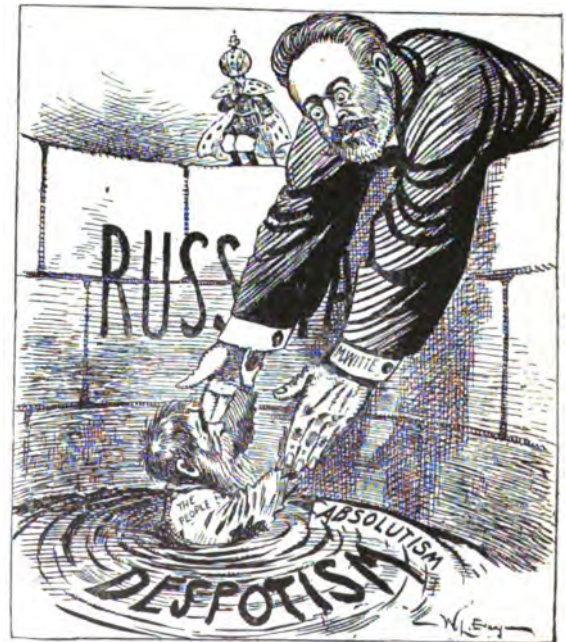
"WHAT WILL HE DO WITH IT?"
From the *Inter Mountain* (Butte).



SELF-GOVERNMENT IN RUSSIA.
From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



THE CAPTAIN: "More oil, your majesty."
From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



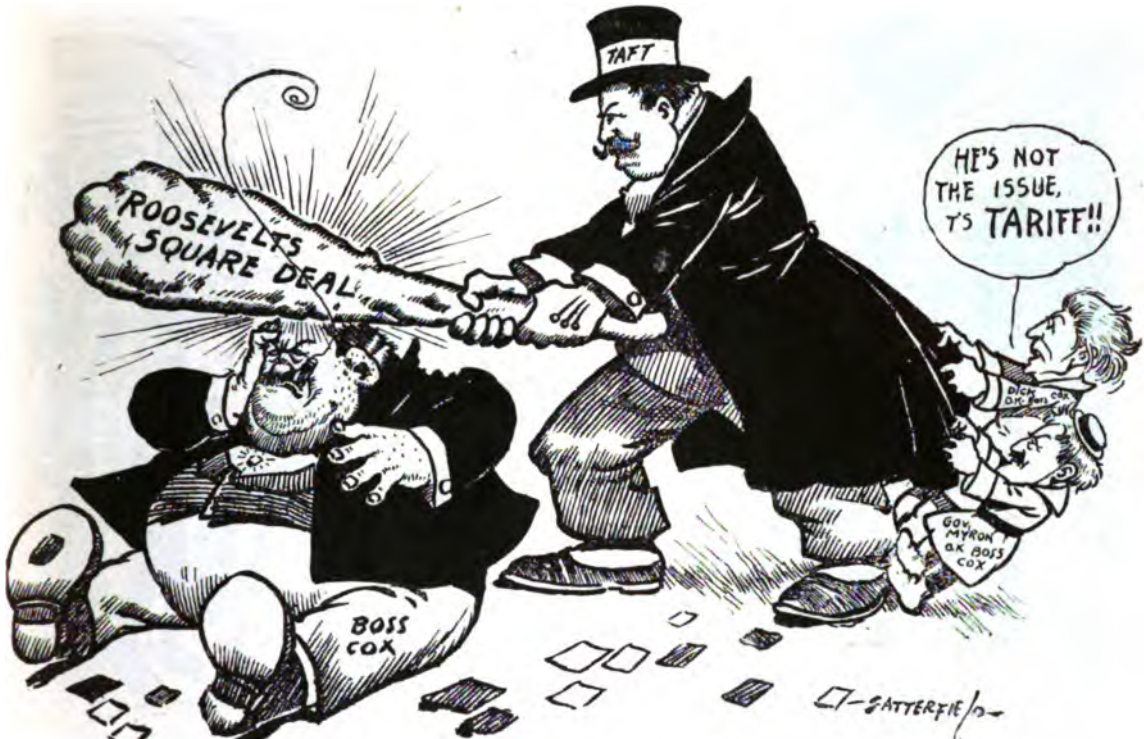
WITTE TO THE RESCUE.
The big man of Russia and his opportunity.
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



UNDER THE PALMETTO TREE.

THE SOLID SOUTH: "Well, sah, Cunnel Roosevelt, you all suddinly has powahful persuadin' ways. I keeps fohgettin' you ah a Republican, but I reckon you ah a Democrat on your mother's side.—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

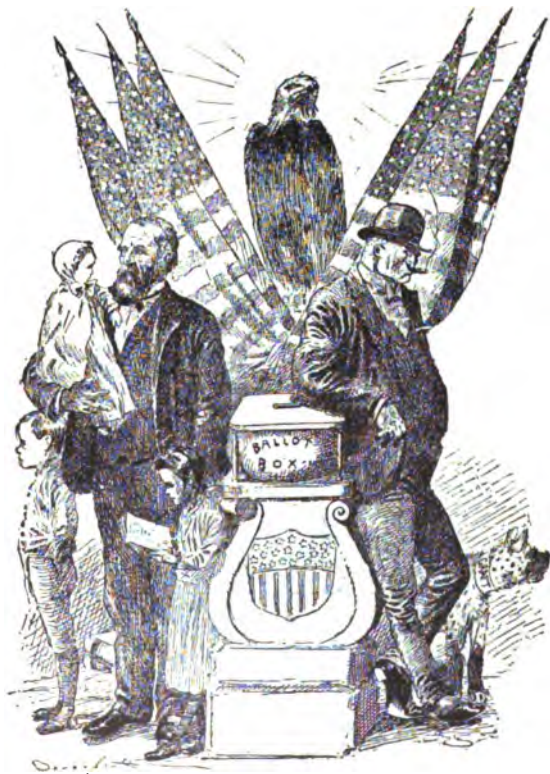
JEROME HAS THE BALL.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



SECRETARY TAFT GAVE THE KNOCK-OUT BLOW TO BOSSISM IN OHIO.—From the Post (Cincinnati).



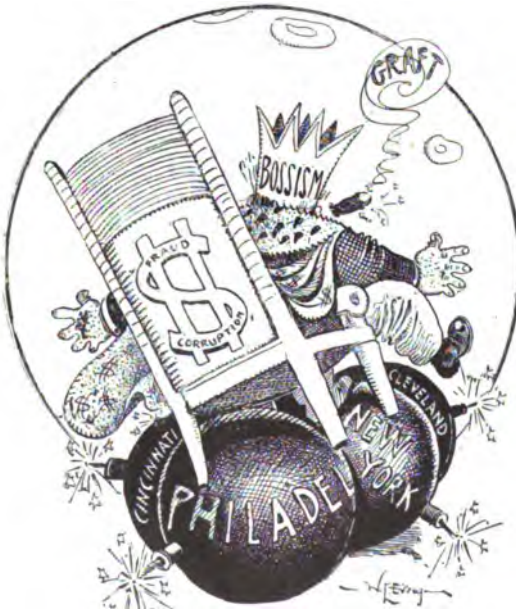
WILL MR. TAFT RUN FOR THE PRESIDENCY?
Well, how can he?—From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle).



THE THUG OR THE HOME?
From the Post (Cincinnati).



THE LAST STAND OF BOSS COX, OF OHIO.—From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



BOSSISM IS IN A DANGEROUS POSITION IN SEVERAL OF THE LEADING CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



FATHER KNICKERBOCKER GETS A GLIMPSE OF THE PROMISED LAND OF IMMEDIATE MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP (with the accent on the promised.)—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

THE RUSSIAN SITUATION AS IT WAS IN NOVEMBER.

BY W. T. STEAD.

[After a tour of several weeks throughout Russia, speaking and writing, Mr. Stead left the empire by way of Finland, reaching Helsingfors on November 3, in time to see the overturn of the autocracy in the Finnish capital. Upon his arrival in London, he sent the following broad, sweeping survey of the situation in Russia, which reached us just before going to press on November 20.—THE EDITOR.]

THE LIBERAL MOVEMENT.

THE Liberal movement has triumphed completely so far as the Emperor is concerned. Whether it will succeed with the Russians is doubtful. The Emperor has definitely committed himself to the limitation of his autocracy and the statutory recognition of the fundamental liberties. He has excited against himself by so doing the fury of the reactionary, the jealousy of the revolutionist, and the alarm of the threatened office-holders.

ITS CHANCES OF SUCCESS.

The Liberal movement will triumph over reaction, if the Liberals support Witte (as they do not appear very much disposed to do). It may be wrecked by the almost inconceivable inexperience, childishness, and impatience of the Liberals. Imagine what Mr. Gladstone's chances of success would have been if, the day after he "plunged" for Home Rule, the home rulers had been afraid to support him, and had openly coquetted with the Fenians and Invincibles and denounced him for not going in for an independent Irish republic. In this direction many English newspapers are doing their best and their worst to incite the Liberals to sacrifice the Czar to the social revolution.

BUT THE JEWISH MASSACRES.

The horrible massacres of the Jews are the response of an angry and deserted party to the Emperor's adoption of Liberal principles. The nearest parallel to the feeling of the reactionaries toward the new departure is to imagine what the Orange mob of Belfast would have felt if Lord Salisbury, in 1888, after coming into office to defend the union, had suddenly gone in for Home Rule, and the Nationalists, singing "God save Ireland," had flaunted the green banner at the crownless harp as they marched with brass bands up and down the heart of the Orange quarter in Belfast. And then, if you want adequately to realize the imbecility of most press comments, you must

imagine American journalists denouncing Lord Salisbury for mitigating the attack of the Orangemen on the Nationalists of Belfast. The attack in reality being a savage popular protest against the adoption by their former leader of the policy of his opponents.

WHO IS NOT RESPONSIBLE?

Not the Czar, who with a courage not appreciated in this country decreed, against the protests of the minister of the interior, that the Jews should be as free to vote for members of the Duma and to sit as members in the Duma as if they were Christians. Not Count Witte, whose relations with the Jews are as intimate as those of Lord Rosebery with the Rothschilds. Not General Trepov, whose ambitions lie in the line of maintaining order. The fact is, that the popular idea that everything in Russia, whether railway strikes or Jewish massacres, are due to elaborate organization and orders from somebody in St. Petersburg is sheer nonsense.

THEN WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

Put yourself in the place of the garrison of arbitrary power which has governed Russia all its life. It consists of office-holders, police, and gendarmes. It has been the Russian counterpart to the Protestant garrison in the days of Irish ascendancy. It monopolized all the offices; it reigned in the name of the Czar, and his watchwords were absolute autocracy and intolerant orthodoxy. Now, suddenly, it finds that the Czar has gone over—horse, foot, and artillery—to the Liberal party, whose watchwords are limited autocracy and religious liberty. At one fell swoop they see themselves in danger of losing their places, and being sacrificed to the vengeance of their triumphant adversaries. Is it wonderful, with the dogged stubbornness of their race, they have avenged themselves of their adversaries? Here let me quote some remarks made by a great Russian orator, and Radical exile, M. Roditchev, of Tver. Speaking at my meeting at Moscow, he warned us not to think that the *régime* of liberty and law would be established

without a struggle. Imagine, he said, a mass of people wielding more or less of power having families, relations, connections, and friends,—all dependent upon the old, arbitrary system, to whom its maintenance is a matter of life and death. Imagine these persons being told that the privileges and the salaries they have hitherto monopolized are to be taken from them and bestowed on other people. That, you must admit, will be a social shock, more severe than that of the liberation of the serfs. Can you be surprised if these persons should declare, "We will not submit to this meekly,—we will bribe; we will fight tooth and claw; we will not retreat without a struggle, for it is the guarantee of our existence that is at stake." That is what has happened and will continue to happen for some time to come in Russia.

BUT WHY ATTACK THE JEWS?

Because every reactionary says and, probably, believes that the Czar has been captured by the Jews. I do not say that as a reproach. It is rather a glory. The Jews are the most oppressed race in Russia. They have, also, more brains than any other race. It was their simple duty to do whatever they could to render impossible the continuance of the arbitrary *régime*. They threw themselves into the struggle for emancipation. They secured the victory. And they celebrated with natural but somewhat irritating exultation. They gloated over their fallen foe. Hence, as Mr. Balfour said in excuse for the Jingo mobs who attacked the pro-Boers, "Human nature has its limits." Hence the massacres of the Jews, which are mere preludes to scenes of horror besides which St. Bartholomew and the Sicilian vespers will seem but comparatively human episodes in the history of mankind.

THE EMPEROR.

Since General Gordon stood on guard in the citadel of Khartum, I know of no human situation so charged with pathos and tragedy so calculated to thrill the heart of mankind as that which is presented at Peterhof to-day. The parallel, both political and personal, is terribly complete. The lone, slight figure of the Czar, as he stands alone at Peterhof confronting the ever-rising flood of anarchy, which threatens to submerge Russia, bears a singular resemblance to the heroic form which now sleeps somewhere in the far Sudan. The resemblance in height, complexion, and color of the eyes and hair is remarkable, but it is still more marked in the supreme and dominating characteristic. Since General Gordon gave me a copy of Thomas à Kempis, as he bade me his last farewell, I have

met no man who was imbued to the same extent with the spirit of simple religious faith as the present Emperor. It is the sole secret of the marvelous composure and cheerful calm which is the amazement, the envy, and the inspiration of all those who are admitted to the confidence of the Czar. Call it fatalism, mysticism, fanaticism, if you will, it has at least secured to-day for Russia, in the midst of an atmosphere that is hot with fever, one cool head and one stout heart unaffected by the delirium and the terrors of the revolutionary storm. The throne may be reeling, but its occupant is neither sick nor giddy nor afraid. His only fear is that he may fail in understanding what is the will of God. If that be quite clear, then "though he slay me yet will I trust in him."

It is remarkable that nothing is more exact than the parallel between the Czar of the Duma and General Gordon in 1885. Both men began to rule, the one in Russia, the other in Sudan, on very different lines. Gordon was once governor-general of the Egyptian oppressor. Nicholas II., in his tender youth, was made to pose as the inflexible champion of ancient autocracy. Now there is nothing which he is not willing to do to save his people, and to save Russia. He has voluntarily limited his autocracy, and he is prepared to go much further in that direction,—indeed, to go as far as any one,—so soon as he is clear as to his duty. He is a Gordon in his selfless devotion to what he sees to be right. But he has not Gordon's magnificent assurance as to his insight into the divine counsels which was the inspiration of his genius. Neither is he, as Gordon was, a man of restless energy and indomitable will. Hence, his very excessive conscientiousness and natural modesty lead to hesitation, the parent of delay; and that delay, which rendered possible the Japanese war, has been the chief contributing cause to the excessive danger of the present crisis. Allowances should be made for the *vis inertia* of the bureaucratic machine. Even Peter the Great could not speed it up beyond a certain point, and Nicholas II. has neither the demoniac energy nor the ruthless will of his great predecessor.

RAPID PROGRESS OF THE REVOLUTION.

The pace of reform in Russia in the last twelve months has been abnormally rapid, and neither the Emperor nor his councilors realized the deadly urgency of instant decision and resolute action. Hence, the avalanche of revolution descending upon the glacier of official routine finds it often much easier to destroy and overwhelm than to quicken the speed of the glacial progress.

But although the Emperor postponed till after the eleventh hour the concessions which he had personally assured me, two months before, he was firmly resolved to make, it is still possible it may not have been too late. Round the Emperor now, definitely embarked upon the new era of constitutional liberty, there should rally every man who has a heart to feel, a head to reflect, or wife or children whom he cares to save from the horrors of anarchy.

MR. STEAD'S MISSION IN RUSSIA.

I am asked about my mission, its success or failure. I can best explain that by a simple parable. Russia in the past has been like an Indian river bed, full of rocks and boulders, down which in summer trickles a tiny rivulet. Down the bed of this river the Czars for generations have ridden, spurred, and whipped the old bureaucracy, which knew its way round the rocks. But Russia, for the last months, is like that same river bed when the monsoon has burst and the floods are out. I arrived just when the old mule was being carried off its feet by the rising water. I knew its rider, and I asked him what he was going to do. He replied that he was going to change the mule's saddle for a seat in a Liberal boat, whose crew was resting on its oars. I rushed across to the boat and asked them when they were going to pull out to take the Czar off the mule. They replied, "Not till the rider takes off his spurs and drops his whip and gets out of the saddle."

Back I went to the Czar, and told him what they said. "Oh yes," he replied, "I am going to—some day. But how do I know if the Liberal boat can navigate this boiling flood? The boat can float in deep water; but do they know these rocks over which the river is rushing, but which are there all the time?"

I assured the Liberals the Czar really meant to embark in their boat. They scoffed at me. All the while the water was rising. All the time I was between the two parties, urging them to mutual trust and decisive action. Precious time was lost; but at last, a week on Monday midnight, the Czar leaped off the saddle and got into the boat.

IF THINGS COME TO THE WORST,—ANARCHY AND WAR.

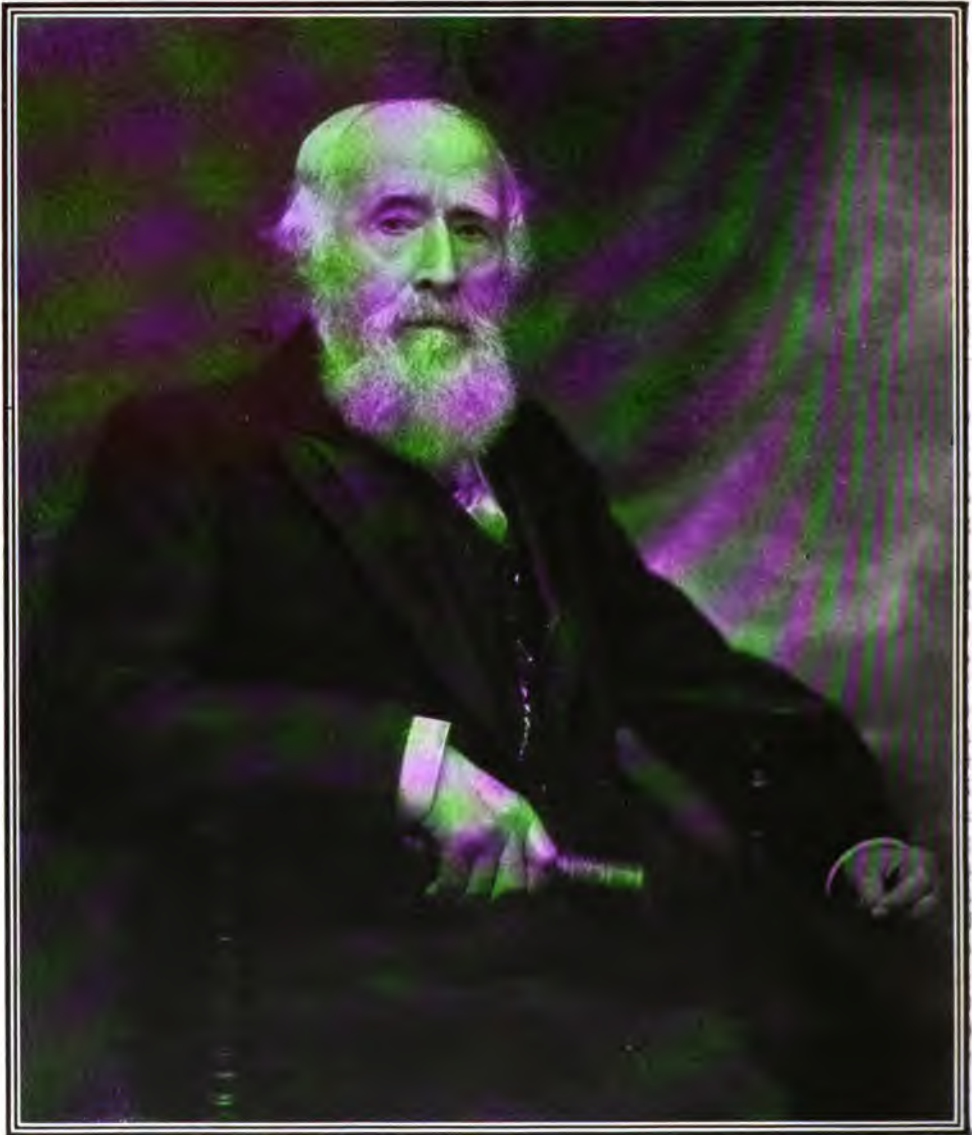
It is a safe rule always to hope for the best, and to prepare for the worst. What the worst will be in Russia no one can say. But if we assume that from any cause Count Witte fails, and as a further result the dynasty perishes, the first immediate consequence would be civil war, as in the Caucasus and at Kronstadt to-day.

The army would be divided against itself. There would be no one capable of appealing to the support of the whole nation. Russia would burst like one vast bomb. All the criminal and savage forces with which both parties have played in turn would be unloosed. The Russian is the most amiable and good-natured of men when sober. But when he is mad drunk, he is the most terrible engine of incarnate destruction in the world. What the Jews have suffered at Odessa the Jews will suffer everywhere. Nor will it stop with the Jews. The landlords and the bourgeoisie,—by which is meant every man who does not wear his shirt over his breeches,—will share their fate. The Russian peasants,—and all the workmen are peasant-born,—have not even a glimmering notion of the sanctity of private property. To take their neighbors' goods, and to steal their landlords' crops, and to cut down his woods,—now these things may be crimes, but no muzhik can be got to regard them as sins. It is the point of view of the English poacher with regard to game infinitely extended. Jacques, on a scale infinitely worse than France at her worst moments, will become universal. The flight of landed proprietors will be followed by the exodus of foreigners. Among the contingencies, not by any means beyond the range of possibilities in the immediate future, if the Czar goes down, are the cessation of the payment of interest on the Russian debt, the German occupation of Poland and the Baltic provinces, the extension of the social revolution into Austria, an international expedition for the rescue of the embassies of St. Petersburg, and an international naval expedition to capture the Black Sea and restore order in the Caucasus. Even if these things may appear somewhat difficult to conceive, even the most sluggish imagination ought to realize the need for the immediate preparation on the part of all powers who have subjects in Russia to provide means for their safe exit before the time when the red cock crows and revolutionary anarchy reigns throughout the land.

PERHAPS A MILITARY DICTATORSHIP.

After a period of lawlessness and civil war, there will probably emerge some strong, capable man, soldier or civilian, who will carve his red corse-paven way to a dictatorship which will stand no nonsense about universal suffrage and fundamental liberties. Before he appears, and during the process of his upheaval, Russia will resemble China during the Tai-Ping rebellion.

Between civilization and this scene of unexampled horror there stands but the frail barrier of a reeling throne.



SIR GEORGE WILLIAMS.

THE founder of the Young Men's Christian Association, Sir George Williams, died in London on November 6, at the age of eighty-four. On the following Sunday, memorial services were held in the thirty-nine countries where the Y. M. C. A. is organized, in honor of the man who formed the first association, sixty-one years ago, in a London dry-goods store where he was employed. Mr. Williams not only rose from an humble clerkship to the proprietorship of a great business, but he lived to see what is granted to few men,—the growth in his own lifetime of

a movement originated by himself to world-wide proportions. It was shown at the world's conference of the Y. M. C. A. held in Paris last April that the organization has enrolled more than 700,000 members in 8,000 associations throughout the civilized world. The venerable founder was knighted by Queen Victoria on the occasion of the jubilee of the London Association, in 1894. He was able to be present at the Paris conference of 1905, and to greet delegates from every quarter of the earth. He retained to the last a keen interest in the progress of the movement.

AMERICA AND GERMANY: AN ACADEMIC INTERCHANGE.

BY JAMES H. CANFIELD.

(Librarian of Columbia University.)

AT his official diplomatic reception on New Year's Day, 1904, the German Emperor suggested to the American ambassador in Berlin the desirability of an exchange of professors between German and American universities, with a view to promoting a better understanding between the two peoples and a wider knowledge of their respective history and institutions. Although this proposition was stated in outline only, the Kaiser evidently appreciated the beneficent results of such an interchange for both countries. For some reason the project lay dormant from that time until the past summer. It has been mentioned in a rather vague way; distinguished officers of German universities have lectured in the United States by private arrangement or upon the invitation of American universities, or by a combination of both; and we have, at least, one example of the occupant of an American chair lecturing abroad; but nothing was done to meet the definite thought of the Emperor.

It remained for the president of Columbia University, who has always shown extraordinary insight and breadth of vision in educational affairs combined with a profound interest in the public welfare, to elaborate in a practical way the details of this scheme, and to make it practicable by endowment.

During the last summer President Butler went abroad for much-needed rest. The recognition accorded him everywhere was exceedingly flattering, not only to himself, but to the university which he represents. After a series of most delightful functions in England, he turned to the Continent. Following an interesting and fruitful visit to the University of Paris, at Wilhelmshöhe, in August, he found Professor Burgess, of Columbia, and the two gentlemen spent nearly a fortnight together in absolute rest and recreation. The Emperor came to Wilhelmshöhe while they were there, and a most informal interview gave President Butler the opportunity he had so long sought of detailing his plans personally to the one who must have the credit for the initiative. During a long walk in the gardens of the palace the whole plan was discussed in all its relations and bearings. The Emperor



DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.
(President of Columbia University.)

was greatly pleased to have his original thought so keenly appreciated and made practical from the administrative standpoint. He asked both the gentlemen to return to dine with him on a later day; sent for Dr. Althoff, the director of the Prussian Ministry of Education, and at this second interview all final arrangements were made and the matter was closed.

It was then determined that a professorship of American history and institutions, to be known as the Theodore Roosevelt Professorship, should be established in the University of Berlin by and under the general direction of Columbia University. Incumbents are to be appointed by



PROFESSOR JOHN WILLIAM BURGESS.

(First incumbent of the Roosevelt professorship at Berlin.)

the Prussian Ministry of Education, with the sanction of the Emperor, upon nomination of the trustees of Columbia. Nominations need not be confined to the officers of Columbia, but the university may name any scholar of standing from any other American institution of learning, or even from the ranks of those who may be called scholarly laymen. The term of office of each incumbent will be one year. It is hoped that any one appointed from any American college or university will be granted leave of absence, with at least half-pay, to undertake these duties.

The plan of this work includes definite lectures in course, covering American history,—especially, perhaps, political history; American constitutional and administrative law, with particular reference to the history of the development and interpretation of such law; the more fundamental and prominent problems and movements in this country in economics and sociology, emphasizing naturally the industrial policy and growth of the country; very complete discussion of the rise and progress of public education on this side of the Atlantic; and, later, a discussion of American contributions to art and literature, and to the sciences,—especially, perhaps, within the field of applied science.

Although this instruction is to be given first

at the University of Berlin, the course may be repeated at other German universities later in the academic year, as these institutions may determine and the Ministry of Education may approve.

The converse of this proposition—what may be called the reverse of this educational shield—is the establishment by the German Government at Columbia University of a professorship of German history and institutions, to be maintained and conducted precisely as the American professorship will be maintained and conducted at Berlin. The lectures at Berlin will be delivered in German, those at Columbia in English.

The authorities at Columbia hope that this is but the first of a number of similar professorships to be established as opportunity and means are afforded. It is quite possible that before very long similar arrangements will be made with at least one English university, and with the University of Paris. During President Butler's visit to these institutions, last summer, the matter was presented and favorably received. The experiment, however, will begin with the Berlin chair, as just stated.

The direct benefits arising from this movement are easily seen, but it is a question whether it is possible now to make a true estimate of its far-reaching results. To give the students of these two great countries opportunities to make a careful study of the spirit and life of each as shown in their institutions and laws, and as presented by one who is not only a scholar but a citizen, cannot but be helpful and stimulating to the last degree. We are near kin to the Germans, and Western civilization gladly recognizes a very specific debt to that people. Some of the grandest gifts to modern life have come to us from the old Teutonic tribes. Most of our vigor and staying power is from the Northman, and the Northman is certainly a development of the Teuton. It is probably true that all of the instincts of our modern life are Teutonic. All common law, all custom, is of this origin. The strength and intensity of purpose, the virility and grip and grit of modern life, the determination to lead a masterful existence—these are certainly of Germanic origin. The strongest single characteristic manifested by the old Teutonic tribes, and by their immediate or remote descendants, has always been that of freedom. The fact of individual independence, the recognition of individual rights, the acceptance of individual responsibility—this it was which made the Teutons and has made the Germans the pioneers of modern life. This it is which in a certain sense made the early Germanic world the modern world. This recognition of freedom, of freedom as the

essential attribute of the human soul, of the human spirit, of freedom as the rightful heritage, not of the few, but of the many; not of the mighty only, but of all men,—this it is which seems to have made the mission of the Teutonic people that of planting this principle as the organizing and saving force of all institutions.

Certainly these are fundamental principles of Western civilization, of which it goes without saying that we of the United States are the recognized exponents. No other people in all history has gone so far in a practical recognition of the place and value of the individual man, in a desire to secure the betterment of each and thus ensure the advancement of all, in a willingness to meet and abide by the demands of the general welfare, in an endeavor to quicken and stimulate and strengthen each citizen by expecting him to bear his share of responsibility, to render his fair share of public service; in a recognition of each as a true unit of power. There is a close and vital connection therefore between these two countries, and this reciprocal



HIS MAJESTY THE GERMAN KAISER.



MR. JAMES SPEYER, OF NEW YORK.

study of the present form and development of these principles in each country must be enormously helpful, not only to the understanding of each by its own people, but to mutual understanding and mutual respect and regard.

It is well, also, that two great civic universities interchange courtesies and become mutually helpful in this way. Nor may we forget the fact that next to Berlin itself, New York is the largest German city in the world at the present time.

This undertaking has been made possible by the intelligent generosity of Mr. James Speyer, of New York City, who has placed in the hands of the trustees of Columbia the sum of fifty thousand dollars for the endowment of this professorship. This is not the first proof which Mr. Speyer has given of his generosity, of his intelligence, and of his patriotism. By this last act he has earned the indelible gratitude of his fellow-citizens and fellow-countrymen.

The trustees of Columbia have already nominated, as the first incumbent of the new chair, John William Burgess, Ph.D., LL.D., Ruggles professor of political science and constitutional law and dean of the faculty of political science in Columbia University,—to enter upon his duties at the University of Berlin in the winter of 1906-07, giving instruction in American political history. The appointment will, undoubtedly, be immediately confirmed by the Prussian

ministry of education. Professor Burgess is a native of Tennessee and a graduate of Amherst College, in the Class of 1867. After graduation, he studied law and was admitted to the bar at Springfield, Mass., in 1869. But he turned his attention almost immediately to education, and accepted the chair of English literature and political economy at Knox College, Illinois, where he served from 1869 to 1871. For two years thereafter he studied history, public law, and political science at Göttingen, Leipsic, and Berlin. From 1873 to 1876 he occupied the chair of political science at Amherst College. In the latter year he was called to the chair of political science and constitutional law in Columbia, and he has been dean of the faculty of political science since 1890. He is an acknowledged authority in his chosen field; is the author of several volumes on political science and comparative constitutional law, on the middle period of the political life of the United States, on the Civil War and the Constitution, on Reconstruction and

the Constitution, etc.; and he has been a constant contributor to reviews and to the current press generally on history, politics, and constitutional topics. He has spent much time abroad during the past few years, and is almost as well known on that side of the Atlantic as on this. There is every reason to believe that these initial lectures will set a high standard for those who are to follow him.

The interest of President Roosevelt in this undertaking and his hearty approval of the scheme prompted him to give immediate assent to the request of Mr. Speyer to attach his name to the chair, and the warm personal relations existing between the German Emperor and the President led the former to accede to the suggestion with evident pleasure. It is an exceedingly appropriate title for a chair which is to present to the German student, and through the German student to the German people, the fundamental attributes and the typical characteristics of American national and civic life.

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AND ITS NEW PRESIDENT.

BY PROFESSOR GEORGE P. GARRISON.

THE University of Texas was much read of and talked about, at the time of its organization, throughout the United States. Its "magnificent endowment" and its "grand future" were material for many a glowing outburst of educational rhetoric. As a matter of fact, however, its prestige was small to begin with, for its real strength and importance were yet mainly in the unrevealed future.

The University of Texas was the conception of Mirabeau B. Lamar, the second president of the republic. It originated as part of a general system of public instruction for which the Anglo-American colonists of Texas had been asking even before they broke away from Mexico, and the failure to provide for which was one of the grievances enumerated in their declaration of independence.

EARLY LAND ENDOWMENT.

The Constitution of the republic, adopted in 1836, enjoined upon its Congress the establishment of such a system, and in pursuance of the mandate President Lamar, in his annual message of December 21, 1838, recommended a suitable appropriation of lands for the purpose of "general education." Visionary and unprac-

tical as he was in some respects, he had the insight and intelligence to understand that the moment was opportune to secure a share of the potential wealth of Texas for the ends of a higher civilization. His recommendation was followed in the statute approved January 26, 1839, which provided for a grant of three leagues* of the public domain to establish a primary school or academy in each county, and of fifty leagues for the foundation and support of two colleges or universities.

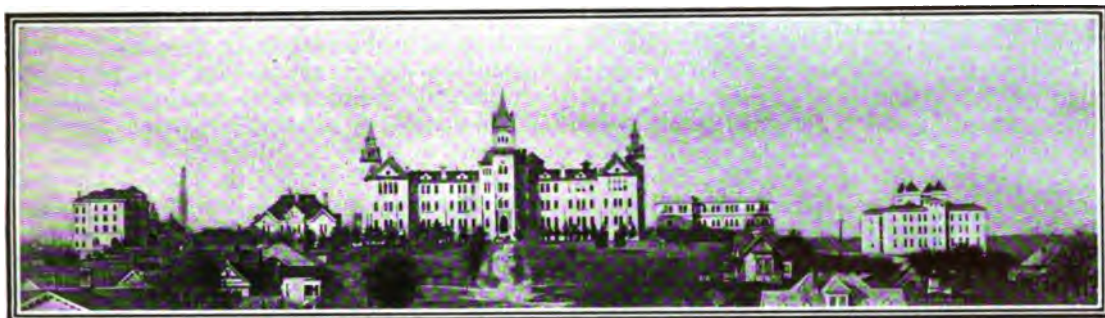
Thus was the idea born. How it grew may be noted here only in brief. A statute of the Texas Legislature, approved February 11, 1858, provided for the organization of the "University of Texas,"—this time only a single institution. The Civil War prevented the consummation of the plan, and an effort to revive it in 1866 was rendered abortive by the political disturbances and uncertainty of the period.

ACTUAL ORGANIZATION TWENTY-THREE YEARS AGO.

Finally, the constitution of the State, adopted in 1876, directed that—

The legislature shall, as soon as practicable, establish, organize, and provide for the maintenance, sup-

* A league contains 4,428.4 acres.



A GENERAL VIEW OF THE MAIN BUILDINGS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS, AT AUSTIN.

port, and direction of a university of the first class, to be located by a vote of the people of this State, and styled the "University of Texas," for the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences, including an agricultural and mechanical department.

In accordance with this injunction, a statute providing for the organization of the university was passed by the legislature of the State, and was signed by the governor, March 30, 1881. The actual organization now took place, and in September, 1883, the university was opened for the reception of students.

The location of the university was chosen, as the statute provided, by a vote of the people of the State. After an energetic canvass by a few enthusiasts, the "main university," consisting at first of the academic and law departments, went to Austin, and the "medical branch" to Galveston.

By the constitution of 1876, the Agricultural and Mechanical College of the State, at Bryan, which was organized under a statute passed in 1871, and which began work a few months after the constitution was adopted, had been made a branch of the university, with certain functions defined by the law. The college, therefore, was already in existence, with a board of directors of its own, when the statute organizing the university became effective, and it continued on its way, showing no undue deference toward its parent born out of time. It only asked for a share of whatever income the university might obtain from its lands and other sources of revenue. Beyond this, the college, naturally enough, was willing to take care of itself. After a few years of friction, a *modus vivendi* was reached, by which the two institutions have remained in harmonious relations but practically separate in their organization.

LOCATION AND EQUIPMENT.

The campus of the main university is a square of forty acres in extent, situated in the northern

part of the city of Austin, and about a mile from the Capitol. It consists of an elevation gently sloping to the south, east, and west, on the crown of which stands the main building, with the others situated near it in an irregular group on all sides except the south. The land was reserved for the purpose for which it is used when the city of Austin was laid off in 1839. The first structure erected thereon was the west wing of the present central building, which stood for several years alone and incomplete. In the course of time, however, this building was finished, and others followed,—not always as quickly as might have been wished, but gradually, in response to, at least, the most imperative needs.

The beginnings of the university were modest enough. Indeed, they seem, when measured by the present size and strength of the institution, almost contemptible. The single incomplete building in use at the outset, with all the equipment, including library and laboratories, was worth less than \$100,000, and the expenditure the first year, exclusive of what went for the building itself and the original stock of physical and chemical apparatus, was only about \$50,000. The faculty, when the work began, was made up of six professors and four assistants in the academic department and two professors of law. The student body, gathered entirely without the sifting process of an entrance examination, numbered two hundred and twelve, a large proportion of them coming from the city of Austin. But the faculty contained eminent men and inspiring teachers; and there were among the students many whose intelligence and enthusiasm rendered them worthy of the oldest and largest universities of the world, and who have since "made good" in almost every walk in life. Of the first eight professors but two are yet living. These are doctors John W. Mallet and Milton W. Humphreys, both at present of the University of Virginia.

STATISTICAL GROWTH.

The horizon of the institution has widened rapidly. Low-water mark in the record of attendance was reached in the year 1885-86, when the total number of students was only one hundred and ninety-nine. Since then it has been difficult to meet the increasing demands of expansion. And with increase in numbers has come increase in all that constitutes the strength of a university. Additional and better buildings; a more extensive and efficiently conducted library; completer and more fully equipped laboratories; growing differentiation of work and greater effectiveness in both teaching and investigation; purer and better justified athletics; closer affiliation with preparatory schools and colleges involving a much higher degree of mutual advantage; better preparation on the part of students and higher ideals and standards of attainment; improved methods and less friction in the administrative work; increasing and heartier coöperation on the part of regents, faculty, alumni, and students, and the growth of a healthy *esprit de corps* pervading the entire organization,—all these are elements of the rapidly unfolding life of the University of Texas. Best of all is the certainty which the friends who have so anxiously watched its progress hitherto can now feel that this is only the beginning.

The faculty, including instructors of all ranks and the officers of administration and government, now numbers one hundred and thirty, and the total attendance, shown by the Catalogue of 1904-05,—including the departments of literature, science, and arts, engineering, law, medicine, and the summer school,—reached 1,486. The matriculation at the opening of the current session assures a total for 1905-06 that will be little, if any, short of two thousand. The plant may be valued, roughly, at \$1,150,000. The annual expenditure for the biennial term ending August 31, 1905, including the cost of the new engineering building, was about \$350,000.

LANDS AND INCOME.

All large educational institutions are costly. Immaterial as their transcendently rich and fine product may be, it cannot come to perfection without the gross fertilizing of abundant cash. In the life of a university, therefore, revenue is always a most important consideration. The support of the University of Texas is derived partly, either through sale or lease, from the lands with which the State has endowed it. There are about two million acres of these lands; but they lie mainly in the grazing districts of the State, and their prospective value is far less

than the uninformed have been led to suppose. The income obtained from them at present is about seventy-five thousand dollars per annum. Tuition being free, the fees collected from students constitute so small a part of the annual revenue as to claim little attention in an estimate of the university's resources. The point has long been passed at which the aggregate amount from both fees and endowment was at all adequate for its needs. The State, however, has shown itself increasingly liberal in making appropriations therefor out of the general revenue. Unless these should be superseded,—at least, in part,—by a special tax, they must be depended on for the future more and more. But it can hardly be feared that a State growing in population and in wealth as rapidly as Texas will ever allow its university to fall behind in the educational race.

A FOCUS OF STATE PRIDE.

It seems apparent, indeed, that the people of Texas regard the State University with a feeling of genuine loyalty and pride. Nor is the explanation far to seek. It lies to a large extent in the fact that the institution so clearly embodies the highest ideals of the commonwealth. Scarcely can the University of Leyden itself claim a more heroic entry on the stage of human affairs. Born virtually of the Revolution, out of the poverty of Texas, and in the midst of her most stressful experiences, the University of Texas could hardly fail to attract the devotion of all who are capable of the thrill of patriotism and State pride. Evidently intended as the crowning feature of a general plan of popular education, it has been identified from the outset with popular interests and aspirations. The motive of President Lamar in the part he took in making the University of Texas possible is well reflected in an utterance of his own, which was used by the late President Prather as its motto:

Cultivated mind is the guardian genius of democracy. . . . It is the only dictator that freemen acknowledge and the only security that freemen desire.

When it was first organized, the University of Texas adopted a system of faculty government modeled after that of the University of Virginia. Its affairs were ably managed by the first chairman, Dr. Leslie Waggener, and by his successor for a single year in that office, Prof. T. S. Miller, but the system itself proved so unsatisfactory that in 1895 it was given up and a president was elected. First to fill the place was Dr. Waggener, who held it *ad interim* for one year. He was succeeded by Dr. George T. Winston, now presi-

dent of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of North Carolina, and Dr. Winston, in 1899, by Dr. William L. Prather, who died July 24, 1905. The present incumbent, Dr. David F. Houston, was elected August 15, 1905.

THE NEW PRESIDENT.

President Houston has nearly reached the Osler limit,—that is, he has almost completed the fortieth year of his age. Were this, however, made the term of human activity, it would probably be a much more difficult matter to choose a president at all, either for a university or for the United States. To all appearances, the new president of the University of Texas has before him many a year of unimpaired vigor and effective work. He is a man of stalwart physique and athletic tendencies, whose fondness for outdoor exercise must have done much to preserve the perfect health he enjoys.

The place of President Houston's birth was Monroe, N. C., and the date of it was February 17, 1866. He took the degree of A.B. at South Carolina College, where he was tutor in ancient languages and a graduate student, 1887-88. He was superintendent of the Spartanburg schools, 1888-91; a graduate student of political science at Harvard, 1891-94, taking the degree of A.M. there in the year 1892, holding a Morgan fellowship, 1892-94, and being president of the Harvard Graduate Club during his last year at Cambridge; adjunct professor of political science in the University of Texas, 1894-97; associate professor, 1897-1900; professor, 1900-02; dean of the faculty, 1899-1902; president of the Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1902-05. He now returns to the University of Texas, after extensive experience and indisputable success as an executive, to undertake the administration of its affairs.

HIS QUALITIES AND THE OUTLOOK.

Good taste would obviously forbid any public characterization of a living university president by a member of his faculty. It may not be amiss, however, for the writer to report some of the opinions of Dr. Houston's friends. They believe of him that he is a man of energy, capacity, wisdom, and determination; that he is, on the one hand, decidedly liberal and progressive, and, on the other, sufficiently conservative to make progress steady; that he knows the true functions and duties of the institution over which he is to preside, and that he will strive for their fulfillment; that he is ready to do rational and effective battle with every unhealthy and dangerous influence, and to align himself with all such as are unquestionably good,



DR. DAVID F. HOUSTON.

(President of the University of

even where they are for the moment weak; and, finally, that he thoroughly understands the relations and proper attitude of the university both toward the people of Texas, to whom it belongs, and toward the outer world, to which it is the best index of Texas civilization.

Assuming that his friends are right, may his hands be strengthened, for there are mighty interests at stake. What could be a higher task than the constant infusion of new life into a social organism but lately sprung from the ashes of change and destruction? On the university president of the South devolve a function and a responsibility far greater than would be commensurate with the cost of his institution or the number of its students. It must be his, primarily, to direct and promote, through the potent instrumentality under his control, the readjustment made necessary by the Civil War,—to teach at home and abroad the lesson that the new South must still be the old in many of its best and most essential qualities, but that it is neither looking backward nor afraid to advance.

GEORGE MACDONALD: A NINETEENTH-CENTURY SEER.

BY W. GARRETT HORDER.

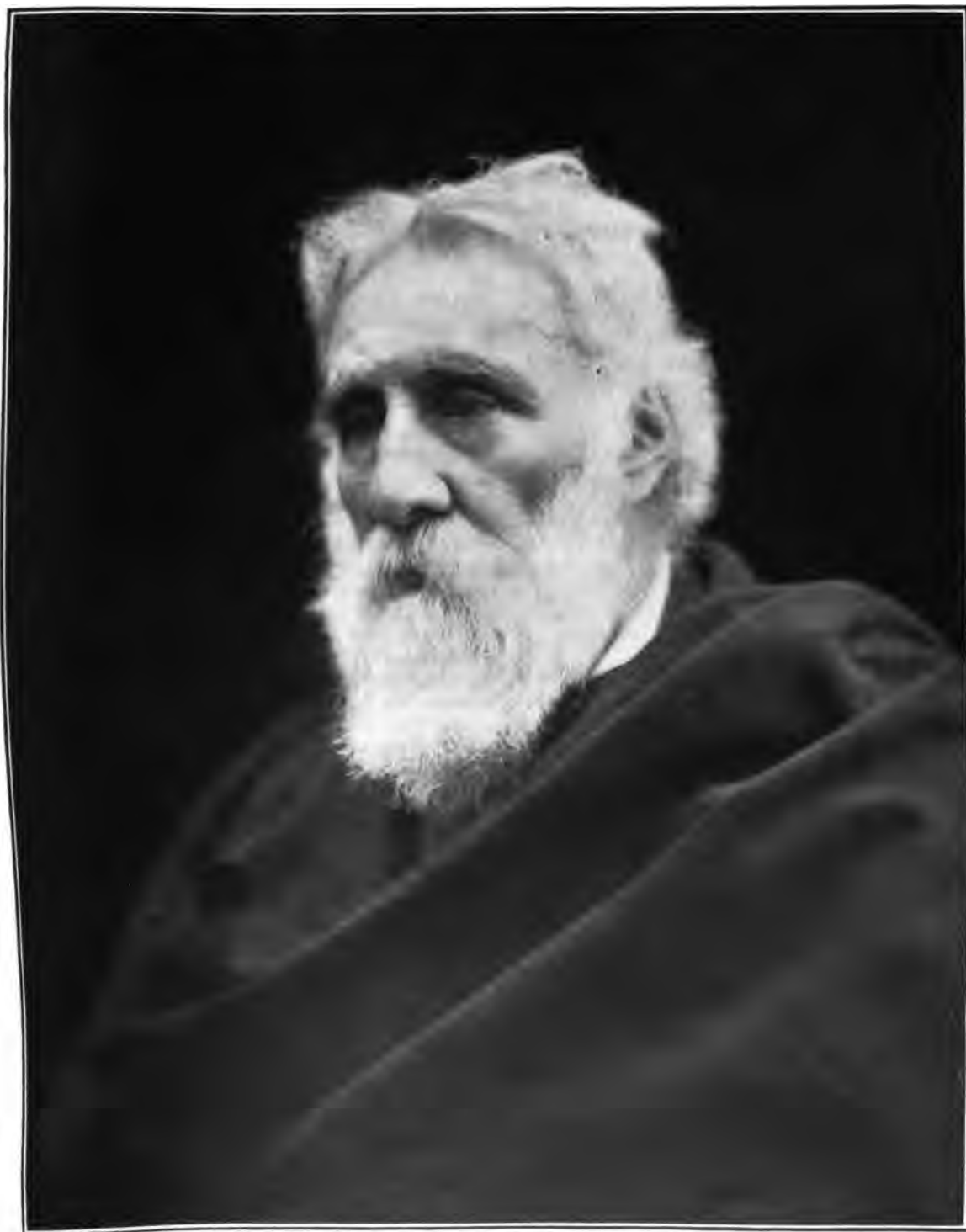
MR. GILBERT CHESTERTON has said, "If we test the matter by strict originality of outlook, George MacDonald was one of the three or four greatest men of nineteenth-century Britain." That will startle people who did not know him, and they will say, "This is only Chesterton paradox." But no one who knew him will dispute Mr. Chesterton when he describes him as "the sage,—the sayer of things is not the poet, for he does not sing; he is not the prose writer, for generally he cannot write. The things he produces form an artistic class by themselves,—they are logia of great passionate maxims, the proverbs of philosophy." And then he goes on to say, "He would have very much preferred to walk about the streets of some Greek or Eastern village with a long white beard, simply saying what he had to say."

Mr. Chesterton lays stress on the utterance. To him he is the sayer. But he could not have been the sayer unless he had been the seer. I am not sure that he had not a little of the Highland second sight which he describes in "The Portent," one of his best bits of writing. Anyway, you feel as you read his writings that he saw more than he expressed or could express.

And it was surely a very providential thing that he came to an age of great religious unrest,—when the anchors of faith were dragging in the gale,—to tell of the things which had held his own bark; that at the very time when the traditional faith was yielding under the searching scrutiny of modern days he should tell of what he himself had seen of God,—that when men had been trusting to the report, and had found the report unsatisfying, he should call them back to the thing. One of the greatest services he rendered to his age,—probably, the very greatest,—was this, that he led men to reverse the process described by Browning,—of "faith in the thing grown, faith in the report,"—and made them feel that it was not in reports about God, but in God himself as he had been revealed in Jesus Christ, the eternal life was to be found. To an age which had been feeding upon the husks of schemes, creeds, formularies, articles, confessions, he came with his hands full of the very bread which came down from heaven, and which gives life to the world.

George MacDonald was born at Huntly, in Aberdeenshire, just over eighty years ago. He came of a sturdy Scotch stock. His ancestors were among the fugitives who escaped the massacre at Glenwe. The sturdiness of the stock may be found in the fact that his parents separated themselves from the distinctively Scotch churches, and associated themselves with the Independent Church, which has never had a large following in Presbyterian Scotland. Emerson has said that every true man must be a Nonconformist,—that is to say, he will not conform to the existing or popular sympathy simply because it is such. George MacDonald was brought up in the freedom of independency, or, at all events, in such freedom as the Church of this day possessed, which in an ecclesiastical sense was great enough, but in a doctrinal sense was not very great. The atmosphere of his home was deeply religious, perhaps as to actual worship a little too religious. In the matter of reading the provision was not of the amplest. Beyond the Bible, the only food for the imagination was to be found in "The Pilgrim's Progress" and "Robinson Crusoe." Even his great countryman, Sir Walter Scott, was forbidden. Scanty fare this for a boy fonder of reading than of games. From the parish school he passed to King's College, Aberdeen, where he had gained a bursary.

There is no sign that he distinguished himself in the way of scholarship,—beyond taking prizes in chemistry and natural philosophy. When he reached man's estate he found his way to London as a tutor in a family. Here he connected himself with Trevor Chapel, Brompton, where Dr. Morrison, also an Aberdonian and a friend of his father, ministered. Then his thoughts were turned to the ministry, and he entered Highbury College, which has since been merged in New College, London. His stay there was, I believe, of the shortest. In this respect he was like a kindred-minded man, Thomas Toke Lynch. Neither of these men found what they wanted in the theological college of that day. They were both seers, and they wanted to see for themselves and not through other men's eyes. It is astonishing, when you come to think of it, how many of the most potent preachers owed nothing to the training of a Divinity School.



DR. GEORGE MACDONALD IN HIS LATER LIFE.
(From an unpublished photograph.)

This was the case with Charles Haddon Spurgeon and Joseph Parker.

George MacDonald's first and only charge was of the Congregational church at Arundel, in Sussex, almost opposite the gates of Arundel Park, the seat of the Duke of Norfolk. It was a short-lived ministry. His teaching was too original for many of the people to follow, and so it soon came to an end,—the ministry to one church was, but the prelude to a ministry to all the churches.

But George MacDonald at first found no place for himself as a preacher, and so he turned to teaching and writing for a livelihood. His first works were in poetry. But readers of poetry are few, save of the well-known poets, and so his verse did not do much to keep the wolf from the door. But one day his wife said to him: "You could write a story. Why don't you?" Wise advice,—which he wisely followed. The first result was the publication of the three stories by which he will be longest remembered, "David Elginbrod," "Alec Forbes," and "Robert Falconer." These three books had an immense influence on the religious thinking of that time. At last he had found his vocation, and he followed it as long as strength permitted. All his life he had to battle with weakness of chest. And so he was obliged to seek in winter the sunnier shores of Italy. There, at a house called Casa Coraggio, built for him by the generosity of a friend, he carried on a ministry of his own to all who cared to come and listen. Many a one found at Bordighera not merely bodily, but spiritual health. His summers were spent in England preaching and lecturing. His visits were eagerly anticipated by a wide circle of friends, who had found in his words help and comfort.

He was one of the men who helped to overthrow the old despotic idea of God, and to put in its place the fatherly idea of him. This is the great change in theology in the latter half of the nineteenth century. It is hard to believe now that this great idea which has revolutionized theology has so recently established itself that half a century ago it was regarded as heresy, and that men were thrown out of the Church for teaching it. Such is the fact. This doctrine, which Thomas Erskine, of Linlathen, taught in books and letters, and MacLeod Campbell and others preached from the pulpit, was made current coin by George MacDonald's novels. The truth embodied in a tale entered in at far more doors than when spoken from the pulpit or printed in theological books. The full establishment of that great fact to-day is due more to George MacDonald than to any other writer. And

let it be said here that he gave the true idea of fatherhood in God,—the full-orbed idea in which the father was at once the king and judge.

Thus, he bore a part, and it was a great one, with A. J. Scott, Thomas Erskine, MacLeod Campbell, Norman Macleod, Thomas Lynch, Baldwin Brown, John Pulsford, and others in bringing men back from the arid paths of metaphysical theology to the naturalness, the simplicity, the healthfulness, of Christ and the Gospels. Those who to-day walk in these gospel paths little realize the debt they owe to these men, who were keenly persecuted at the time.

MacDonald's novels were, to a large extent, sermons in disguise. He took little trouble about the plot, and in nearly every story there was one character through which the author communicated his thoughts to his readers. His output was very great,—too great for his permanent reputation. Some of his writing was done when he was out of health, and should have been resting rather than writing. I once asked him which novel he thought the best. He replied, "I had most models before me in 'Robert Falconer.'" This book to many, twenty or thirty years ago, was a veritable well of life. And it shows how far we have traveled to remember that "Robert Falconer" was offered to Dr. Norman Macleod for "Good Words," and that he was afraid to publish it.

As to his poetry, Mr. Ruskin has said that "The Diary of an Old Soul" is one of the three great sacred poems of the last century. If that be true,—and it is rather a big statement,—it is true only of the ideas and not of their lyric form. I once said to him, "There are lovely ideas in your hymns, but they lack clearness." He replied: "Yes, you are right. I never had time to polish them." Probably his finest hymn is "A quiet heart, submissive, meek," which is clear, picturesque, and lyrical. Lovers of ballads say that "The Yell o' Watery Deck" is one of the finest in the language. I should not be greatly surprised if his fairy stories should hold their place longest in public esteem. To a large extent his novels have accomplished their work. Their ideas have become current coin, and so have lost their novelty.

Had he not given himself so fully to fiction, he might have been one of the surest and sanest critics and exponents of English literature. I know of no treatment of English sacred verse more satisfactory than his "England's Antiphon."

Altogether, he was a many-sided man, who in his day played many parts, but chiefly that of a seer of the unseen and eternal, through whom multitudes found the "life that is life indeed."

WHAT DO OUR CHURCH BUILDINGS EXPRESS?

BY CHARLES DE KAY.

DO church buildings in the present day reflect or represent the religions, opinions, or dogmas of the congregation?

This is not a question for a debating society, but one of those irrelevant queries which may rise to the surface of any one's thoughts while strolling about a city like Manhattan or Brooklyn, Boston or Philadelphia, and noting, perhaps vaguely at first, the architecture of the various churches that line the avenues and relieve the monotony of the townscape.

Here are millions already spent and millions more in the spending for the purpose of sheltering great numbers of people while they pray and are prayed for, worship and are preached to, taught, advised, exhorted. Some are, strictly speaking, not churches, nor even chapels in the English sense of churches belonging to those who dissent from the Establishment, but literally are meeting-houses for men and women of the same religious sect. Others are the houses of God in which mysteries are solemnized that mean nothing if they do not mean the presence of a supernatural being at least at the ceremony, if not at other times. Is there anything about the exterior of these buildings which distinguishes meeting-house from church, Christian temple from Jewish synagogue, conventicle from the cathedral seat of a bishop?

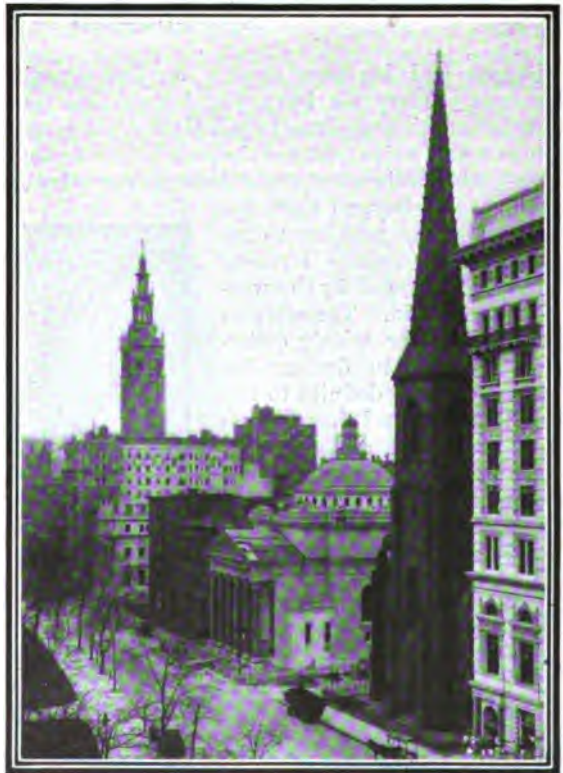
We should expect to find very radical differences in view of the fact that people belonging to different religious denominations make a great point of everything that separates them from others, and often attach a good deal more weight to comparatively trifling distinctions than to far more important things wherein they agree. Driven by the necessity of justifying to themselves and others the fact that they hold aloof from all denominations other than their own, they emphasize instinctively any distinctions however slight. Instead of eagerly bringing into prominence those essentials which they share with other religions, or other sects of the same religion, it is the inexorable law of the situation that they must ignore resemblances and fix their minds on differences. Would it not seem reasonable that the same instinct for separatism which guides them in dogma should express itself in architecture, so that the result would be this:—a glance at the cathedral, temple, church, chapel, or conventicle would be enough to ap-

prise the least attentive wayfarer what denomination worships within?

But this is not so. Who can tell a Catholic from an Episcopalian, a Presbyterian from a Methodist church? Abstract an inconspicuous cross or two from a modern Christian church and a Jewish congregation might be worshipping there. One has to examine a synagogue closely to make sure it is not a Christian meeting-house. From outside there is little or nothing to guide us, and even the interior is not very different.

And yet one of the cardinal doctrines of good architecture is this,—the building should express its purpose, and even indicate by its parts and members the use to which each one is put.

Take Dr. Parkhurst's old church on Madison



OLD AND NEW BUILDINGS OF THE MADISON SQUARE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH, NEW YORK CITY (DR. PARKHURST'S).

(The old church is in the right foreground of the picture; the new stands on the opposite corner. The new church was designed by Messrs. McKim, Mead & White.)



A MODERN METROPOLITAN CHURCH.

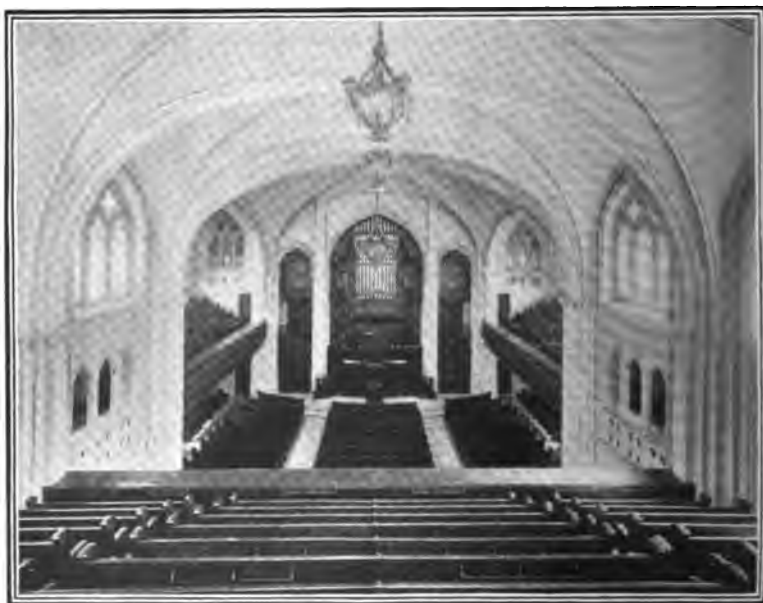
(The exterior of the new Broadway Tabernacle, New York. Design by Barney & Chapman.)

Square and his new church on the opposite corner. Here we have the brownstone box which architects please to call Gothic, the square tower and spire that are indeed, so far as they go, emblematic of the Christian house of worship. But beyond that the building has nothing to report of the special form of religion followed by the worshippers within. The new edifice, moreover, widely different as it is in design, has nothing more definite to say on that score. It has a porch of six round and polished granite columns supporting capitals of terra cotta glazed with bright colors, a façade and south side of pale buff brick set off by bands of colored tiles, a small dome raised enough to allow of windows in the circular clear-story, and decorations of the roof in terra cotta which include heads of angels with wings. It is Italian Renaissance, with strong touches of Byzantine ornament carried out in a spirit as gay as the Gothic brownstone church opposite

is gloomy. Perhaps the old edifice more nearly represents a severe and uncompromising view of the other world and of a God without pity, even as the ancient Hebrews from whom we took Him were themselves cruel and vindictive when they had the power; perhaps it stands for earlier stages of Presbyterian history when menaces of damnation rather than persuasion and the rewards of goodness were dispensed from the pulpit.

The new structure, barring those six dark columns, is a jewel-box full of brightness and color which tallies very well with the white marble Appellate Court and the buff tones of the Madison Square Garden to the north. But does it also correspond with a change in the outlook of Presbyterians on the world? Does it mean that the old

rigor has abated from the community, or merely that this particular minister, this particular congregation, have begun to take a more cheerful view of life and express their change of heart accordingly? Yes, there is something of that



INTERIOR OF A MODERN METROPOLITAN CHURCH.

(Looking toward the great organ in the interior of the new Broadway Tabernacle.)



A MODERN JEWISH SYNAGOGUE.

(The Temple Beth El, in New York, one of the latest architectural expressions of American Judaism.)

sort going on, which even in Scotland is restoring the altar, enriching the liturgy with music, bringing colored and embroidered stoles and academic hoods into the dress of ministers. A Presbyterian cathedral is proposed for Washington, to vie with Catholic and Episcopalian. In the plans, however, the tower and steeple have been dispensed with, and no graceful campanile, such as might accompany this building and remain entirely in keeping with the architecture, has been added to persuade the eyes toward heaven. Why should there be a campanile, the practical person asks, since the ringing of bells has no longer a useful purpose in cities, but, on the contrary, adds one more to those necessary noises which cannot be suppressed? Nevertheless, one feels that the absence of a bell-tower robs the church of something very distinctive and tends to confuse the building with a library or other secular edifice.

The old Broadway Tabernacle at Thirty-fourth Street, New York, the cast-off shell of a vigorous congregation, is a meeting-house built of a peculiarly gloomy stone in a style of architecture that belongs to a Church of England parish. It is Gothic cheapened and attenuated, without the carving and exuberance of statuary that covered fine Gothic with a lacework of details, and without the bold composition of piers, stained-glass fenestration, soaring vaults, and flying buttresses that made it a joy to the beholder. This is the old shell that told nothing save by specious inferences of the religious opinions of its congregation. But how with the new shell, at West Fifty-sixth Street?

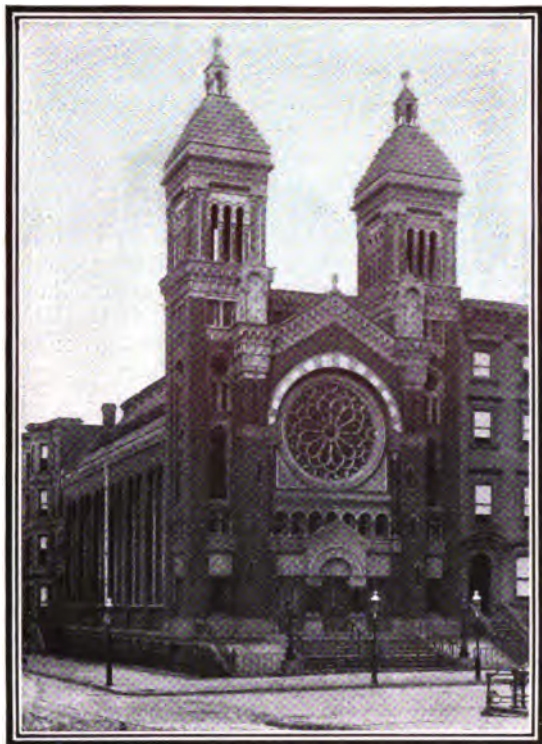
That is scarcely less a puzzle to the wayfarer. At the east end is a great tower for Sunday-school and other parochial work which vies in height with the lofty buildings near it. The church itself has more decorative detail outside than the old building, and there is a more cheerful note in the light-colored stone employed; but it does not assert itself at once and distinctively as a church. Rather does one pause and question what it may signify, and try to decipher whether, being a house of worship, it is a Christian house; and if Christian, what may be the special denomination or sect to which its flock belongs.

Vaguely one realizes that certain decorative details suggest a late but not flamboyant French Gothic, while the whole building has a faint flavor of the Orient. The great annex rising at the east seems an overgrown central tower such as soars above the transepts—until one discovers the real transepts farther west! With the usefulness of this tower we have nothing to do, being only concerned with the question, how far our churches express in their exterior the main purpose for which they exist and the peculiar doctrines of their congregations. Here are flying buttresses, rose windows, pinnacles and crockets, traditionally the signs of ecclesiastical buildings since the twelfth century, but space is lacking to the north and east to give the building dignity. The architects have done their best to



A SYNAGOGUE WITH CAMPANILE.

(The Keneseth Israel Temple, in Philadelphia.)



A TYPICAL AMERICAN JEWISH SYNAGOGUE.

(The Temple Beth Israel Bikur Cholim, in New York.)

meet the problem of a terribly circumscribed area with tall apartment buildings round about. Yet one asks whether the building expresses at all any cardinal thought connected with congregationalism.

It is the same with the synagogues of New York and Philadelphia, which, to start with, do not offer any special indication that the congregation is Jewish. Open towers crowned by stars instead of crosses are scarcely distinctive, and the mullions of rose windows arranged to form two interlaced triangles hardly shout the fact abroad that here is not a Christian church at all. In the case of the synagogue at Lexington Avenue and Seventy-second Street, the architect, in order to make at least that much clear, has placed conspicuously on the arch above the main portal an inscription in Hebrew.

The houses that men build themselves have often been likened, in a general way of speech, to their clothes, as if the dwelling were but an extension of raiment, although it may be that if we were able to penetrate the darkness of man's early history we should find that shelter came before garments, and that a rude idea of comfort under roofs and between walls grew up

before man thought of using the skins of beasts to protect himself from the cold. At all times unsophisticated people have expressed the grade of their culture by their houses, and have transferred their ideas of comfort, fitness, and beauty so expressed to the house of the dead and the house of God.

The connection of ideas between the homes of the living, the dead, and the divine is so natural and universal that archæologists find it safe to reconstruct the vanished dwellings of old races from the tombs and temples that survive. The round and square cabins of early inhabitants of Italy, made of wood and osier, are known from models in baked clay employed for the ashes of the dead, which are little huts and houses for the spirits to dwell in, while an analysis of stupendous temples erected by the Egyptians in the heyday of their power reveals the evolution from a house of a great complex, with pylons, courts, open and covered galleries, and various rooms in which the god was supposed to dwell invisible attended by his servants, the priests.

In China and Japan the temple remains close to the type of houses for living men. In old Egypt and old Greece we find merely an enlargement and formalization of a dwelling suited to a family which has become the home of a god or of gods represented by idols. In the roof and pediment of a Greek temple we see wooden construction transferred into stone, and by a process of diminution and elimination we can arrive at the Greek house as it must have existed when temples were of perishable materials. Fronts of rock-tombs in Asia Minor and façades carved in the face of cliffs near Etruscan sites in Italy are guides to the houses of Phrygians and Etruscans, when of the actual architecture not even a tradition remains. In the same way we find the forests of southern Mexico and Guatemala full of stone temples that reflect the wooden architecture of the old Mayas, dark and cabin-like houses on heights natural or artificial, with carved pillars and slabs which have moldered into dust long ago. In honor of their gods such houses, slabs, carved pillars, and statues were once reproduced on a finer plane in stone, and remain as witnesses that these people once stood on a higher ethnical level than they held when the whites arrived.

So the Romans, though they took their ideas of architecture from the Greeks of Asia Minor and Egypt, evolved a style of building that expressed their luxury and executive power. The Byzantine emperors stamped an Oriental love of color on the architecture of their period, which was based on the Roman; the harsh and somewhat gloomy spirit of the European middle ages



A CHRISTIAN SCIENCE TEMPLE.

(The Second Church of Christ, Scientist, New York.)

gave itself tongue in the religious buildings of the Romanesque. Profoundly stirred by the Crusades, the people of the Seine valley struck out the more profound and inspired style of building nicknamed Gothic, in which pointed arch and beautifully articulated skeleton of piers and flying buttresses hinted at but never logically worked out in the Levant; made their sudden, surprising appearance among a people but recently relieved from the fear that the world was coming to an end.

It was not the Christian faith alone which in an epoch of persecution found refuge in the catacombs and rose from the tombs to take possession of the face of the earth. What were the Egyptian temples other than a transference of the rock-hewn tomb to a dwelling for the god built of enduring stone? How strange that the idea of death always adheres to the house of God! From the jungles of Burmah, where the mighty ruins of Angkor Wat outvie in splendor of statuary the dagobas of Ceylon and the stupas of northern India, the remains of Buddhist temples center about a tomb of Gautama Buddha if it be only the tomb of one of his teeth. In Syria and ancient Italy the underground dwellings of the dead suggest to us the fronts and proportions of the temples which have vanished from the surface. And the same invincible obsession of the tomb as the type at bottom of the design when a temple is to be erected is found among the Mohammedans of the East and West, those who call themselves Persians and Indians as well as those who once took Spain and were thrust back again into northern Africa.

Naturally enough, under the more complex conditions of to-day, and especially in commu-

nities like ours, where all the peoples of the earth tend to flow together, we could not expect a simple, homogeneous style of architecture in religious buildings any more than in non-religious. But what we may look forward to is greater freedom from tradition than ever before, and a more perfect expression in the building of the ideas at bottom of the sect, denomination, faith, or religion to which the structure belongs. In this connection, one may consider certain peculiar facts very easily overlooked regarding the genesis of the house of God.

The church, in fact as well as according to etymology, is an extension of the cell,—the secret place of the mysteries, the crypt which became the cella. A Greek temple was nothing but a cella in which stood the effigy of the god,—a dark room which preserved many of the characteristics of the tomb. Even down to the Middle Ages, the holiest part of cathedral or minster is the crypt beneath the choir, which was either an ancient chapel, often carved from the rock, or purposely designed as a crypt and tomb for the remains of a saint when the foundations were laid.

Then it is that succeeding generations build that god a habitation, frame him gradually a



AN ADVANCED STYLE OF JEWISH SYNAGOGUE.

(The Temple Emanuel, New York. Design by Leopold Eidlitz.)



A CATHEDRAL IN MODERNIZED GOTHIC.

(St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York. Adapted by Renwick from a European model. A good illustration of the persistence of the stately Gothic in nineteenth-century church architecture.)

name, and begin to implore him to intercede for them with other and perhaps more powerful spirits who rule the world. This process of the tomb of a hero, prophet, or soothsayer turning into a temple may be observed in old Hellas. It is common to the Middle Ages also, but the hero has usually to be a saint. It exists to-day even outside the Church, for at Paris the Invalides is a perfect example of the deification of a great conqueror by erecting him a temple which is also a tomb. All that it lacks is a staff of clergy to celebrate the mysteries of some imperial religion over the bones of Saint Napoleon.

This origin of temple, church, and synagogue in a subterranean tomb or cave should not be forgotten when examining the religious edifices of ancient and modern peoples; it will often give a clew to things which otherwise seem a puzzle through their irrelevant character. When

you open a tomb of the Pharaohs dating back several thousand years before Christ, and find plain evidences of food and drink placed by the embalmed bodies, a chariot to drive in, a boat to row in, flowers to wear, attendant slaves to order about, that can only mean that the spirits need provisions and conveniences. So the Chinaman burns paper money and sends paper palanquins, horses, clothes, and a thousand other things to the departed spirit for its comfort. But if the spirit becomes a god he needs sacrifices and the altar's smoke, with savory meat roasted for his delectation. The libations fall on the earth in memory of the old cult of the tomb-dwelling god; the smoke offerings rise to gods who no longer inhabit the tomb, but dwell in the empyrean.

But while the faith purifies itself and casts off the grosser ideas, still it does not lose all memory of the past, when religion's roots pushed upward from the tomb to flower in spire and pinnacle. We have the entire process in the cathedral at Chartres, where the first Christian



A TYPICAL GOTHIC INTERIOR.

(Old Trinity, New York. Design by Upjohn.)

missionaries are said to have taken possession of certain grottoes sacred under pagan rule and the crypt represents this early abode of martyrs, while the splendid church, with its old glass and maze of statuary within and without, represents the emergence of the house of God from the house of the dead, the ecclesiastic from the hermit, the evolution from the crude meeting-place of early Christians into a palace of art filled with magnificent music and served by a troop of celebrants who in the gravity of their demeanor, in the solemnity of their chants as they move about the choir and the altar, recall the old theater of the Greeks.

We pass these great epochs of building in review, and (when we do not lazily assume that the question is answered) ask ourselves whether the changing styles which follow one another, one growing out of the other, do really reflect great differences in the religious views of the priests and potentates who caused them to be erected, or whether in each case it was some architect or group of architects little affected by ideas religious or philosophical who were responsible for these several variations from earlier types? You visit Caen and admire the Abbaye aux Hommes and the Abbaye aux Femmes, and perchance you summon up the prudent, valiant, and fierce adventurers from Normandy, Flanders, Poitou, and Brittany who crossed the Channel and subdued Great Britain, and say to yourself, "This



A MODERN ROMANESQUE CHURCH.

(Trinity Church, Boston. Design by H. H. Richardson. One of the most successful substitutions of the Romanesque for Gothic.)

heavy Romanesque just suited those simple, hard-hitting fighters." Then you go to Rouen, and at sight of the lacework of flamboyant Gothic all over St. Maclou, or the more simple and majestic Gothic of St. Ouen, you may imagine a great change to have taken place in the people of France during the interval between the Caen and the Rouen churches,—say, two hundred years. There was a change, it is true, in secular matters, a greater refinement, doubtless, and more attention to letters and the arts; but was there any in religious thought? Certainly not enough to warrant so bold a departure as the step from Romanesque to Gothic. The change seems to have taken place from causes quite outside the realm of dogma, and to have sprung from some-



A MODERN ROMAN CATHOLIC CATHEDRAL.

(The new cathedral in Philadelphia. Design by Le Brun.)



AN EPISCOPAL CATHEDRAL IN ROMANESQUE.

(St. John the Divine, New York. Design by Heins & LaFarge. This illustration is from the architects' plans. The cathedral will occupy a commanding site overlooking the Hudson River. When completed, it will, merely by reason of its elevation and dimensions, be one of the most impressive landmarks of the Greater New York.)

thing foreign to the circle of ideas in which the prelates of the Church revolved. Certainly at bottom there was an economic reason. These cities had become wealthy meanwhile, and the people wished to lavish their resources on the Church, without any intention of expressing more than a desire to decorate the exterior as richly as they could according to the methods then in use. But if this were all we would find merely an increase of costly materials, not a marvelous movement in thought which represents the highest flight of genius.

Old Trinity, Grace, St. Patrick's Cathedral, and a host of other churches in Manhattan, Brooklyn, and Philadelphia, testify to the power of Gothic even at this late date in capturing the preferences of congregations. On the other hand, there is a movement away from Gothic nowadays, as if that style of architecture no longer satisfied the feelings of congregations.

Is this mere restlessness, or does it correspond to some inner push? Or is it merely reaction from the brainless use of Gothic like the babble of an empty bore? Broadway Tabernacle and Dr. Parkhurst's new church are merely late and conspicuous examples. At Boston, the great innovator, H. H. Richardson, went back to a richer form of the Romanesque for Trinity Church, and at Philadelphia the able architect Le Brun used Renaissance ideas for the Catholic Cathedral, — dome, square transepts, engaged Corinthian columns, a sculptured architrave, and a classic pediment above the porch. The Cathedral of St. John the Divine in New York is another example of avoidance of Gothic, a harking back to Romanesque in the spirit of Richardson, and a determination to put more color into exterior and interior than was undertaken by our architects of religious buildings half a century or more ago.



THE INFLUENCE OF THE OLD SPANISH MISSION.

(The Dolores Mission, San Francisco. The extreme simplicity of this design is suggestive of a religious purpose.)

- A greater variety of church architecture is apparent nowadays. It is aided by the Russian and Greek Orthodox temples lately built in New York, their peculiar bulb-like domes suggesting the turban of the Turk as we see him portrayed by the Italian artists and illustrators of the Cinquecento. Russia and Greece, so long under Mohammedan tyranny, have the turban in their architecture.

These are straws that show a current which is running toward greater freedom from conventions in the architecture of churches. There is a new spirit abroad for the outward expression as there is for the limitations within which faith was confined. Gropingly, it may be, and fettered by traditions in building which affect architects much more profoundly than congregations, the sense of mankind is beginning to realize that architecture is a mode of expression of the human soul, and should be articulate and to the point. One of the few modern architects who felt the need of expressing something in his designs was H. H. Richardson. He may be said to have started the new spirit of dissatisfaction with such empty forms as we used to import from the European past, often without so much as a pretense, to adapt them to our times, our community, our climate, our habits. That we are in this epoch of transition must be clear from our mistakes as well as our partial successes. A new spirit in the social and political organization, a change in perspective in our view of the



AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE ORIENTAL DOME.
(The Orthodox Russian Church, New York.)

divine, and the fuller understanding of man's relation to the world under his feet and the world about him, must in time affect all the arts,—even that most conservative one, architecture. Especially empty of thought and feeling have been the transfers and modifications toward a fancied simplicity of which Gothic has been the victim until a regular revolt has occurred.

Not for the first time by any means has such a revolt occurred, as we recall at once when we think of the church architecture in Mexico and South America, of which we have northward-straying types in Texas and California; and of our colonial churches, such as St. Paul's Chapel in New York and the Old South in Boston, the village church at Lyme, Conn.; and many others that come to mind, such as the old church at Eastchester,



ILLUSTRATING MODERN PROGRESS, COMFORT, AND LUXURY.
(The Collegiate Dutch Reformed Church, New York. Design by Robert W. Gibson.)

built in 1765, and consecrated in 1805. These represent movements in the past against the tyranny of so-called Gothic construction, Gothic fenestration, statuary, and ornament generally. But that style has always reasserted its power over men's imagination, and, under certain conditions, may do so again.

The new movement is naturally very far from clear-cut and distinct in its purpose, but two features can be distinguished,—one of which is a lighter, gayer, gladder use of color, possibly the unconscious reflection of a happier and saner



Photograph by S. Preston, Jr.

A COLONIAL COUNTRY CHURCH.

(St. Paul's Church, Eastchester, N. Y. Note the resemblance in belfry and other features to its contemporary, "Old South," of Boston.)

view of man's relation to the past and future; the other being a decided tendency toward larger, costlier, and more complicated buildings reflecting modern comfort and luxury. Observe the church built by Robert W. Gibson for the oldest New York parish, the Collegiate Dutch Reformed, on West End Avenue and Seventy-sixth Street. Here the site, narrow enough for what was needed, has been utilized for church, chapel, and school. Reminiscent of Holland is the style of architecture, adapted from public buildings in Haarlem and Leyden, erected at the beginning of the seventeenth century; the rich treatment of roofs and walls responds to a modern demand for the picturesque. Perhaps we are on the threshold of a new era in ecclesiastical architecture, when one congregation will not copy another as one man



AN EXAMPLE OF THE OLD NEW ENGLAND CHURCH.

(Old South Church, Boston, typical of the colonial town meeting-house of New England.)

copies another man's coat, but the architect will be asked to say something to the point which cannot be misunderstood by believers.

If a review of present and past ecclesiastical edifices shows a rather surprising failure to indicate faiths and narrower differences within specific religions—note the Roman basilica taken over by the early Christians; note the Byzantine churches taken over by the Turks for mosques,—the fact that churches are very generally inexpressive of ideas relating to God and the supernatural does not preclude a different treatment in future. The modern architect has his advantages as well as his disadvantages by comparison with those who built in earlier times. He has means of publishing his conceptions unknown to the past; he can reach wide circles of readers, can explain and illustrate his ideas, and by means of pictures and models extend his views to the whole modern world. The various styles belonging to different parts of the earth are at his command, and not only those of modern times, but of the remotest past. These are his materials to pick and choose. Why should not some great composer arise in this the most ennobled and majestic of all arts and voice mankind's yearning for another and a better world in terms of architecture?

FOREIGN CONDUCTORS OF THIS SEASON'S MUSIC.

BY LAWRENCE GILMAN.

(Mr. Gilman is a well-known music critic for several metropolitan journals.)

THE "star" conductor, who has long been a conspicuous and essential feature of the foreign concert stage, is in prospect of becoming

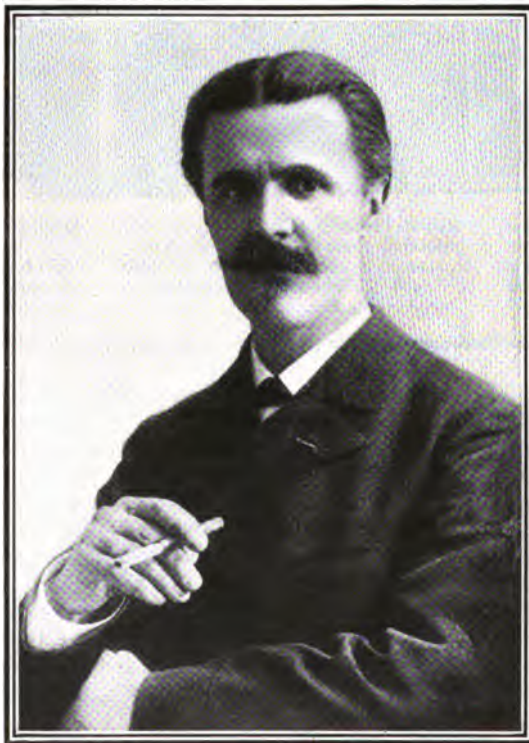
indispensable to musical America. Within the last two years we have been permitted, — in considerable part through the enterprise of the Philharmonic Society of New York, — to observe the activities of most of the "bâton prima donnas" of the old world. We have heard—and seen—the Germans, Weingartner, Strauss, and Kogel, the Frenchman Colonne, the Englishman Wood, and the Russian Safonov at the Philharmonic; and at the opera, the eminent and admirable Mottl. During the coming season the Philharmonic Society, persisting in its munificent and energetic policy, has arranged to import for the direction of its concerts four more European conductors of distinction, hitherto strangers to America, — Willem Mengelberg,

of Amsterdam; Max Fiedler, of Hamburg; Ernst Kunwald, of Frankfurt; and Fritz Steinbach, of Cologne. Aside from the Philharmonic's plans, the season will be made exceptionally notable by the visit of M. Vincent d'Indy, who stands at the head of the younger French school of composers, and of Serge Vasilyevich Rachmaninov, director of the Imperial Opera at Moscow, and one of the most forceful and imaginative of living Russian music-makers.

M. d'Indy, who comes to America to direct a

number of the concerts of the Boston Symphony Orchestra, will infuse into the winter's activities a vivid influence and personality. In the musical life of Paris no one

occupies a more conspicuous and authoritative place. He is generally conceded to be the leader of the ultra-modern group of French composers, as distinguished from the school which includes such men as Saint-Saëns, Massenet, and their artistic kinsmen. D'Indy, a pupil and devoted adherent of the luminous and gentle César Franck, is as far removed, in principle and practice, from this elder school as was Richard Wagner from the operatic idols of his day. Together with such other representatives of his class as Claude Debussy, Pierre de Bréville, and Paul Dukas, he is an experimentalist in the matter of musical form and expression. A musician of profound learning and the broadest culture, he has little sym-



M. VINCENT D'INDY, THE EMINENT FRENCH COMPOSER.

(M. d'Indy will visit the United States this season and conduct a series of concerts with the Boston Symphony Orchestra.)

pathy with the brilliant but vacuous formalities of Saint-Saëns, or the equally vacuous sentimentalities of Massenet and his followers. He is an ardent lover of the natural world, a man of wide reading, of keen discrimination and catholic sympathies; yet his predisposition is toward the austere, rather than toward that which is merely gracious and immediately appealing. He is essentially an aristocrat, in his tastes and in his art, — yet an aristocrat who is also a radical, even a revolutionist, in his methods and tendencies.



Herr Fritz Steinbach, of Cologne, one of the new Philharmonic conductors. Steinbach is known as a specialist in the music of Brahms.

Myneer Willem Mengelberg, of Amsterdam, the distinguished Dutch conductor, and the first of the Philharmonics Society's new leaders to appear this season.

Herr Max Fiedler, of Hamburg, one of the Philharmonic Society's new conductors. Fiedler is Director of the Conservatory of Music at Hamburg.

THREE OF THE SEASON'S NEW MUSICAL CONDUCTORS FROM ABROAD.

For him, all that Wagner had achieved in the matter of harmonic novelty and flexibility of form is as a point of departure. He goes even further beyond Wagner in such matters than Wagner went beyond Gluck, Weber, and his immediate forerunners. Compared with such a work as d'Indy's B-flat symphony, for example, Wagner's "Tristan," which, a quarter of a century ago, seemed to touch the furthest limits of musical radicalism, sounds as simple and comprehensible as a score by Mozart or Haydn would have sounded beside what was then Wagner's most adventurous achievement.

Since the appearance, thirty years ago, of his "Piccolomine" overture (now the second part of his "Wallenstein" trilogy), d'Indy has composed industriously in nearly all the established musical forms. There are orchestral tone-poems of frankly impressionistic intent, as "La Forêt Enchantée," "Saugefleurie," the "Istar" variations, an "Antony and Cleopatra" overture (since discarded from the authorized list of his works), and "The Song of the Bell," after Schiller,—a "symphony" for solo voices, double chorus, and orchestra. He has written, besides, two operas, "Fervaaal" and "L'Etranger;" "The Ride of the Cid," for baritone, chorus, and orchestra; incidental music to Catulle Mendès' "Medée;" a cantata, "Mary Magdalene;" "Sur la Mer," a chorus for female voices; "Clair de Lune,"

for voice and orchestra, after Hugo; a symphony for piano and orchestra "on a French mountain air;" and the extraordinarily complex, forbidding, yet impressive B-flat symphony performed in New York last season by the Boston Symphony Orchestra. There are, besides, other works of somewhat less moment,—orchestral pieces, chamber music, and some songs. Since 1896, d'Indy has been at the head of the celebrated Schola Cantorum of Paris, an excellent and influential institution which he founded with Charles Bordes and Alexandre Guilmant.

D'INDY, ONE OF THE MOST ORIGINAL TEMPERAMENTS IN MODERN MUSIC.

In his quality as a musician d'Indy is not so subtle nor so poetic as Debussy; he has not De Bréville's refinement, nor Dukas' wit and delicacy, nor Charpentier's direct and obvious appeal, and he is less dramatic than Bruneau. But in his mastery of musical structure he is without a superior. Not even Richard Strauss surpasses him in this respect, for all his breadth of imagination and progressiveness of method. His command of the entire technique of expression,—harmonic, melodic, and orchestral,—is unexcelled in modern music: his executive power is on a par with his originality of thought. His independence of all traditions and restrictions not infrequently results, beyond question, in music



Herr Ernst Kunwald, of Frankfort, who will conduct one of the Philharmonic Society's concerts this winter. Kunwald introduced the Wagner music-dramas in Spain.

Prof. S. V. Rachmaninov, the celebrated Russian composer and conductor, who will appear this season with the Russian Symphony Orchestra.

Prof. Vassily Safonov, of Moscow, head of the Moscow Imperial Conservatory, who will conduct for the Philharmonic and Russian Symphony Societies this winter.

THREE VISITING COMPOSERS AND CONDUCTORS FROM EUROPE.

which it is difficult to call beautiful, and which does not seem, at first hearing, particularly eloquent. But there are other times when his method is undeniably successful,—when he achieves a beauty and significance which completely justify whatever extremes he may have resorted to to compass them. There are arid places in his later music, passages of singular ugliness, others of doubtful effectiveness; but, throughout, one feels the workings of a vigorous and purposeful intelligence,—the informing influence of one of the most distinguished and original temperaments in modern music.

A FAMOUS RUSSIAN COMPOSER.

An occasion scarcely less interesting than the visit of d'Indy will be the appearance, in conjunction with the Russian Symphony Orchestra, of Serge Vasilyevich Rachmaninov, conductor of the Imperial Opera at Moscow, and one of the most ardent and influential forces in contemporary music. Comparatively little of Rachmaninov's work is known in America, although he has written quite abundantly in both the larger and smaller forms. He was born at Novgorod in 1873, entered the St. Petersburg conservatory when he was nine years old, and later studied in Moscow with the pianist Siloti and with his brother composer Anton Stepanovitch Arensky. A man whose temperament is both

rich and impulsive, he is dramatic rather than contemplative, forthright and masterful rather than sensitive,—the temperament of Richard Strauss rather than of César Franck. He is young, and his youth is reflected in his art,—not in any immaturity, for that is not readily discoverable, but in exuberance, freshness of sentiment, and largeness of endeavor. Rachmaninov has composed three operas,—“The Bohemians,” “The Avaricious Knight” (based upon poems by Pushkin), and “Francesca da Rimini;” a symphony; a tone-poem for orchestra, “The Cliff;” a cantata, “Spring,” for chorus and baritone; a “Bohemian Caprice,” for orchestra; two piano concertos, two four-hand suites (one of which, re-scored for orchestra, will be conducted by Rachmaninov on the occasion of his appearance with the Russian Symphony Orchestra), a piano trio, a cello sonata, a number of smaller works for piano, and numerous songs. He is best known to thoughtful music lovers in this country by his superb orchestral fantasy, “The Cliff,” produced by the Russian Symphony Orchestra, for the first time in America, in January, 1904,—one of the most impressive pieces of orchestral scene-painting since Wagner, and a work which went far toward justifying those who have claimed for modern Russian music a unique and characteristic excellence. It is thought that Rachmaninov may possibly bring

with him to America a new work celebrating the spirit of awakened aspiration in his native country.

MENGELBERG, A PERSONALITY OF COMMANDING POWER.

Of the new Philharmonic conductors, Willem Mengelberg, of Amsterdam, has aroused perhaps the keenest interest. Mengelberg is director of the celebrated Concertgebouw Orchestra, and one of the most successful and efficient of the younger European conductors. He was born at Utrecht in 1871, achieved distinction while a pupil at the Cologne Conservatory, and won the post of music director at Lucerne from seventy-nine other competitors,—a post which he abandoned for his present position at Amsterdam. He is said to be called upon not infrequently to appear before Queen Wilhelmina as a pianist. A conductor of uncommon vigor and breadth of view, Mengelberg is a personality of commanding power,—intellectually robust as well as subtly penetrating, and appropriately known as an authoritative interpreter of the music of Richard Strauss, in the dedication of whose extraordinary score, "Ein Heldenleben," he may read his name.

THREE NEW CONDUCTORS FROM GERMANY.

Fritz Steinbach, who will also be new to Philharmonic audiences, is conductor of the Gürzenich concerts at Cologne and director of the Conservatory of Music there. Steinbach was born in Grünsfeld, Baden, in 1855. He studied at the Leipzig Conservatory, and was a pupil of von Lachner in Karlsruhe and of Nottebohm in Vienna. He taught counterpoint and composition in the Raff Conservatory at Frankfurt (where our most eminent American composer, Edward MacDowell, learned the technique of his art), and in 1886 followed Hans von Bülow as conductor of the famous Meiningen Orchestra, a post which he held until 1902. He has the impressive title of Generalmusik-direktor to the Duke of Saxe-Meiningen, is known as a specialist in the music of Brahms, and has composed and published a septet, a 'cello sonata, and songs. Steinbach is a conductor of finesse and judgment, of ripe feeling and balanced intelligence. He has made numerous successful concert tours in Germany, and is especially popular in Berlin.

Max Fiedler, another of the Philharmonic Society's new importations, is conductor of the Philharmonic Society and director of the Conservatory of Music at Hamburg. He is a graduate of the Leipzig Conservatory, and was known as a pianist before he became a conductor. He has been prominent as an orchestral leader since

1894, and is now much in demand in Europe as a "bâton prima donna." He has appeared with success in musical capitals of such varied traditions as St. Petersburg and Madrid, impressing audiences with his alertness, intensity, and control. He has published a piano quintet, and has composed a symphony and a quartet for strings.

Dr. Ernst Kunwald, the fourth of the new Philharmonic conductors, who in personal appearance suggests the popular tenor of tradition rather than the master of orchestral forces, made himself known by his missionary efforts in behalf of the Wagner music dramas in Spain. Kunwald is the least conspicuous of the foreign conductors who will court the favor of American audiences this winter. He was for a time director of the opera in Frankfort and Berlin, but since 1903 has given his entire attention to concert work.

VASSILY SAFONOV'S THIRD VISIT TO NEW YORK.

In addition to its four new conductors, the Philharmonic Society has reëngaged Vassily Safonov, of Moscow, who will make his appearance at three of the concerts of the Society,—two of the regular series and an extra one,—and who will also take some part in the activities of the Russian Symphony Society. Safonov will be remembered as one of the dominant figures of the past two musical seasons in New York. No conductor who has appeared before a concert orchestra in America since the death of the unforgettable Seidl has made a more immediate and profound impression. A man of uncommon personal force, he is one of the most eloquent, dramatic, and authoritative of living conductors, and his return is an event of the first importance.

Felix Weingartner, of Munich, who plays Liszt, Wagner, and the moderns magnificently, and Beethoven like a prophet, is also to make his third American visit this season. Weingartner will be recalled as having made, on the occasion of his first American appearance two years ago, hardly less of a sensation than the masterful Safonov. Gaunt, grave, military in his personality and bearing, his artistic constitution is curiously divided, curiously illusive. He is reserved, yet intensely dramatic; content and reposeful, yet irresistibly compelling. His beat is severe, precise, angular, yet electrically communicative,—he is, in brief, a conductor of unique individuality, character, and insight. He will appear in January and February in a special series of concerts with the New York Symphony Orchestra, when we shall again have an opportunity of observing his singularly reticent yet moving art.

THE NEW KING OF NORWAY.

BY HROLF WISBY.

(Formerly naval cadet and messmate of the King in the Danish royal navy.)

ONCE more the ancient throne of Norway in the Drontheim Cathedral, vacant for more than five hundred years, will hold a sovereign. Prince Charles of Denmark has accepted the Storthing's proffer of the crown, the approval by popular vote took place on November 12 and 13, and the coronation will probably be celebrated on New Year's Day, 1906.

Who is this man Charles, what can he do, and why was he chosen by a parliament which has always shown republican tendencies?

Prince Charles is a young man of thirty-three summers, of gentlemanly appearance, in excellent health, and of a very easy-going, liberal turn of mind. He is by nature well fitted to rule over the stubborn Norsemen, who do not mind the harness so long as they don't feel the whip. The very thing that is going to make Charles popular in Norway before he shows his face there is the fact that he, as a typical "sailor prince," is considered a proper and natural connecting link between the old viking spirit of feudal Norway and her present-day peaceful love of the sea. Another circumstance in favor of Charles is that he understands the language of the Norwegian people, and their traditions and history are part of those of his own country, Denmark, under the dominion of which Norway remained for four centuries. Charles is the second son of the crown prince of Denmark, whom he strongly resembles, and this also counts in his favor, for the crown prince is a scion of the House of Sonderburg-Glückburg, whereas the crown princess is a daughter of the Bernadotte, King Carl XV. of Sweden,—and the Bernadottes were never popular in Norway.

Charles married, about a decade ago, the second and favorite daughter of the King of England, the Princess Maud Alexandra, with whom he fell in love at the Danish court. Through this marriage he brings with him to the Norse people a practical guarantee that the enormous Norwegian coast-line will never lack the protection of the British fleet in time of trouble. Strategically considered, Charles is a very important acquisition for Norway. Diplomatically, his family relationship with foreign courts is a political asset by which Norway is destined to benefit in more ways than one. Here is the family roster

of Prince Charles, the future King Haakon VII. of Norway:

Father and mother.....	Crown prince and crown princess of Denmark.
Grandfather	King Christian of Denmark.
Uncles	King of England, King of Greece, Duke of Cumberland, Prince Waldemar of Denmark.
Aunts.....	Queen of England, Empress-Dowager of Russia, Queen of Greece, Princess Marie d'Orleans.
Cousins	Czar of Russia, Prince of Wales, Prince George of Greece, Prince Aage of Denmark.
Brothers-in-law	Prince Frederick of Schaumburg-Lippe (Germany), Prince Charles of Sweden.
Brothers and sisters..	Prince Christian of Denmark, heir-apparent; the princes Harald and Gustav of Denmark, the princesses Ingeborg, Thyra, and Dagmar.

It is a peculiar coincidence that the first child in the family of the Danish crown prince, and



NORWAY'S NEW KING AS A MIDSHIPMAN.
(Prince Charles of Denmark as a midshipman in the Danish royal navy.)



PRINCE CHARLES AND HIS WIFE, PRINCESS MAUD OF ENGLAND.

the first child in King Edward's family, to wear the scepter as sovereign, is a second, and not a first, child, and owe their success both to the same fortunate accident—namely, Norway's breach with Sweden. King Edward's elder daughter, Victoria, will never be permitted to marry on account of chronic physical defects, and his only living son, the Prince of Wales, will, of course, never wear the British crown so long as Edward is alive, so Edward's only chance of witnessing the crowning of a child of his will be the coronation of his favorite, Maud, as Queen of Norway. And this will cement the friendship of Norway and England, already strong in commerce, as nothing else will. The official titles of bride and groom will be as follows in Norwegian :

Kong Haakon den Syvende af Norge (King Haakon the Seventh of Norway).

Dronning Maud af Norge og Prinsesse af Storbritannien og Irland (Queen Maud of Norway and Princess of Great Britain and Ireland).

Charles loses his baptismal name and his hereditary title as a Prince of Denmark, whereas Maud retains both, and gets a queenship in the bargain. This is the effect of an old court ordinance in England, which prescribes that a princess of Great Britain and Ireland in marrying shall have the right to append this most envied of all English feminine titles to whatever name or title she may receive by marriage.

The Queen-to-be of Norway is a pretty, stately girl, who seems to be quite devoted to her husband, though it was said before her marriage that she was in love with a British noble who did not rank high enough to marry her. She has been reared almost exclusively in the atmos-

phere of court life, and takes only a perfunctory interest in the outdoor life which her husband has made his by preference. Very likely the fresh breezes of Norway will have a salubrious effect on Princess Maud. They may tend to make her more of a real human being and less of a court personage. The couple have a two-year-old son, Alexander, who will be the crown prince of Norway, and who as King will probably wear the title of Harald IV., as the Haralds and the Haakons, it has been decided, will hereafter alternate on Norway's court roster.

Besides his love for matters nautical, Charles shows a lively interest in horse-racing, as the sport is conducted in England. Hunting to hounds is his favorite recreation "on land," though he is but a fair rider himself. As a "sailor prince," he stands higher than any prince of royal blood of his age. He is not only "well posted," like the Prince of Wales, but in practical seamanship he is easily the equal of his uncle,



THE PRINCES CHARLES OF DENMARK, FATHER AND SON.

(To the left is Charles, Crown Prince of Denmark, eldest son of King Christian. To the right is his son, Prince Charles, King-elect of Norway as Haakon VII.).

Prince Waldemar of Denmark, and Prince Louis of Battenberg, both his seniors. Charles can command any kind of naval craft from torpedo boat to battleship, and lead it in actual battle. He will, probably, endeavor to make Norway's fleet more powerful in the number of very efficient small battleships she already has.

It was my fortune to make the prince's acquaintance when he was an apprentice in the Danish navy. I was a midshipman at the time, and just one notch higher rank. We were thrown a good deal together on various ships, and I believe it is this rough-and-ready training in seamanship at an early age, which contributed strongly toward making a man out of the prince, who as a boy was very much like what middies call a "piece of court furniture."

There were seven apprentices in the mess to which the prince belonged on shipboard, and of which I was the eighth and mess-master. We all called him by his first name,—that is, Karl in Danish,—and he had to eat the same "grub" and stand the same hardships as all the other apprentices. He was allowed to have no advantages or "extras" over and above his comrades, and though everybody knew him to be a prince of the realm, no deference whatever was paid him as such. On the contrary, he was "hazed" and made miserable in good, old midshipman style. He took his medicine bravely enough, though there were times when, by his looks, he must have wished for "home and mother," or that he was ashore, where he, as a prince of the realm, would have a right to command a salute from any man and any officer in the fleet!

On board ship he had to mend his own clothes, darn his socks, sew on buttons, and keep his weapons and accoutrements in order. He slept in a regulation sailor hammock, with his clothes, rolled up under his head, for a pillow, without a nightshirt, and wearing only a sailor's woolen striped undershirt, and bundled up in a woolen blanket, sometimes with his sea-boots dangling by the hammock rope. As an apprentice, one of his duties in cleaning ship early at dawn was to pass buckets of salt water and go over the quarter-deck with a sage-broom. When polishing would begin he was assigned to the big binnacle lantern on the bridge, inside which the compass is. He became quite an expert at polishing, and used to make that brass binnacle flash like silver mail. He could never quite get used to chewing tobacco, which in the eyes of every true apprentice is one of the cardinal virtues; and whenever he was seasick, which often happened, he used to sit in the gangway on a bucket and chew rye bread.

This close intimacy with boys of his own age, and subsequently, when he was appointed midshipman and cadet, his contact with manly naval men and real human conditions of life, are the factors which eventually made out of this boy,—who was originally little more than a "court kid,"—one of the most real and natural of living royal princes. It opened his eyes to the forces and exigencies that govern real life. It substituted within him for the lassitude of the courtier the ambition of the healthy young man of action.

It is fortunate that Charles brings with him this heritage of a sound education in real life, for otherwise he would never understand the actual needs of the Norwegian people, otherwise he could not hope to ever impersonate the great Norwegian uplift.

The first thing he may be expected to do is to develop Norwegian shipping and maritime trade. Norway has always sighed for separate consular officers from those of Sweden. Now she will be given her own consuls. There will be more of them than before, and they will be better equipped to develop the export of Norwegian products. Norway's maritime fleet now numbers 7,203 vessels, with 1,443,308 total tonnage, and her exports to England are in excess of 79,000,000 kroner; to Germany, about 25,000,000 kroner; and to Sweden and The Netherlands, about 15,000,000 kroner each. Those are the chief markets, and by encouraging shipping and the home industries, Charles could easily extend the exports still further.

There is money enough in Norway to engineer the big uplift which is looked forward to after Charles' coronation. There are not only two government banks, with a joint capital of 173,000,000 kroner (a kroner is worth about 27 American cents), but also 77 private banks, with an aggregate capital of 98,536,405 kroner; and no less than 434 saving-banks, with 349,078,243 kroner divided between 742,912 depositors. For a nation with only 2,240,000 population, scattered over an area of 124,130 square miles, mostly waste land, this is a tolerably creditable showing.

The chief employments are agriculture and domestic work. Think of what this means, as only 3 per cent. of the area is under cultivation! The rest of the country is unproductive by 75 per cent., and the remaining 22 per cent. is forest. Here is a chance for a far-seeing king to turn the manifold water-power of the waste lands to industrial uses, and partly by tree-planting and partly by irrigation endeavor to reclaim as much of it as possible. No less than 73 per cent. of the 26,330 square miles of woodland in Norway is under pine trees, and the facilities for economic lumbering are so excellent that even un-

der the adverse conditions leading up to the present the lumber exports are a round 63,000,000 kroner in value annually. Here is a great work to be done in a large way.

In the mining industry Norway, which is nearly all rock, has made only a faint attempt to extract the treasures that are surely slumbering within her granite womb. Only about 7,000,000 kroner in value is mined annually in silver, copper, and iron ore, divided among 30 mining plants employing only 3,515 workers, and 6 smelting furnaces with 280 hands. Were the work of properly prospecting the country done in a systematic way by government experts, the mineral wealth of Norway might be her chief resource, for the ore and the rock formation is the same as in Sweden, where rich finds and diggings are quite common. Here is another chance for Haakon VII.

Next to lumbering, Norway's chief revenue is from the fisheries, which net about 29,500,000 kroner annually; and counting in the whale, walrus, and seal fishing in the polar regions, another 8,000,000 kroner is to be added. The cod comes first, with about 13,000,000 kroner value; the herring next, with 8,000,000 kroner; but no genuine attempt has been made to establish a canning industry, as such, in Norway. Only 500,000 kroner worth of lobsters are taken, and less than 1,000,000 kroner value in trout and salmon annually, though it would be an easy matter to take twice or thrice this number if canneries were established at opportune points on

the coast and the business of exporting the fish was put in system. Proper government support and guidance here would develop a new national industry. Gaps like these,—unutilized resources, neglected opportunities,—are everywhere met with in Norway, which hitherto has been characteristic for lack of enterprise. That the Norwegians, who will and can accomplish results, are well worth while this country can testify, as they are usually found to emigrate here, where they become, in an amazingly short time, wealthier *per capita* than all other emigrants.

It will, probably, be part of Charles' plans to open up Norway for her own sons first of all, and to provide inducements for the ablest sons and the most needed effort, so that whatever enterprise may remain in Norwegian brains will be spent, not in developing our vast Northwest here, but in promoting the great uplift in Norway,—and this is his princely dream.

Will he do what he sets out to do? In how far are we justified in expecting results from a people whose national initiative has been subjugated to harness for more than five centuries? Has it all been killed, or has it been lamed merely, or if so what does it amount to as a real working force? Or is it possible that this inactivity is just pent-up initiative,—a go-ahead power that will overthrow all obstacles, and may now be expected to flood the land like a raging torrent of enterprise and activity? In that event, Norway will again see greatness,—a greatness of internal prosperity.



DEMOCRATIC NORWAY WELCOMES KING KARL.

BJÖRNSON: "Come, little man, we will make room for you between us, and if you do not demand too much pocket money you'll get along finely."—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

THE LEAVEN AND THE LOAF.

AN ADDRESS ON THE OCCASION OF THE CELEBRATION OF THE ONE-HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE FOUND- ING OF ROOSEVELT MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY, OCTOBER 15, 2050, A.D.

BEING A DISCOURSE BY THE HON. EMEVIG LAEDERAUQS ON THE STATE PHILOSOPHY AND
IDEALS OF THEODORE ROOSEVELT, WITH REFERENCE TO SOME OF THE EVENTS OF
HIS TWO ADMINISTRATIONS OF 1905 TO 1909 AND 1917 TO 1921.

REPORTED BY ROBERT J. THOMPSON.

"Where the state has bestowed education the man who accepts it must be content to accept it merely as a charity unless he returns it to the state in full, in the shape of good citizenship."—T. R.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN, PROFESSORS AND STUDENTS IN FELLOWSHIP :

I may be permitted to pass over the acknowledgments due for the great honor and privilege extended me in the request to address you on this signal and historic occasion. It is such a distinction in a man's life as comes but rarely ; and in thanking the committee, I can only express the hope that my discourse may be of sufficient interest to justify its presentation.

Let us address ourselves first to the subject of our *alma mater*, this noble institution of learning, reared here in the capital of his country, to the honor of a man whose memory shall remain for all time, and imperishable, in the minds of men ; reared here in this splendid city by a people which learned through his philosophy of public and private life the duties, virtues, and benefits of true citizenship.

It was on the 15th of October, 1950, that the government board of architecture approved the designs and turned the first earth from whence sprung these magnificent buildings. From that day to the present, a year has not gone by without the completion of some splendid and impressive structure.

Rising over us to meet the sun, in grandeur unsurpassed, is Washington Auditorium, the central setting of the picture. On beautiful avenues, leading star-like from this focal structure, we have in these palaces of education, dedicated to the Presidents of the republic, an inspiring array of the genius and handiwork of the builders and artists. And more than builder and artist could give, we have for all the succeeding generations a visible record, a tangible history, of our country. Chapters in stone of the life of a nation.

But this is exoteric,—the dress, the frame, the

mounting, of the picture. What of the heart, the scope, the thing itself ?

Drawn here from the whole earth are the world's masters in all lines of human research. Thirty-eight thousand students are enrolled on the institution books,—the School of Science and Invention alone claiming over nineteen thousand. I dare not enumerate the pathways of intellectual and applied activities open here and inviting the efforts of the student. It may be sufficient to refer to the great Museum of Evolution as a material illustration of the intent and possibilities of this wonderful city of education. In this museum is found, so far as the earth affords and the inquiring mind of man has discovered, a complete collection in preserved or reconstructed form, types of all the genus, species, and families of life known to have existed on the earth, placed in environments reproduced to nature, as nearly as possible,—a panorama of the vast, unrecorded waste,—the *humanam condere gentem* preceding the present state of human consciousness. And carried up through the conscious life of man, the few thousand years since his emergence from the long Stone Age, is the visible record of the mighty struggle. Nor does it stop here. As the past has been studied, classified, and laid before the student, so also do we find, resulting from the reputation-immolating efforts of those courageous scientists of the early part of the century, clear and unmistakable glimpses into future states of spirit consciousness obtained through experimental psychology, psychic research, and investigations in radio-active chemistry. An unending vista of opportunity for research is placed before us, making the department a picture of life,—a museum of evolution in fact as well as in name.

So with our great school. In all its depart-

ments, knowledge and training are acquired, with the view of extending and widening the consciousness of man, that the limits of progress, intellectual and material, may be still further removed.

But others after me will discourse on the various features and departments of this institution, the one-hundredth anniversary of the founding of which we commemorate to-day.

I desire to refer to the financial condition of the institution, and the steps leading up to and causing its lordly endowment.

\$230,000,000-CONSCIENCE-MONEY ENDOWMENT.

The cry of "tainted money," as a moral rebuke to those daring men of the early part of the century who, through forethought, immense commercial genius, money-greed, and avaricious cunning, had gained a large portion of the wealth of the land, was first raised in the year 1905. This cry came from the conservative, religious element of that day,—a class that prospered in large degree on the benefactions and tributes, as would seem to us, ironically contributed to their support by the so-called money class of the period.

True public sentiment sleeps in times of great activity and prosperity. Its slumbers are soothed by the clink of gold. In the tremendous struggle of forceful men for wealth in the closing decade of the last century, and the opening years of the present, the square, upright, honest man was pretty much submerged in the combat. Furthermore, it was found that the progress of the country in the higher intellectual virtues and pathways man must ever follow in the pursuit of happiness was infinitely retarded. The ideals of the country became altogether economic. The great lights and examples for the emulation of the youth of the land were the Morgans, Rockefellers, Gates', Vanderbilts, Leiters, and so on,—the "money-makers."

Moral and intellectual virtues would buy no bread, nor meat, nor coal. From Senator down through all the stages of public life, as well as in commercial fields, the need of money became not only a mania, but a reality. As the vast bulk of wealth produced by the people flowed with undeviating and exasperating certainty into the pockets of those who already possessed it in great quantities, there was little for the masses, little but the wastage, or what was spilled from the tills of the rich.

The cry of "tainted money" arose.

The sentiment of the populace awoke.

Cunning and greed became crimes in the eyes of decent people. Men who possessed wealth in the multi-millions were looked upon as scoun-

dreels, robbers, and grafters on the honest toil of the hopeless workers.

What was the result?

Human nature will always be the same. Man cannot live without the respect of his fellows,—deserving or not, he must have it.

The thief, to hide his crime from those whose respect he craves, quicker even than to escape the penalty of a violation of the law, will destroy his loot,—cast it from him as an unclean thing.

The names of the evil and idle rich were written on walls in public places,—burned into stone pavements by acid,—painted on rocks in the mountains,—singd in the park lawns by fire.

A new and terrible revival of the Greek punishment of ostracism was spontaneously and universally inaugurated by the decent and conservative people of the time.

Individual wealth, beyond a liberal competence and reward for great effort and ability, became a curse and a burden. It resulted in a moral and social isolation for the possessor,—a civic leprosy, which made him hated in the eyes of his fellows. Clearly, it could not belong to the holder, as it represented short measure to some fellow human being,—to other members,—and, above all, to the workers of the social body.

I will here read that famous anonymous letter addressed to the Secretary of the Treasury, and dated New York City, July 27, 1947:

To Hon. James A. Fowle, Secretary of the Treasury, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. SECRETARY:—During the past year, and through secret measures, the writer has gradually converted into gold coin,—to the value of forty million dollars,—stocks, bonds, and other property, and through like unknown agencies this money has to-day been shipped to you. It is returned in this manner, not to the individuals who created it,—that would be impossible,—but, as nearly as may be for the writer to make restitution, it is given freely back to the Government for their benefit.

The earth and the fruitage thereof are for the human family, for its sustenance, and for its comfort. Obviously, being the unique source of all life, it owes every man who is willing and able to work, a living. On the other hand, I cannot see by any process of fair thinking that it owes even so much as a breath of air to him who is able and will not work. Through cunning and monstrous advantage of the people, invited by laws which did not keep pace with the industrial advancement of the country, taken by our forefathers, great masses of wealth, the wages of the thought, toil, and tears of the workers, have been slowly gathered into the hands of a few. Neither they nor their descendants, for generations to come, can eat it, drink it, travel it, or take it with them from the earth.

The expression of a deep and general principle is certain to affect the destiny of man. Two thousand years ago there was given utterance to a sentiment which, though living to-day and still more vital than ever, was in large degree responsible for the unfair prevalence

over those who followed it, gained by those who professed to follow it, but did not:

"As you would that others would do unto you do ye even so unto them."

The revival of this rule of human association under the present-day philosophy and sociological standard of a square deal for every man has brought us to the religion of human duty,—the religion of Abou Ben Adhem, who loved not God, but man.

Therefore, and without recourse, the forty million dollars sent to you to-day is given to the people of the United States absolutely and unequivocally. One request, but not demand, is made, which is, that it be appropriated by Congress toward the establishment and endowment of a national university, to be located in the District of Columbia, which shall be dedicated to the memory and honor of that illustrious philosopher, statesman, and President,—Theodore Roosevelt.

As you know, the author of this remarkable letter carried the secret of his identity to the grave. But less than ten years followed its publication, and the receipt of the money, before the university had been endowed from like source in the stupendous sum of two hundred and eighty million dollars.

Thus did the people come again into their own, in a measure,—and largely, if not directly, through the awakening of the conscience of the over-rich by the sentiments and ideals of human and sociological duty diffused by him in whose honor this university is named.

A PEOPLE'S, NOT A PARTY'S PRESIDENT.

I will now refer to, as succinctly as I may, the events of historical significance of the period of the two administrations of Theodore Roosevelt,—that is, of 1905–09 and 1917–21. It should be understood that while Roosevelt was the nominee and unanimous choice of the Republican party, he was less a party President than any man elected to that position in the history of the nation, with the one exception of George Washington.

On the assassination of William McKinley, in 1901, Colonel Roosevelt, at that time Vice-President, succeeded to the office and filled the unexpired term of nearly four years. He endeavored to carry out to the letter the policy and plans of McKinley, and did so. In 1904 he was elected to the Presidency, and had there not been a misunderstanding in the Southern States regarding his position on the negro question, he would doubtless have received the entire vote of the Electoral College. As it was, the vote cast for him was unprecedented. He immediately announced on his election that he would, under no circumstances, be a candidate to succeed himself,—which pledge, though much against the will of the people, he held inviolate. He retired from official life March 4, 1909, and during the

summer of that year spent four months in a tour of the world.

Returning to America, Roosevelt became, on the 1st of January, 1910, the president of Harvard University, and retained this connection for nearly eight years, devoting much of his time to the construction of those great philosophical works on citizenship, government, history, and law which have since become the ideals of people's governments throughout the world.

REFLECTION OF ROOSEVELT IN 1917.

In 1917, at the age of fifty-nine, Theodore Roosevelt occupied the remarkable position of being elected President of the United States as the joint candidate of both the Republican and Democratic parties against Brisbane, socialist.

We go back, however, to the first Rooseveltian administration, 1905–09. It was during this time that the first real evidences of an awakening of the public conscience became apparent. The citizen, by a peculiar myopia, had reached a state of mind where there was nothing about his patrimony that he could see save his *rights*. *Duty* was purely a proposition of convenience and legal enforcement.

The principle, that the right of the many (the government) is the duty of the individual (the citizen), sprang into force as a result of the wide dissemination of the ideals and sentiments of Roosevelt on citizenship. He crystallized the thoughts of the country in his famous lay sermons.

These philosophical sayings, while in themselves in no particular sense remarkable, touched the magic chords of truth, honor, square-dealing, duty, and decent civic and private action in the great heart of a somnolent though awakening people.

It was said of Theodore Roosevelt in the early part of his Presidential career that he was the apotheosis of the commonplace. He may have been so. In any event, he was in tune and harmony with the world and the time. He looked down into the hearts and minds of his fellows, and facing with keen and fearless eye the two great enemies of the state,—the violator of the law and the manipulator of the law,—with the stylus of Justice he wrote their doom upon the unrolling scroll of history. He put into form and words the hopes and sentiments of the people,—in private fellowship as well as public life.

THE DISSEMINATION OF HIGH CIVIC IDEALS.

Herein was Theodore Roosevelt greatest of all. He applied the simplest truth and principles of common sense to the most exalted situations. I

quote a few epigrams touching on the fundamentals of American citizenship in the year 1906 :

Obedience to the law is demanded as a right, not asked as a favor.

The crime of greed, the crime of cunning, the crime of violence, are all equally crimes, and against them all alike the law must set its face.

Every citizen has the right to demand from the Government that there shall be no stacking of the cards.

Ours is not the creed of the weakling and the coward ; ours is the gospel of Hope and Triumphant Endeavor.

You cannot build the superstructure of public virtue save on private virtue.

Sentiments live forever—they are eternal.

Acts are ephemeral—they are forgotten.

No matter how mighty the position of the individual, no matter how splendidly equipped for action he may be, the ultimate benefit, or evil, he may work to his fellows lies preëminently in the sentiments he may proclaim rather than in the acts he may perform.

The individual can do but little. His thoughts, however, may inspire millions to heroic and continued effort for ages to come, though they be wholly unconscious of the source of such inspiration.

EXPOSURES AND THE RESULTS.

Theodore Roosevelt,—his sentiments, his philosophy, his ideals,—was the typification of the spirit of the hive. His was the voice, the word, the call. Whether he was the intending cause of it or not, history must give him credit for those fierce and determined exposures of the gigantic and money-gout mortality associations of the years 1905 and 1906. The whiff of fair-dealing and decency was in the atmosphere.

Following the inspiration of Roosevelt, corporations, cities, States, federal departments,—families, and even individuals,—began to diagnose their conditions, with the result that the harvest of fungi, parasites, warts, vampires, bats, and grafters that fell before the knife and withered in the bright light of the renaissance philosophy of duty and a square deal for all, not only had never been heard of since the decadent days of Rome, but they raised a stench that nauseated the world. The decaying mass fertilized well that principle which has since then been foremost with us :

The duties of citizenship in this republic are inherent in its people. Failure to perform those duties establishes a forfeiture of the rights of such citizenship.

NATIONAL CORPORATION ACT.

The taking over of the telegraph, telephone, and express companies by the Government in

1908 was followed by a swift and direct extension and application of what was then called the post-office fraud order. Three of the great monopolistic combines, called trusts,—the meat, tobacco, and transport industries,—were distinguished in history as being the recipients of the first and most powerful blow of the much-talked-of Roosevelt "Big Stick."

This was the real initial step toward the control,—federal control,—of the great interstate corporation, a step made necessary by the temporary defeat in Congress of the National Corporation Act,—a proposition, as you know, to place all companies engaged in local or interstate business of any kind under government charter, and subject to federal inspection. Publicity was demanded as a correction of the trust evil. The passage of this most important act followed quickly the vigorous application to certain pirate companies of the fraud order by the Postmaster-General in 1908-09. The denial to these concerns of the privileges and benefits of the postal, telegraph, and parcel-post, or express, service on suspected violations of the law put the burden of proof on the corporations, with the quick and salutary result that these creatures of federal authority became purified, and they vied with one another for reputation of high standing.

GOVERNMENT INDUSTRIAL BONDS.

Where did the money come from to purchase the telegraph, telephone, and other interstate utilities ?

There were some eight millions of persons in the United States in 1906 who had accumulated savings to the amount of \$3,000,000,000. This money was deposited at low rates of interest with all kind of banks,—national, State, private, trust companies, loan associations, etc.,—all over the country. Failures of these institutions were becoming so numerous (over fifty having occurred in the prosperous State of Iowa alone in one year) that the demand for a safe government depository, which at the same time should furnish an investment, became pronounced. Here was a source of inexhaustible treasure sufficient to finance, on 2 per cent. or 3 per cent. government securities, any conceivable government-ownership proposition. The people paid for these utilities, exchanging their savings-bank pass-books for government industrial bonds.

THE PRESIDENT IN FRANCE.

I may here refer to that act of Theodore Roosevelt in the year 1906 which, while unprecedented in the history of the nation, indicated to the world his freedom of form and custom where

modern conditions seemed to justify such independence.

The peace negotiations between the two great contending nations—Japan and Russia—had just been satisfactorily terminated. The treaty of Portsmouth was not even signed and sealed before the plaudits of the civilized world were raised in behalf of Theodore Roosevelt. He became at once the diplomat of the world—*l'homme du siècle*. Soon thereafter the republic of France, recognizing the world-character of Theodore Roosevelt,—that he belonged not alone to America, but to humanity and civilization,—extended, by legal enactment of its government, an invitation on behalf of the people of the country to visit their capital. This was followed by like invitations from England, Russia, Germany, and other European states.

We had then, and still have, in this country a composite of the blood and institutions of Europe. We stood distinct, though connected through ties of consanguinity and sentiment, with all the nations of the old world; stood like a strong and virile son to placate and harmonize the contentions and belligerent differences of our parents. How, naturally, in the great Russo-Japanese conflict the contending parties came to America for succor. The splendid world-power exemplified by the United States needed but the intelligent and honest fearlessness of one who could place common sense and militant righteousness above precedent and conventionalism.

The splendid international ceremonies incident to the final dedication of the American school children's monument to Lafayette in Paris, the following year, furnished the event and occasion for a telling demonstration to the world of the true status of the United States among the nations of the earth.

The invitations of France and the other European states were accepted. The ceremonies of the dedication of the Lafayette memorial were made an event in the history of mankind. A new and great moral precedent was established. The time had arrived in our history,—the incident there to hand demanding the bestowal of those sympathetic courtesies,—those forms of good-will and friendship best shown by the presence of the chief of one nation within the borders of another. Many objections were raised to this innovation on the part of the President. They were not considered material, however, when compared with the service that might be rendered to the advancement of peace and universal human fellowship. To use the language of President Roosevelt in this respect:

No nation so great as ours can expect to escape the penalty of greatness, for greatness does not come without trouble and labor.

I hold that a great and masterful people forfeits its title to greatness if it shirks any work because that work is difficult and responsible.

VISITING THE CAPITALS OF EUROPE.

Theodore Roosevelt, President, was naturally as highly honored in the capitals of France, England, Germany, and other European states as he ever was in New York or Texas. He but went back to the forefathers and homes of the citizens of his own country.

We do not believe that any act of a President of the United States could better have illustrated the unique position of his country than these visits, without favor or prejudice, to the capitals of the powers of Europe. There were no alliances to cement, no *ententes* to establish; but a great and unprecedented step to be made toward that universal peace and brotherhood between nations, which it was Roosevelt's aim to promote, and, as we have seen, his destiny to advance.

By making the ceremonies of the dedication of that in itself unique memorial (the Lafayette memorial was the gift of the school youth of America to France, between four and five millions of them having contributed their pennies on a single day toward its erection) the direct reason for his presence in France, and the utterance on that occasion of his greatest known oration, and thereafter his brief visit to the capitals of Europe, he spread over the world an influence that has lived and grown throughout the years. He left a legacy to history that will last as long as human records.

All Europe, from president and peasant to kaiser and muzhik, was *en fête* to give him a welcome and a reception unrivaled in the history of the world.

A continent awaited him.

And why was this? Because it was a natural and human response to the establishment of a precedent demanded by the progress of civilization and the growth of political democracy among the nations of the earth.

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF ARBITRAMENT.

Now what may be considered as the chief result of this remarkable act of Roosevelt's? To what purpose did it portend?

I will ask, From whence dates our present fixed and universal peace?

For nearly one hundred and fifty years,—from that summer's vacation journey to the capitals and courts of Europe by Theodore Roosevelt,—up to the present day there has been no war between the great powers of the world. The peace parlia-

ment held the year following Roosevelt's visit to Europe, and toward the success of which he directed his powerful influence and support, saw assembled for the first time in history plenary delegates from all the leading nations of the earth. They were there for business. From their earnest and sincere efforts came our present International Supreme Court of Arbitrament. This court was established, for a term of sixty years, by convention of the delegates to that parliament. Each of the great nations turned over to the court 20 per cent. of the effective power of its respective navy, creating at the same time a joint high board of admiralty. This splendid international armada has since, as you know, policed the seas and oceans of the world, and for over one hundred years has not fired a hostile shot. The moral force of a decree of the International Court of Arbitrament has been such that the great standing armies and tremendous instruments of warfare of the early part of the twentieth century have, like the hideous devices of Torquemada, passed into the limbo of the museums of antiquity. The peace of the world has become a universal ideal, and it seems no more likely to be disturbed than the most fixed and permanent human institution.

THE MAN AND THE OPPORTUNITY.

In the psychological combination of man and opportunity,—the right man and the right opportunity,—we have something more than man alone. We have one of those seemingly divine forces which direct the course of history,—which shape the destiny of the world.

As Theodore Roosevelt awakened the sleeping though ever-present principles of duty and justice in the consciousness of his own people, by the same fortuitous combination of man and opportunity was he instrumental in arousing the world to the folly, idiocy, and incalculable waste of a resort to arms in the adjustment of international questions.

Dating from the promulgation of his precepts on duty and patriotism in that immortal oration at Paris,—a discourse equaled in the history of American oratory only by Lincoln's memorable address on the battlefield of Gettysburg,—have the nations of the earth and their chiefs,—like men of culture, heart, and sentiment,—vied one with another in their purpose and efforts to extend support, appreciation, and regard to their sister nations of the world.

CONGRESSIONAL UPEHAVALS.

It would be too much for me to detail the working out of those reforms, demanded by the people and inaugurated by Roosevelt, in respect

to the unfair discriminations against the small shipper and the surreptitious favors extended the big interstate corporations and trusts in the form of railroad freight rebates. This, like all far-reaching reforms, was a question of growth. There were betrayals of the people in Congress, deferring the enactment of proper laws, which were followed by upheavals in the Congressional elections,—and final success, as you know, for the proposals of revision of the law.

The correction of a political evil, once made, looks simple enough, and the wonder is that it was not made before. But the indifference of the mass is affected only by long and persistent education. And he who would lead his fellows to Altruria must content himself, in raising up the cry, with the single hope that his words may survive his own submergence into oblivion.

PUBLISHER'S UNIVERSAL POUND RATE.

I must mention here a far-reaching, though at the time seemingly unimportant, step taken by the postal department. It was the adoption by the International Postal Union, on the initiative of our government, of the publisher's pound rate of postage in practice in the United States.

In the civilizing, commercializing, and educational influences that have been created by man to accelerate his progress, no other institution of government has been so valuable as the mails. Human advancement knows no national frontiers. And with the extension of this pound rate of postage to embrace the world an immense impetus was given to the dissemination of knowledge through periodicals, newspapers, and printers' products generally. A number of American publications soon reached the enormous circulation of over five millions of copies each issue. This did much to break down the false patriotism and egotism which, for centuries, had barred the way to the fellowship of nations. It was a part of the moral amalgamation of the races.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR PRICE CURRENT.

It was about this time, too, that our government placed a special export tax, in the form of a domestic consular fee, on foreign bills of lading, or manifests. This departure in the revenue system of the government was inaugurated on account of the great demand made by the commercial interests of the country, and especially those engaged in manufacturing for the export trade. It was felt that the consular organization should serve as a medium for the promotion and introduction of the products of America's factories, fields, and mines in the markets of the world. For many years published consular re-

ports,—largely scientific and statistical in character, and on subjects of little or no interest to the American manufacturer,—had been distributed to indifferent recipients. By the use of a portion of the fund expended in this unappreciated work, the plan of publication was reversed. An American consular price current and trade bulletin was prepared, listing all standard articles of manufacture, as well as raw and finished food products, common to the country. This bulletin was published by the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labor, being issued quarterly and printed in all foreign languages. Large numbers of copies were sent to the American consuls for free distribution to the trade in the markets of the world. Scales of prices, from the lowest to the highest grades, were published, with the view of informing the world through a reliable source of, not so much the price, as this naturally fluctuated, but of the character of American-made goods and the availability of purchase of the same.

Numerous reciprocity treaties were thereafter negotiated, and the export trade of the United States trebled itself in the space of five years. Since that time it has led the world in practically all essential lines.

RESULT OF IRRIGATION WORK.

To review the development of those stupendous systems of government reclamation of desert lands by irrigation would take too long. We have but to look at the teeming, prosperous population of the States effected by these vast enterprises. From sparsely settled and waste areas they have become the richest and most productive States of the Union.

OPENING OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

The year 1916 was signalized in American and world history by two events,—the reelection of Theodore Roosevelt to the Presidency and the opening to navigation of the Panama Canal.

There is but one honor in the world surpassing that of an election to the Presidency of the United States,—that is, a reelection to that high office. This is more than a vote of approval and confidence. It is a custom,—in a sense, a law,—made necessary by the simplest demand of civic life, the law of human gratitude.

What more fitting tribute could be given the sponsor of this stupendous enterprise, the great ship waterway across the Isthmus of Panama, than the call again to official life at the hour of the fruition of the greatest material undertaking not only of his career, but of the century?

A thousand vessels from America, Europe, and the Orient were present in the harbors of

Colon and Panama, awaiting, like bridesmaids, the signal which should proclaim to the world the wedding of the Atlantic and the Pacific,—the joining of the waters of the earth. That the success of this, at that time, great undertaking has more than justified the expenditure of life and treasure required in its construction, it is needless for me to repeat. What the transcontinental railways did for the far West in the sixties and seventies, this interoceanic canal repeated fourfold in the years following its opening, up to navigation.

The material advancement of our country is not the subject of this discourse. It would require the privileges of Senatorial courtesy under the old *régime*,—in the days of Allen, of Nebraska, and Tillman, of South Carolina,—to even touch upon the wonderful strides of economic progress we have made during the past several decades.

I have referred to the completion of the Panama Canal, as it was in many respects the greatest physical achievement of the time. It was a work intimately and historically associated with President Roosevelt,—an undertaking typical of the physical and powerful energy of the man.

The Panama Canal was opened to the navigation of the world's marine on December 1, 1916. There were present and participating in the formal international exercises attending the opening,—not to mention other dignitaries,—President-elect Roosevelt, the Emperor of Germany, the King of England, the President of the French republic, the Czar of Russia, the Emperor of Japan, the presidents of the South American republics, etc.

This was the first time in recorded history when the chiefs of the great nations of the earth had gathered together in such numbers on an enterprise purely of peace and progress. It was, indeed, significant of the years of human advancement that followed, and of which we today are the heirs and beneficiaries.

THE WORKING OF THE LEAVEN.

Time will not permit me to review the events following the inauguration, as President, of Theodore Roosevelt, March 4, 1917. For a decade or more the leaven of his concrete and simple civic philosophy had been at work. As he was wont to say, "Back of the laws, back of the administration, back of the system of government, lies the man."

And man had advanced.

With the self-betterment of the individual the progress of the nation is simply a matter of addition.

I shall close my discourse by quoting from

Roosevelt some of those commentaries which have tended, without question, to the general uplift of the American people, and which are active moral forces in the life of the nation to-day,—more active, perhaps, than they were a century and a half ago.

For, in the language of Hugo, what a man says,—be it true or false,—often has more influence upon the lives and, especially, upon the destiny of those to whom he speaks than what he does.

MAN AND NATION.

We must treat each man on his worth and merits as a man. We must see that each is given a square deal, because he is entitled to no more and should receive no less.

Mankind goes ahead but slowly, and it goes ahead mainly through each of us trying to do the best that is in him, and to do it in the sanest way.

We have in our scheme of government no room for the man who does not wish to pay his way through life by what he does for himself and for the community.

When all is said and done, the rule of brotherhood remains as the indispensable prerequisite to success in the kind of national life for which we strive.

The life of duty, not the life of mere ease or mere pleasure,—that is the kind of life which makes the great man, as it makes the great nation.

The Government cannot supply the lack in any man of the qualities which must determine in the last resort the man's success or failure.

A healthy republican government must rest upon individuals, not upon classes or sections.

Far and away the best prize that life offers is the chance to work hard at work worth doing.

I desire to see in this country the decent men strong and the strong men decent, and until we get that com-

bination in pretty good shape we are not going to be by any means as successful as we should be.

If we wish to make the State the representative and exponent and symbol of decency, it must be made through the decency, public and private, of the average citizen.

To me the future seems full of hope, because, although there are many conflicting tendencies, and although some of these tendencies of our present life are for evil, yet, on the whole, the tendencies for good are in the ascendency.

In our own country, with its many-sided, hurrying, practical life, the place for cloistered virtue is far smaller than is the place for that essential manliness which, without losing its fine and lofty side, can yet hold its own in the rough struggle with the forces of the world round about us.

The line of cleavage between good citizenship and bad citizenship separates the rich man who does well from the rich man who does ill, the poor man of good conduct from the poor man of bad conduct.

It is an infamous thing in our American life, and fundamentally treacherous to our institutions, to apply to any man any test save that of his personal worth, or to draw between two sets of men any distinction save the distinction of conduct.

In the first place, the man who makes a promise which he does not intend to keep, and does not try to keep, should rightly be adjudged to have forfeited in some degree what should be every man's most precious possession,—his honor.

Succeed? Of course we shall succeed! How can success fail to come to a race of masterful energy and resoluteness which has a continent for the base of its domain, and which feels within its veins the thrill that comes to generous souls when their strength stirs in them, and they know that the future is theirs?

I ask that this nation go forward as it has gone forward in the past; I ask that it shape its life in accordance with the highest ideals; I ask that our name be a synonym for truthful and fair dealing with all the nations of the world.



AMERICA IN FOREIGN TRADE.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

CANNON-SHOT and rifle-clatter cease throughout Manchuria but to usher in a new and intense though bloodless contest for the trade of the unnumbered millions of the Orient,—a contest not of two, but of many nations, in which there can be no truce or wavering. The pens which signed the treaty at Portsmouth,—so close is the world now bound together,—set pneumatic riveters working at the keels of new ships on the Clyde, and started wheat trains for Puget Sound down our far-Western mountains. Japan, victor in war, is quick to proclaim her aspirations for triumph in peace. Even before the strife had ended, Minister Kiyoura told the Tokio Chamber of Commerce: "Be not frightened by the din of battle, but continue energetically to develop your relations to the occupied regions, for I repeat that the main object of the war is to create for our merchants new, large markets in Korea and China."

How well armed for this great and noble tourney of the nations in the rich East stands the United States? What we have already achieved is certainly full of high encouragement. By far the greatest and most significant gain in all our sea-borne commerce last year came with the old lands of Asia. Our exports of American manufactures, foodstuffs, and other merchandise on Asiatic account, which were valued at \$58,359,016 in the fiscal year 1903, and at \$60,151,347 in 1904, swelled suddenly in the year ending June 30, last, to \$127,637,800. A large part of this extraordinary increase was in our exports to Japan, which grew from \$24,980,421 in 1904 to \$51,724,726.

Meanwhile, of course, the Russian Pacific ports had been shut in our faces, only two or three audacious American cargoes running the long blockade. Now that Vladivostok reopens, and the Japanese flag clears Dalny and Port Arthur, there is a rush thither of flour, cottons, iron, and steel that absorbs all the seaworthy tonnage of the Pacific.

SENTIMENT THAT COUNTS.

President Roosevelt's master-stroke for humanity has won for America the especial admiration and love of the two warring nations which now in peace come closest to swaying the destiny of the Orient. Czar Nicholas promptly and gracefully acknowledged the President's incom-

parable deed by repealing the retaliatory restrictions that since 1901 had blocked every effort of our merchants to increase their trade with Russia in Asia and in Europe. Japan signalized her gratitude not only with courteous, formal words, but by hastening to this country commissioners for the purchase of thirty million dollars' worth of locomotives, cars, and other material for the new railways of Japan and Korea. Since last April, Japan has purchased in the United States more than two hundred locomotives, five thousand railway cars, four hundred structural iron bridges, and fifty or more steam turbines with electric generators. On the other hand, the United States is by far the most generous customer of Japan's silks, teas, matings, and curios, buying four or five times as much as does Great Britain.

It is a strangely myopic judgment which holds that sentiment does not count in trade. Sentiment among nations, no less than among men, is a consideration of tremendous weight when it happens to coincide with favorable price lists. The Japanese and Russian agents who are buying heavily here do not do so without keen comparison of the cost of similar things in Europe. This is undeniably an era of high prices in America, but the real truth seems to be that it is an era of high prices throughout the industrial world. Scotch steel-makers have lately in one day raised their quotations for structural steel five shillings a ton, after other advances and with still others impending. Iron and steel are, of course, the true index of our prosperity, and many of the steel mills of this country are now closing contracts up to the middle of 1906.

HIGH PRICES AND BUOYANT TRADE.

This flood-tide condition of the iron and steel industry,—the mills everywhere working up to their capacity, with contracts far ahead,—lends extraordinary significance to our export trade in iron and steel manufactures. This trade has been steadily increasing. Its amount was \$111,948,586 in the fiscal year 1904, and \$134,727,921 in the fiscal year 1905—ending on June 30.

Not only are our iron and steel mills working up to their maximum capacity,—this condition is general in all important lines of manufacturing. The average price of all commodities nat-

urally reflects this eager and insistent demand. In September, 1900, according to Dun's authoritative records, the average price of commodities was 90,714. In September, 1905, it was 100,308,—an advance of about 10.5 per cent. That is, it now requires about \$1.10 to purchase commodities which could be bought for \$1 five years ago. Yet, not only our exports of iron and steel, but our exports of manufactures in general keep on steadily increasing. These were \$452,415,921 in the fiscal year 1904, and \$543,620,297 in the fiscal year 1905.

The "dumping" of American goods abroad at a reduced price, of which we hear so much, must, therefore, be the exception and not the rule. Most of our manufacturers who export anything at all must be able to command as favorable terms abroad as in their own country, or in buoyant times like these they would have no inducement whatever to sell on foreign account wares that were certain of a quick sale and a full price at home.

COMMERCE AND THE FLAG.

The enormous strides that have been made in our commerce with the Orient offer a sharp, significant contrast with our lagging trade with South America and Africa. The United States actually sold to the greatest of Latin-American republics—Brazil—fewer goods in the fiscal year 1904 than in 1903,—the values being \$10,985,095 and \$11,046,856. For many years our South American commerce has been almost at a standstill, while our trade with the Orient has been, on the whole, steadily advancing. It is no mere coincidence that beyond the latitude of Venezuela not one American steamship runs to a South American port in either the Atlantic or Pacific, and the carrying of our trade is dependent on the grace of our European competitors, while in our Oriental commerce on the Pacific the largest ships, the newest, most capacious, and most efficient, are American-built, American-owned, and operated in American interests.

These ships were put on the route to the Orient when the commerce was very lean and small. Their regular and economical service has helped mightily to develop the present volume of our export trade. But these American lines are being run without national aid, in the face of lavishly subsidized British, French, German, and Japanese competition. They are not earning and have not paid a dividend, and their continuance is doubtful. Mr. James J. Hill, whose new *Minnesota* and *Dakota* are the greatest ships on the Pacific, and among the greatest in the world, has said that under present conditions he

can never build and sail another ship beneath the flag of the United States. Meanwhile Japan, having quickly developed a strong merchant marine, as described in a recent number of the AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS, announces on the heels of peace the starting of a new subsidized steamship line across the Pacific to South America. The Japanese statesmen have a clear appreciation of one of the indispensable agencies which have swelled the foreign commerce of the island kingdom from 131,160,700 yen in 1888 to 491,113,300 yen in 1900.

JAPAN A FORMIDABLE RIVAL.

Japan is our friend, now more than ever. There is no need of a treaty of alliance between Tokio and Washington, because there is and long has been a pact more secure than that in Japan's grateful remembrance of Perry and his work, and in half a century of friendly association unbroken by jealousy or distrust on either side. However, this need not prevent a frank recognition of the fact that the new Japan, quickened and strengthened by a victorious war, is sure to be a more and more formidable mercantile competitor of the United States in all the rich lands that border the Pacific Ocean. Already it is reported that Japanese cotton fabrics made of our own Southern staple are driving American goods out of North China. It would be highly discreditable to our enterprise to allow Japan to shoulder us out of that small share of South American trade which vigilant and prepared Europe has left to our manufacturers and merchants.

A "TARIFF WAR" WITH GERMANY?

The most immediate and serious menace to American commerce looms up across, not the Pacific, but the Atlantic Ocean. Germany's threat to apply maximum, discriminating, and, in some cases, prohibitive duties to American goods if a reciprocity treaty is not speedily concluded,—that is, if American protective duties on German products are not sharply reduced,—marks the first really positive, aggressive step in European resentment of the extraordinary industrial growth of the great republic. If the United States yields to this menace, and grants concessions to Germany, it can scarcely refuse them to Great Britain, which admits free of all duty immense quantities of American merchandise. The German grievance, apparently, is based on the fact that German exports to this country are only about one-half the value of German imports into the United States. But Germany's present tariff, like ours, is rigorously

protectionist. Indeed, in view of the very low-wage scale of the really intelligent and efficient German labor, it may perhaps be contended that the German tariff already affords as much actual protection to German industry as the Dingley law does to high-wage American labor.

Natural conditions, not entirely the tariff, are doubtless responsible in great part for that unfavorable balance of trade which has ruffled German sensibilities. Thus, Germany's purchases from us are mainly of such things as cotton, provisions, breadstuffs, petroleum, etc., which the empire either does not produce at all or produces in inadequate quantities. On the other hand, American purchases from Germany are largely of competitive articles like iron and steel, silk and woolen fabrics, china and stoneware, hosiery, gloves, prints, embroideries, which can be and are produced in large quantities in the United States. If a tariff war were, unhappily, begun between Germany and America, both parties would suffer, as is always inevitable in a tariff conflict. The United States would be severely hurt by the loss of a good market for its surplus farm products, but Germany would be much more severely hurt by the enhanced cost which higher duties would bring upon the indispensable food of its working people and the raw material of its manufacturing.

The real question would seem to be, Can the United States, in order to placate Germany and save the market for our foodstuffs and raw materials, afford to reduce the tariff on finished manufactured products, so that Germany can sell a great deal more of silk goods, woolen goods, hosiery, chinaware, and gloves in the American market,—perhaps displacing thereby the similar products of American factories, and lessening thereby the home demand for the products of American farms? Here is a question which does not lend itself to quick and confident answer.

OUR EXPORTS OF MANUFACTURES.

In this connection, it ought to be noted that even without the pressure of a tariff war the United States is becoming relatively less and less of an exporter of foodstuffs and crude materials. The proportion of products of agriculture among our total exports was 69.73 per cent. in 1895, and 55.04 per cent. in 1905. Meanwhile the proportion of manufactured articles among our total exports has risen from 23.14 per cent. to 36.44 per cent.

For many years to come the United States cannot reasonably hope for a large sale of its manufactures,—certain specialties excepted,—in the manufacturing countries of the old world, which have a constant surplus of their own. But

this important fact is true, that the manufactured goods, as well as the materials and the foodstuffs which the United States can most advantageously produce, are, as a rule, the very things which are most needed in the neutral markets of the non-manufacturing nations of South America, Africa, and the Orient.

Tools, machinery, staple cotton cloths, flour, kerosene, lumber, provisions of the substantial kind,—these are what are chiefly required in those neutral countries. Yet the United States makes and sells abroad many more articles, as witness this list from the chief officer's cargo-diagram of the 12,000-ton American steamship *Shawmut*, outward bound from Tacoma and Seattle for Yokohama, Kobé, Moji, Shanghai, Hongkong, and the Philippines:

Bicycles.	Lard.
Books.	Locomotives.
Bridges (steel).	Malted milk.
Building paper.	Nails.
Canned meats.	Oats.
Canned oysters.	Paints.
Castings.	Paper (in bales).
Cedar poles.	Pianos.
Cigarettes.	Piles.
Condensed milk.	Pipe (iron).
Copper ingots.	Potatoes.
Cotton cloths.	Railway cars.
Drugs.	Rifles.
Electric machinery.	Roots.
Flour.	Salmon.
Furniture.	Spikes.
Hay.	

OUR FIRST NEED,—MORE SHIPS.

Here is a wide range of products in which the United States is competing successfully with Europe in the Orient. The first step toward a further expansion of our over-seas commerce is to follow the example of every one of our mercantile rivals,—from Great Britain in 1840 down to Germany in 1885, and Japan in 1896,—and that is to create, by national aid, improved facilities of transportation. Just as instinctively as a great department store provides itself with its own men and wagons to deliver its own goods to its customers, instead of leaving this indispensable service to the mercy of its rivals, have the great mercantile nations of the world provided their own ships and seamen. The United States and Russia alone have left the carrying of their merchandise chiefly to their competitors in peace and possible enemies in war. Now Russia, at any rate, has learned her lesson. It is announced from St. Petersburg that the Czar's government will take vigorous measures to create a merchant marine, and that steamship lines with national subventions will be started at once from both the Baltic and the Black seas to New York.

FREE TRADE WITH THE PHILIPPINES.

BY ARTHUR W. DUNN.

[Mr. Dunn, of the Associated Press, at Washington, is an exceptionally well-informed man who is not in the habit of expressing himself either hastily or inaccurately. In this present article he touches upon a matter of great importance in the relations of the United States to the Philippine archipelago. It is likely that a determined effort will be made at the coming session of Congress to favor the products of the Philippines by reducing the tariff on them to 25 per cent. of our general rates on foreign goods. Ultimately there ought to be free trade between the United States and all regions where the American flag floats in token of sovereignty.—THE EDITOR.]

FROM the time of the acquisition of the Philippines there has been a fear that the products of the islands would become destructive competitors of some of the protected articles of the United States. This fear was expressed when the treaty of peace ceding the islands to the United States was under consideration in the Senate, and some votes were influenced by this apprehension. To guard against this competition there has been legislation by Congress and several elaborate and remarkable opinions by the Supreme Court, and it has been established that Congress has the sole power to determine what duty the products of the islands shall pay when entering the United States. At present the duty is 75 per cent. of the rates which foreign countries pay, and it is practically an export tax on the Philippine products, as the revenue derived in this way is turned over to the Philippine treasury. This was done as a sop for the Filipinos. It was an excuse for continuing the protection to the American products, and at the same time the claim was made that no real harm was done the Filipinos, as the taxes thus collected were returned to them. This method of taxing Peter, the producer, to pay Paul, the treasurer, is not satisfactory to the Filipinos, especially to the producing and exporting classes, who assert that such methods tend to retard rather than develop the islands.

Thus, it now happens that Congress faces the demand for absolute free trade for the Philippines without any restrictions. Secretary Taft has always favored free trade for the Filipinos, and in reports, both as governor of the islands and Secretary of War, has forcibly expressed this view. One reason why he took a number of Senators and Representatives in Congress with him on his summer tour of the islands was to assist in bringing about this result. He wanted them to see by personal observation what he had seen, and he hoped they would be convinced. His invitation list showed that he sought men who had been most intense in their opposition to free trade with the Philippines,—

men who represented States and sections which were largely interested in the production of sugar and tobacco, the staples to be affected.

Have these men been convinced? That is a question to be determined as the debates upon the Philippine free-trade measure shall progress. From conversation with many of the Congressmen who accompanied Secretary Taft, it seems more than likely that none of them seriously entertains fears of Filipino competition; but most of them feel little or no uneasiness from what they saw of sugar and tobacco production in the Philippines, even with free trade. Before the Filipinos can enter into competition there must be a large influx of capital, careful organization, and intelligent management of large plantations. Men who saw a sugar-mill worked with carabaos crushing a single stalk of cane at a time could not be alarmed over the present sugar situation. It is estimated that it would take fifteen years under favorable conditions before sugar production could reach a stage where any large amounts would come to the United States. By that time the increased population of the United States as well as in the Philippines would consume the increased output.

Another consideration which only those with some knowledge of the Philippines and the character of the people can comprehend, is the labor in the islands. The Filipinos are like other tropical peoples, who live easily and by little manual labor. They do not like to work. There are some conditions under which the Philippines might show material prosperity. Give them free trade with the United States and open markets elsewhere, and the right to unlimited importation of Chinese contract labor, and there would be an immense increase in the products natural to the rich soil of the islands. In addition to this, make it possible to acquire unlimited quantities of land for large plantations. But two of the most important propositions can never be attained. There can be no large tracts of land acquired, nor will it be possible to import Chinese labor. The exclusion laws of the United

States have been extended over the islands, and they will not be withdrawn.

There have been differences of opinion as to the wisdom of excluding Chinese laborers from the Philippines, and knowing the natural indolence of the Filipinos, there are some people who think that only by cheap and willing labor can the islands be developed, but the most of those who have studied the question are in favor of keeping out Chinese labor. This labor problem in the Philippines was given careful attention by Elihu Root when he was administering the islands as War Secretary, and he came to the conclusion that it was better for the Filipinos to remain poor and the resources of the islands undeveloped for fifty years than to develop them in ten years with Chinese labor. It was his opinion that the Filipinos must be taught to work, that they must develop the islands themselves. To do otherwise would ruin them as a people. Some of the most intelligent Filipinos are of the same opinion. An influx of Chinese would mean that not only the labor, but the business of the islands would soon be in the hands of the Chinese. No doubt many Filipinos owning lands would like to loll under the bamboos and watch the Chinese do the work that even Filipino labor will not do now, but they are not a numerous class.

The difficulties in the way of rapid development in the Philippine Islands are such as to

lessen the chances of competition that has been such a bugbear to many statesmen in this country. It has scarcely been worth while to pass laws declaring a tariff against Philippine products, or securing complex five-to-four Supreme Court decisions. Exploitation of the islands has been predicted, but so far has not been attempted. Capital backed by shrewd men can find a better field in the United States. No speculators with money to invest care to try the Orient when there are such opportunities right at home. Men of small means must be presented with very favorable conditions before they will go so far afield for investment, and small capital will neither exploit nor develop the islands.

Granting the Filipinos free trade, it is believed, will result in making them more contented and less anxious to get from under the domination of the Americans. It will encourage them to believe they are not held as foreigners. It is also believed that free trade will produce a healthy and sure development of the islands, that it will be an incentive to production, and that the Filipinos will be encouraged to work. It is one of the several things promised by Secretary Taft, and he believes that without harm to American products a great deal may be accomplished for the good of the Philippines by establishing free trade with the islands.

HOW THE GERMANS REVISED THEIR TARIFF.

BY N. I. STONE.

(Tariff Expert of the Bureau of Statistics, United States Department of Commerce and Labor.)

IN connection with the pending tariff negotiations with the German Empire, a good deal has been said about the new and the old rates of duty in the German tariff, but comparatively little is known of the way the Germans "went at it." Yet the history of the tariff revision in Germany is so characteristic of the individual and natural traits of the people of that country, and at the same time so instructive when compared with our own legislative methods, that a brief account of it may prove both entertaining to the layman who takes an intelligent interest in public affairs and interesting to our public men.

The Germans have a way of moving "slowly but surely." The last time they had revised their tariff was in 1879, when Prince Bismarck became a convert to protection. Even at that

time, however, the arrangement and the working of the tariff schedules were left substantially the same as adopted in the early part of the nineteenth century, and only the rates were considerably increased.

Since 1879 no tariff revision had taken place, but in 1891 the government inaugurated a new policy of concluding commercial reciprocity treaties, by which several of the rates were reduced in favor of the countries with which such treaties were concluded.

These treaties were all to expire in December, 1903, and in anticipation of that event the government set about preparing for a new series of treaties. As the old tariff in its method of classification and technical construction of its schedules had remained practically unchanged since the beginning of the nineteenth century, and as

the agricultural interests were clamoring for increased protection, it was thought best to elaborate an entirely new scheme of schedules and system of classification, which would be more in accord with the specialized products of modern industry. The German Government began preparations for the drawing up of a new tariff scheme in the early part of 1898,—almost six years before the old commercial treaties were to expire.

The work of preparing the new tariff was carried out largely by two departments, the treasury and the interior.

A REPRESENTATIVE TARIFF COMMISSION.

While the treasury officials were assigned to the technical work of drawing up the schedules, the minister of the interior proceeded to enroll the coöperation of the business world for his part of the work. One of the first steps was to create a "Special Commission for the Elaboration of Measures for Furthering Commerce" (*Wirtschaftlicher Ausschuss zur Vorbereitung Handels-Politischer Massnahmen*). The commission consisted of thirty members, one-half of whom were appointed by the chancellor of the empire on the recommendation of the German Agricultural Association, the German Association of Chambers of Commerce, and the Central Association of German Manufactures, each of the organizations being represented by five members; the other fifteen members were appointed directly by the chancellor in the following manner: six representatives of the agrarian interests, five from manufacturers, and four representatives of wholesale trade.

As the five members recommended by the German Association of Chambers of Commerce included three manufacturers and only two representatives of the export trade, the composition of the entire commission was as follows: eleven agrarians, thirteen manufacturers, and six representatives of commerce. Of these, twenty-one were avowed protectionists, while the views of the remaining nine were uncertain. Considerable criticism was made later in the debates in the Reichstag, as well as in the press, regarding the make-up of the commission, charging the government with deliberately "packing" the commission with protectionists. The chancellor was blamed for ignoring the precedent established by Bismarck at the time of the tariff revision of 1879, when representatives of labor and of the middle classes, including artisans, tradesmen as well as consumers, and professional men were invited.

The government defended its action on the ground that the commission was engaged on purely technical work, and therefore had to be

made up of men whose practical experience qualified them for the work laid out for them. As to the representation of various other interests and parties, the chancellor thought it was a matter that fell within the scope of the Reichstag, which would no doubt give the various interests an opportunity to make themselves heard before the Reichstag committee having the tariff bill in charge.

As the object of creating the commission was to obtain information of a practical character which would throw some light upon the needs of the German industries, the first task assigned to the commission was the collection of data as to the output and value of the products of German industries, their sources of supply of raw material, and the markets serving as outlets.

INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM MANUFACTURERS.

The questions asked by the commission of the manufacturers related to the number and extent of machinery and steam power employed in their factories, the number of men engaged, the wages paid, the quantity of domestic and foreign raw material used, the quantity and value of animal products, and the quantity and value of sales at home and abroad. The list of questions wound up with this query, What suggestions have you to make as to measures to be taken for the encouragement of the production and exportation of the articles you manufacture, especially with regard to foreign competition at home as well as abroad?

These questions were sent out to more than fifty thousand manufacturers, of whom more than 92 per cent. replied; thereby providing a mass of data and other information which proved invaluable to the work of the commission.

THREE YEARS' DISCUSSION OF DETAILS.

In the meantime a draft of the new tariff was prepared by the Treasury Department, and, before the close of 1898, copies of the draft were sent out for criticism and suggestions to the governments of the states constituting the empire and to the imperial ministry of the interior.

The draft was now discussed by tariff experts and customs officers of the constituent states, as well as by the officials of the ministry of the interior.

After the copies of the draft were returned to the Treasury Department by the different government institutions, with their criticisms and suggestions, the treasury officials recast the entire draft, and in the fall of 1899 sent out the new draft to the same bodies. The new draft was gone over with the same care as the first and returned to the Treasury Department.

After remodeling the tariff schedules in accordance with the new suggestions, the treasury submitted the draft in its completed form to the commission on January 17, 1901,—i.e., after nearly three years' preparatory work on the part of the government officials.

The commission did not confine its labors to the work of its own members, but in addition to that consulted recognized leaders in the business world, technical and economic experts, chambers of commerce and national associations of manufacturers organized by industries. In all more than two thousand experts took part in the work.

While the hearings of the various experts were conducted by the commission, the replies from the manufacturers and the farmers to the inquiries sent out by the commission had all come in and were sifted and analyzed by the commission with the aid of technical and statistical experts. The results, when compiled, were not made public, but turned over to the treasury.

Thus, the two bodies,—namely, the commission of business men and the treasury officials,—starting at the beginning upon distinct lines of procedure, were now, after nearly three years' effort, in a position to exchange the results of their preliminary work. The commission took up now the draft of the tariff schedules, prepared by the treasury officials, while the latter undertook the study of the results of the statistical inquiry of the commission, which were to be used as a basis in working out the different rates.

The rates set down by the treasury officials for the different tariff schedules were accompanied by detailed statements, in which the statistical data obtained by the commission were used as a basis for determining the degree of protection required by the various products.

When the entire tariff was thus completed, the whole draft, consisting of the schedules, rates of duty, and the explanatory statements on which the rates were based, was sent out again by the Treasury Department to the various departments of the imperial government interested therein, as well as to the separate governments of the constituent states, and to the commission.

After recasting the entire tariff once more in accordance with the suggestions received from the bodies just mentioned, the Treasury Department was finally in a position to submit the draft of a new tariff law to the Bundesrath (Federal Council) for its approval.

The bill was published in the official Government Gazette on July 25, 1901. As the various preliminary stages described above were conducted in secret sessions, the public at large now got the first opportunity of examining the proposed tariff law.

The Bundesrath passed the bill with a few unimportant changes, and it was now laid before the Reichstag, November 25, 1901.

THE DEBATE IN THE REICHSTAG.

By this time the various industrial, agricultural, and commercial organizations had had time to examine and criticise the bill, and were prepared to bring pressure on the members of the Reichstag and to give expression to their views in the press.

After devoting nine days to a continuous discussion of the bill on its first reading, the Reichstag turned it over to a committee of twenty-eight members, in which the various parties, from the ultra-protectionist conservatives to the radical socialists, were represented. The majority of the committee, however, was protectionist, and it gave no end of trouble to the government, insisting on raising still further the already increased rates of duty on agricultural products. The struggle in the committee proved so intense that in spite of its continuous sessions, both during the sessions of the Reichstag and after the adjournment of the latter, no agreement could be reached until October, 1902,—i.e., after ten months' continual work.

The bill, as finally reported to the Reichstag from the committee, with rates greatly increased, pleased nobody. The secretary of the interior, who had charge of the government tariff measure in the Reichstag, exclaimed: "I fear that our commercial armor will prove too heavy for a successful struggle." The conservatives, representing the agricultural interests, thought they needed more protection, and the radicals and the socialists denounced it as robbery.

It was soon perceived that only heroic measures could save the tariff from wreck. Accordingly, the government and the conservatives agreed on a compromise, by which the former accepted the increased rates adopted by the committee, and the latter agreed to vote with the government on a motion to cut off the debates and to vote the measure as a whole. This was carried over the vehement opposition of the Left, and the bill became a law and received the Emperor's signature on December 25, 1902.

The government was now ready to enter into negotiations with the different foreign countries for the conclusion of commercial treaties based on the new tariff. It took two years to conclude the new commercial treaties, which were ratified by the Reichstag and received the sanction of law on February 22, 1905. One year's notice was then given to the outside world of the termination of the old tariff, which will give place to the new on March 1, 1906.

ONE WAY TO GET SANE LEGISLATION.

BY JOHN R. COMMONS.

(Professor of Political Economy, University of Wisconsin.)

MUCH has been said of the failure of representative government in American States and cities. Many are the remedies proposed and adopted, most of them in the nature of restrictions on the legislative branch. Legislatures have been tied up and held down by revised constitutions; they have been blocked by executive and judicial vetoes; and some city legislatures have been stripped of power, or all but abolished. This question comes up, Instead of restricting the legislature, how can its efficiency be increased?

Take the ordinary member of a State legislature. He is serving his first or second term. He has been elected, not on the strength of his expert or technical knowledge of the subjects on which laws are to be enacted, but because, in general, his views on public questions agree with those of the majority of his constituents. In the first few weeks of the session he finds himself swamped in a shower of several hundred, or perhaps a thousand, bills introduced by himself and fellow-members. Each of these is a prospective law on which he must pass judgment. Evidently the task is impossible even for a body of experts, since no expert can be proficient on all the subjects that come before American legislatures. Much more is it impossible for the man whose knowledge is only that of the generally well-informed citizen. The result we know. The members separate themselves into committees. All the bills are distributed among these committees, and each committee becomes a little legislature on a group of related bills. The rest of the legislature must take on trust the explanations made by the committees or by members when reporting back. This is simply log-rolling, or trading,—the only possible mode of legislation where members can inform themselves on but a small proportion of the bills.

Here the lobbyist comes in. He is really the present-day form of the legislative expert. Few, if any, of the members can cope with him in technical and detailed knowledge of the subjects on which he presses his views. Even the member who introduces and champions a measure is often less informed upon it than the lobbyist who backs it or fights it. Hence, the great power of the lobby.

The difficulty is, that the lobbyist is interested

in presenting only one side of the case. The problem is, to bring to the legislature the testimony and advice of all the other experts throughout the country. This may seem like a big task, but it is really only a matter of ingenuity and enterprise.

A LEGISLATIVE CLIPPING-BUREAU.

That this is so has been demonstrated by Dr. Charles McCarthy during the last two sessions of the Wisconsin Legislature. In 1901 the library of the Wisconsin Historical Society was moved from the State Capitol to a building of its own at a distance. The legislature thereupon added an appropriation of fifteen hundred dollars to the funds of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, with which to employ a "legislative librarian" at the capitol. The appointment was given to Mr. McCarthy, a graduate of Brown University and a doctor of philosophy of the University of Wisconsin. Mr. McCarthy entered on his duties without a library and without an example. But he had been a student of legislatures and of legislative procedure. He had spent a month in historical research at the legislative library at Albany, N. Y. But he could not hope to reproduce the magnificent equipment nor the exhaustive bulletins, bibliographies, and aids to legislative students of that great library. He did a very sensible thing. He started a clipping-bureau. He collected all of the pamphlets, bulletins, reports of commissions, magazine articles, and the like that he could get free. He accumulated as many duplicates as possible for free distribution. He classified them and arranged them under proper headings, paying special attention to the subjects that he knew would come up at the next legislative session. He searched the libraries of the several State departments and brought over whatever he thought would be an aid to the legislature. By the time the session met in 1903 he had, not what would be called a library, but an up-to-date, live set of aids to law-makers.

EXPERT ADVICE FOR LEGISLATORS.

But this was preliminary. As soon as the elections had been held he sent to all the members of the incoming legislature a circular, telling them something of what he had on hand,

and offering to assist them by furnishing information, copies of laws enacted or bills introduced in other States, etc., on any measure that they proposed to bring before the legislature. Over one hundred requests came in, and he forwarded by mail his clippings, pamphlets, and bills. When the legislature assembled he moved his collection to a room on the same floor. He circulated among the members, brought them to his library, and showed them what he had. He learned what they wanted and, if he did not have it on hand, he immediately wrote or wired to all parts of the country to get it. No member was left to read through a lot of treatises or law books and laboriously digest a subject, but Dr. McCarthy put in his hands the already digested work of others who were studying or acting on the same line. When the committees were appointed and began their work he helped them in the same way. He sent hundreds of copies of their bills to experts, commissions, lawyers, and informed citizens in Wisconsin and other States, asking for criticisms, improvements, and accounts of whatever experience they might have had on the points involved. If a lobbyist made statements of fact before a committee, he would have replies by post or telegraph within a day or two thereafter from the parties who knew the facts. The chairman of the Committee on Claims has given several instances where these replies saved the State hundreds and even thousands of dollars. Other committees were aided in a similar way. The committees on railway legislation, primary elections, and civil-service reform at the sessions of 1903 and 1905 had before them, not only the laws of all the States, but the bills introduced in other States, the hearings on those bills, arguments of counsel, the best pamphlets and magazine articles, besides pertinent letters from the best-informed men of the country, of all shades of opinion, on the details of their own bills which they had under consideration.

MAXIMUM OF SERVICE AT MINIMUM OF COST.

So practical and effective has been this assistance from the start that the legislature, in 1903, increased the appropriation so as to allow the employment of a skilled librarian and stenographer, while the legislature of 1905 added another appropriation to employ an expert assistant

in statistics as legislative draughtsman, the latter to be employed only during the session. The assistant in statistics is now at work on several topics that will come before the legislature of 1907. Even with these assistants and expenses for correspondence and telegraph, the annual appropriation for the next two years is only \$4,500, an increase of \$1,500 over the preceding two years. It is indeed surprising on what a small appropriation has been produced such a large amount of usefulness.

Not only do members of the legislature profit by this enterprise, the citizens of the State are learning to make use of it. Students in the university working on debates have come into contact with live problems in a direct and up-to-date way that could hardly have been thought of heretofore.

NOT A POLITICAL OFFICE.

Already other States have heard of this work and are making inquiries. The legislature of California established a similar librarianship in 1904, and one of Dr. McCarthy's assistants has been appointed to the post. There are indications that other legislatures will follow, while several State librarians have made themselves acquainted with the possibilities of such a branch of their work, and are taking it up or are remodeling their former efforts on similar lines. There are two prime qualifications necessary in the man who can do this work successfully,—extensive knowledge of the places where information can be found on all public questions, and alertness and facility in "mixing" with legislators in order to learn and even anticipate the kind of help they require. Dr. McCarthy has both these qualifications, and in seeing him do the thing one would conclude that it is a personality and not a job.

Such qualifications cannot be secured where the appointment is a political one. The Wisconsin Free Library Commission is an unsalaried commission designed to stimulate the reading of books throughout the State. The legislature has wisely left the appointment of legislative librarian and assistants to this non-partisan body, instead of retaining the appointment itself or placing it under a political department. Otherwise the position would have added merely more patronage and not more legislative efficiency.



THE AMERICANIZATION OF MEXICO.

BY EDWARD M. CONLEY.

TWO factors are responsible for Mexico's recent remarkable progress: Porfirio Diaz and—largely through him—American influence. Modernization and Americanization are almost synonymous terms in Mexico. For the past twenty-five years Mexico has been breaking off her moldy shell of past civilization and getting into modern business clothes. What more natural than that they should be cut American fashion? Yet he who thinks it has been easy to bring about the change fails to understand Latin-American character. The creation of a nation was not achieved eighty years ago when Mexico cut loose from Spain. She was no more fit to govern herself than Spain was fit to govern her. Fitness was not attained until a quarter of a century ago, when General Diaz undertook the task. He "smashed the old order of things," opened the doors of the country to the light of modern civilization, and invited foreigners to come in and show his people how to keep house. The fact that he has taken advantage of the proximity of his country to the United States to work out its development largely along American lines is an evidence of his farseeing statesmanship.

Let it not be imagined that President Diaz himself is Americanized in any patriotic sense. He is not only a Mexican, but the Mexican. He is Mexico. Yet he is broad-minded enough to use whatever he sees that is good wherever he finds it.

Almost his first step along the lines of progress after he assumed the presidential chair was the connection of his capital with the United States by three lines of railroad, built and operated by Americans with American capital. This was accomplished in the face of violent opposition on the part of the Conservative or Church party. Railroads are the greatest agents of civilization and development in any country, and those particular railroads meant national progress. The \$200,000,000 of American capital invested in them would be a magnet to draw more American capital, brains, energy, blood, education, and manners into the country. The liberal subsidy and concessions granted by Diaz for the building of the roads was a wise investment. Those railroads were cheap at any price.

The railroad-building was followed by the offering of liberal inducements to Americans to

invest their capital in other enterprises in the republic, and slowly, but surely, the wheels of progress began to turn. Other foreigners have invested capital and have emigrated in small numbers to Mexico, but for geographical reasons the United States has supplied the bulk of the money and sent the greatest number of citizens there during the new era.

American influence in Mexico is not to be measured, however, by the amount of money invested or the number of Americans residing there. We have been the leaven in the loaf, as it were,—the small cake of yeast in the big pan of dough. Americans have invested approximately \$500,000,000 in Mexico during the past twenty-five years, a small amount in comparison with the total wealth of the country, but that \$500,000,000 has accomplished more during that time for the development of Mexico than all the rest of the capital of the country.

We have invested \$75,000,000 in Mexican mines,—and incidentally have got the money back in payment for mining machinery sold to the Mexicans. But we have taught Mexico modern mining methods, and have thereby increased the aggregate value of Mexican mines probably a hundredfold.

We have invested \$25,000,000 in agricultural enterprises in Mexico, and during the same time we have sold to Mexico about that much agricultural machinery. We have taught the Mexicans how to farm, and have added to their potential wealth in farming lands a hundred times \$25,000,000.

We have invested a few millions in Mexican banking enterprises, and we have taught the Mexicans banking and the use of banks. We have built hydraulic power plants and taught the Mexicans how to utilize the enormous amount of energy which was going to waste in their waterfalls by transforming it into electrical energy. We are paving city streets with asphalt, putting in sewer and waterworks systems, electric-lighting plants and street-car systems, replacing cumbrous old buildings with modern, steel-frame structures, changing the external appearance of things generally. We have invested in city real estate, and are teaching the Mexicans how to build a city. Witness the remarkable change in the city of Mexico in the past ten years.

We have, by our example and our commercial products, taught the Mexican peon to wear shoes and a hat, and have increased his wages all over the republic. Whether or not we have added anything to his happiness is another question. We have taught the Mexican millionaire to ride in an automobile and live in an American-style house.

There are only ten thousand Americans, more or less, in the whole republic of Mexico, yet they have changed and are changing the entire manner of living of the country. Our influence on the business life of the country might have been anticipated by such a farseeing man as Diaz, but if twenty years ago any one had ventured to assert that we would ever change in the smallest degree the domestic life of the Mexicans, he would have been considered out of his senses. Yet we are changing it rapidly. Twenty years ago the upper-class Mexican had his house in a dirty old street, surrounded by squalor and filth. He lived in the upper stories and had his offices, servants' quarters, and stables on the first floor. The house was the old Spanish-style building, with interior patios, entirely unsuited to the climate of the high tableland of Mexico, with thick stone walls, iron-barred windows in front, but no windows in the bedrooms or any of the back rooms, and no provision for heating.

About this time an American company bought a large tract of land in the southwestern part of the city of Mexico and contracted with the city government to plat it, pave it, put in a sewer system and waterworks, and make other public improvements. This was to be the American colony of the city of Mexico, and is still called the American colony, though Americans are scattered all over the city. Several Americans put up American-style houses in the new colony, which was then considered to be a long distance from the center of the city, though it was only ten minutes distant by street car. The Mexicans liked the houses, and soon began to buy lots in the colony and build similar ones upon them. Now more Mexicans than Americans live in the American colony, the land has increased in value a hundred times, and the growth of the city is all in that direction. Now where one residence of the old style is being built in the city of Mexico one hundred residences of the American style are going up, and competent American architects and builders are in great demand. The old patio is doomed. In its place has come a front yard with a grass plot. The coach-house has been removed to the back of the lot. Rooms are built with windows, closets, and grates; kitchens have American ranges, bathrooms have American plumbing.

But that is only half of the story. In the center of the city we are erecting modern office buildings, and the Mexican is now beginning to have his office in one place and his house in another, and to have both clean, sanitary, and in healthy parts of the city.

If an American were to predict now that twenty years hence the Mexican family life will be on an American basis, that Mexican women will enjoy equal freedom with their American sisters, that the absurdly stilted etiquette of the Mexican will be placed upon a rational and sincere basis, he would be considered over-enthusiastic. Yet the change is coming, just as the American house has come, just as Mexican women are learning how to dress, just as Mexican men are learning how to transact business upon a business and not a social basis.

Of course, the city of Mexico shows most conspicuously the effects of the American invasion, but there is now hardly a spot in Mexico which does not show some impress of the American. Wherever he has gone he has left his mark. He has taught the Mexican something of a different sort of life. Nowadays a Mexican who has a reputation for transacting business upon the American plan has a most valuable asset.

The study of English is compulsory in the Mexican public schools. Every year Mexico sends to the United States a number of school-teachers to study American pedagogic methods. A great many Mexican children are being educated in the schools and colleges of this country, where formerly they were sent to Europe. The number of Mexican visitors to the United States and the number of American visitors to Mexico is increasing every year. It is said that Yucatecans know New York better than the city of Mexico, and that west-coast Mexicans are more at home in San Francisco than in their own capital city. Thus, each year the American way of living is taking a deeper hold on the Mexican people.

The vice-president of Mexico and announced successor of President Diaz is very much Americanized in his ideas. In fact, he might easily be mistaken for a plain, shrewd American business man from his appearance, manner, and methods. He has always been exceedingly friendly toward Americans. As governor of the state of Sonora, he encouraged them to invest in enterprises in his state and to settle therein. He spared no effort in seeing that their lives, property, and civil rights were protected. He is well informed about the United States, and is a student of English. He has three daughters in school at San Francisco, and is educating all of his children in the United States.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

JEROME THE LAWYER.

NOW that the district attorney of new York County has been reelected after a unique canvass which made him in a sense a national figure, it would not be surprising if his brethren of the legal profession throughout the country should raise the question, "Is this man a lawyer, as well as a campaigner?" With a view to answering inquiries regarding Mr. Jerome's professional standing and achievements, the *Green Bag*, of Boston, publishes in its November number an interesting paper by Arthur Train, entitled "Jerome the Lawyer."

To the question, "Does Jerome know any law, or is he merely a fighter?" this writer replies that while Mr. Jerome indubitably is a "fighter," an energetic servant of the public, and a leader of popular opinion, he is at the same time a trained lawyer of judicial mind, who combines with a thorough knowledge of the law an unusual originality and independence of thought and an extraordinary breadth of legal vision."

It appears that Mr. Jerome was an "enthusiastic and exhaustive student" at the Columbia Law School in the early '80's, and did not confine his studies to the fixed curriculum. In 1888, after he had been in practice several years, he was appointed a deputy assistant on the staff of District Attorney Fellows (a Tammany official). He held this office for two years, trying a great variety of cases, and taking several of them up on appeal after conviction. One of these was the case of the People *versus* Moran, in which the Court of Appeals sustained the conviction and determined the doctrines that were to govern attempts at crime in the State of New York.

Mr. Jerome resumed private practice in 1890, and was retained for the defense of Carlisle Harris, accused of poisoning his girl wife. In this case the most brilliant feature of the defense was Mr. Jerome's cross-examination of the prosecution's expert witnesses. The cause was hopeless, however, and Harris was convicted. Soon after this Mr. Jerome was retained, together with John W. Goff, as counsel for the Committee of Seventy, at that time actively engaged in assisting the Lexow police investigation in New York City. After having taken a prominent part in drafting a law creating a new court for the trial of misdemeanors, Mr. Jerome be-

came, on July 1, 1895, one of the members of this court.

A LAWMAKER OUTSIDE THE LEGISLATURE.

The acceptance of this judgeship might have been expected to foreshadow Mr. Jerome's disappearance from public life. This was the expectation of his friends at the time, but the judgeship, in Mr. Train's opinion, was in some ways Mr. Jerome's making, since it gave him an opportunity for the study of human nature and of the practical effect of legislation such as he could have gained in no other way. His chief effectiveness, it may be said, has grown out of the knowledge thus secured. Mr. Jerome is a thorough believer in the amendment of laws to make them represent the actual principles of the community. If he finds a law inadequate he drafts a new one, and hammers away at the legislature until his draft is enacted.

In this way he has personally drafted and secured the enactment of what is commonly known as the "Canfield bill," which covers so exhaustively the question of the privilege of witnesses in gambling cases who decline to answer questions on the ground that their answers may tend to incriminate them, that practically every gambler in New York City went out of business on its passage. In the "Prince bill," which amplifies the law against bribery to include specifically the bribing of representatives of labor organizations, and also extends the non-availability of pleas of privilege as established by the "Canfield bill" to witnesses in proceedings instituted thereunder, he performed a valuable service to both labor and capital; and by his statute passed to remedy the desperate situation in which creditors found themselves after a fraudulent bankruptcy, where the books of the bankrupt had disappeared, by making the failure of such an one to produce his books on due notice presumptive evidence that his written representations as to his financial condition were originally false, he has rendered inestimable assistance to the merchants of the State.

By the simple drafting of a statute, Jerome drove the gamblers from New York when no other district attorney, no matter how honest may have been his intention, saw his way to do more than make a few ineffectual attempts to prosecute them before juries which rarely found them guilty, and it is not unreasonable to believe that the number of fraudulent bankruptcies will hereafter be reduced 50 per cent., when prior to Jerome's incumbency in office, convictions for crimes arising out of such frauds or for obtaining goods or credit by means of false representations as to financial condition, were practically unheard of.

Statutes of this character could have been drawn only by a man who united with a thorough knowledge of the necessities of the situation a comprehensive and subtle knowledge of the law itself.

No public official could have accomplished what Jerome has done unless he had had confidence in himself and in his own judgment. Jerome follows no interpretation of law which does not seem to him reasonable and right. He steps boldly in where angels might well fear to tread. If the law permits him to do an act he does it, and he stops at nothing in carrying out his objects within the law.

HOW JEROME TRIES CASES.

Lawyers outside of New York may be interested to know something of Mr. Jerome's methods as district attorney,—an office which he has filled for the past four years. On this subject Mr. Train, who is a member of Mr. Jerome's official family, says of his chief:

Only during his administration has the appeal work of the office been brought to its present state of efficiency, and it is a conservative statement to say that never before has the purely legal side of the administration of criminal justice received so much attention from the prosecuting officer in New York County, and in this purely legal aspect of his labors Jerome is seen at his best. While he rarely takes part in the actual conduct of a case by examining witnesses or addressing the jury, he makes it a point to appear in person and argue the more difficult questions of law presented by demurrer or otherwise pending and throughout the more important trials. On such occasions, Jerome's knowledge of law and grasp of fact make him the dominant figure in the court-room. Without any waste of time or superfluity of words he seizes upon the salient point involved, shakes it free from the mass of irrelevant statement and specious argument in which it may be entangled, and in a few direct and oftentimes scathing sentences demonstrates the accuracy of his contention. On the other hand, if Jerome the lawyer thinks he is wrong he never hesitates to say so. "Give the devil his due and two more" is his principle, and this just as true whether the poor devil be in the right or in the wrong. But when Jerome has thought he was right the courts have usually agreed with him.

During his term of office District Attorney Jerome has pursued and brought to justice eight members of his own profession. Most of these convictions were for crimes arising out of breaches of trust toward clients. Some fifteen other lawyers are awaiting trial. Mr. Jerome has shown a clear perception of the wickedness that his own profession may be guilty of.

A PROSECUTOR WHO KNOWS THE LAW.

In concluding his sketch, Mr. Train declares that Mr. Jerome is now and always has been the "lawyer" of his office, as well as its "chief."

When the members of his official family make use of this latter term for him with affectionate respect, it is in no idle sense, and although the professional staff contains several men of mature years and long experience as general practitioners of law, it is to Jerome himself that his assistants turn for help and advice in their time of need. It is then that they discover, if they have never realized it before, that the district attorney has at his fingers' ends a thorough knowledge of every aspect of the criminal law as well as its allied branches. It is often said that Jerome knows the penal and criminal codes, with the decisions thereunder, better than any other man at the New York bar, and he uses this knowledge to solve a problem or reach a desired end as a skilled mechanic manipulates a complicated but powerful machine. The writer is unaware of an instance where an assistant, when caught unprepared by



DISTRICT ATTORNEY JEROME, OF NEW YORK.

one of the many exigencies of a criminal trial, has appealed to Jerome for aid that it was not instantly forthcoming without the necessity of sending for books of reference or reports, and he recalls more than one occasion where his chief's fortuitous presence at a trial, and his ability to furnish the law to the court itself, have saved a case about to be abandoned.

Whatever else he may be as well, the district attorney of New York County is a lawyer of thoroughly balanced legal mind, of unusual attainments in his own department, with a comprehensive knowledge of the law as a whole, and a statesmanlike grasp of the purposes and possibilities of legislation. With an extraordinary capacity to see all sides of a question at one and the same time, he unites rapidity of thought and precision of statement. These qualities, apart from his independence of judgment, steadfastness of purpose, and indomitable energy, entitle him to a permanent place among the leaders of the bar.

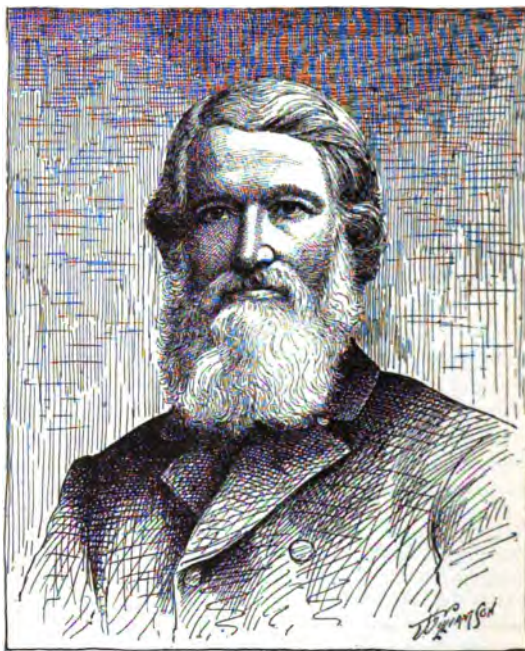
THE MAN WHO MIGHT HAVE BEEN PRESIDENT OF NORWAY.

A WELL-KNOWN Norwegian publicist, Dr. Halfdan Koth, in reviewing (in the monthly *Samtiden*, of Christiania) the history of the Swedish-Norwegian union, ascribes the greater part of the triumph of Norway in the present dissolution to the Norwegian historian, Prof. J. E. Sars. Professor Sars has always been one of the staunchest opponents of the Scandinavian union. As far back as 1860, when Norway was almost carried away by enthusiasm over a united Scandinavia, Sars was one of a very few who dared to raise his voice in protest. The historian, who is the father-in-law of the explorer Nansen, has many times been mentioned as the possible president of Norway, should that country choose a republican form of government. In writing the first comprehensive history of Norway, Professor Sars has rendered the inestimable service of giving it the support of historical tradition.

It was in 1871, when the Norwegian Storting refused the proposed revision of the Rikssakt strengthening the union, that Dr. Sars became the recognized head of the movement for separation from Sweden. Since that time he has lectured and written in favor of separation, and has held his chair of Norwegian history at the University of Christiania.

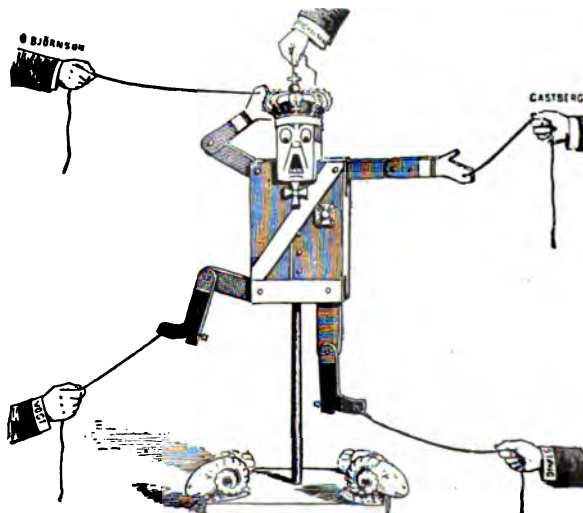
While the Norwegian people for half a century have been vitally interested in the efforts looking toward separation, the masses of Sweden have been profoundly indifferent. In order to awaken them to their responsibility and interest, many books and pamphlets have been published during recent years, the most important of which are epitomized and reviewed in the *Social Tidsskrift* (Stockholm). The most noteworthy among these are: "The Swedish Platform in the Crisis over the Union," by Prof. Nils Edén, and "Papers on the Swedish-Norwegian Union," by Dr. Karl Nordlund. The latter is intended particularly to answer the propaganda of the explorer Nansen. Professor Edén's book, on the other hand, aims to prove that Norway needed the union even more than Sweden, and that the idea of the Swedish people was always peace and patience. Commenting on these publications (in another number of the *Samtiden*), Professor Sars defends the action of Norway, and maintains that, just as Spain and Portugal, having once been united, can now live separately in peace and prosperity, and just as Holland and Belgium have followed the same evolution, so Norway and Sweden can remain separate and yet prosper and live at peace with each other.

Commenting on the recently concluded treaty



PROF. J. E. SARS, NORWAY'S EMINENT HISTORIAN AND STATESMAN.

at Karlstad, Dr. Sars declares that some of the Norwegian concessions were unnecessary. Despite this, however, "every reasonable person will regard the balance of good of the treaty of Karlstad as well worth the price paid for it."



A SWEDISH VIEW OF THE NEW KING OF NORWAY.
(Pulled and pushed by republican and monarchist.)
From *Nya Nisse* (Stockholm).

WHAT IS THE "BLACK HUNDRED"?

NOTWITHSTANDING the efficient organization of the Associated Press for collecting news, those outside of Russia can hardly gain an adequate conception of the true conditions that have lately prevailed in that country. The press dispatches and cable messages scarcely penetrate beyond the curtain, and tell but little of the organizations and counter-organizations in the vast interior of the empire. We know, in a general way, of the important happenings in Moscow and St. Petersburg, and of the massacres that have taken place in Odessa and elsewhere, but we do not know of the intrigues and the desperate efforts made by the bureaucracy to retain the power that is slipping from its hands.

The Russians themselves do not seem to possess a true appreciation of the trend of events, as may be seen, for instance, from a recent number of the weekly *Pravo* (St. Petersburg), issued just before the granting of the constitution by Nicholas II. Says the writer :

On the one hand, we behold the preparations for the imperial Duma ; on the other, the increased military precautions and the state of siege constantly spreading like a gangrene. To-day one may see on the square a gathering of several thousand people and an enthusiastic discussion prolonged for several hours and uninterrupted by the police, while on the next day the fear of a new gathering leads to wild Cossack attacks on all who happen to walk through that square. Largely attended meetings distinguished for freedom of utterance were held in the higher educational institutions, while the police forcibly enter private dwellings and make a record of the names of the dozen or two of the citizens who are discovered there. Persistent rumors of the coming political amnesty and unceasing executions determined by administrative discretion go hand in hand.

Evidently the diminishing influence of the central power is followed by an increase, for a time at least, in the power of the local administrations. Left to themselves, the provincial and municipal bureaucratic organizations remain idle or resort to the old methods of stern repression. Whatever respect for law and order there once existed is fast vanishing from among the dark masses. Might with them is almost the only measure of right, whose true conception has been obliterated by decades of official corruption and the arbitrary disregard of law. The really intelligent and patriotic Russians stand helpless before these manifestations of a growing chaos, and the rapid disappearance of the last vestiges of the respect for law. The well-known economist Slovinski, writing in *Vyestnik Yevropy* (St. Petersburg), asks :

"How far have we progressed in this respect since the days of Nicholas I.?" The present organizers of the

various "patriotic riots" and massacres are not punished at all, in so far as we may judge from current reports, but are even recommended for promotion. No attempt is made to convict those guilty of inciting others to murder and pillage, and of arraying one portion of the population against another. No attempt is made to punish official inactivity and indifference during brutal street attacks on peaceable citizens, accompanied by the devastation of whole manufacturing districts. We constantly hear, on the contrary, of the arrest and imprisonment of respected citizens who are not even accused of any definite crime, but are for some reason objectionable to the administration. The absurd fables about the Japanese millions used to purchase the "Liberals" and the disaffected workmen were given wide publicity in official and officious organs, and helped thus to maintain the agitation among the ignorant people in many cities of the empire. This avowed, false propaganda of revengeful hatred of the "intelligence" was not arrested, and nowhere led to action on the part of the public prosecutors. Orders absurd in their very arbitrariness are issued by bureaucrats great and small, yet no attempt is made to put an end to this audacious mockery of the existing laws. The simple conception of legality that was supported by Nicholas I. has disappeared, as it were, from our government practice ; and justice, in spite of the decrees of Alexander II., has become an obedient tool of police administrative discretion in the sphere of so-called political matters.

Legality which, as even the hardened conservatives will admit, is the indispensable foundation of normal national life, has no support where it depends on the personal views and accidental impressions of the higher government officials. With the beginning of the eighties legality was cast aside, and was gradually replaced by the all-powerful administrative discretion. We still note occasional decrees that contain at times fine words about the implicit and general observance of the law, but this implicit obedience and the good faith of the citizen was to be regulated and controlled by the very men for whom no law is really binding, and who always possess the means of ridding themselves of inconvenient laws with the aid of ministerial circulars. Occasionally the organs of local administration were called upon to check their own arbitrariness. In the well-known decree of December 12-25, 1905, it is found imperative to adopt active measures for the preservation of the full power of the law, but such measures have not been devised, and cannot be devised, as long as there is retained in full force a series of institutions standing above the law.

The innumerable bureaucrats are loath to part with their power, and hope to retain it by fanning the flames of class hatred. The cynicism, the open connivance, or even the more direct activities of the police administrations, have made possible the organization of the "Black Hundred," loyalist elements, or would-be loyalist elements, composed of ignorant priests, petty merchants, and apprentices, and even more largely of the great host of idlers and loafers—Hooligans—so plentiful in the Russian cities. The Black Hundred counts among its members even bishops of

the Greek Orthodox Church, as in Saratov, for instance, where the activities of Bishop Hermogenes have led the example paper *Russ* to designate him as the "father of the Black Hundred." The composition and spirit of the Black Hundred is best illustrated by the following incident reported by the *Yuzhnoye Slovo*. On August 18-September 1, a large number of officers of the Volga Cossack regiment gathered at the railroad station in Kremenchug.

There was present among them their colonel, Stetzenko, and also a large number of non-commissioned officers and privates. The Cossacks all drank freely to the accompaniment of music, and were addressed by their colonel, who, among other things, said, "What would you do to me if I were guilty of treason to our Little Father the Czar?"

"We would kill you, hang you, cut your throat," shouted the Cossacks.

"Thank you, brothers. But the Jews are guilty of treason; kill them, brothers," etc.

The Cossacks and attending loafers began to dance in ecstasy. They were followed by the colonel. Kisses and embraces were exchanged and a wild orgy ensued, and above the tumult was heard the shout: "Down with the Jews! Kill the Jews!"

Incidents like the above may well serve to explain how the Black Hundred gathers inspi-

ration for its brutal outbreaks. The police officials encourage its members in spreading all sorts of absurd tales calculated to inflame the ignorant masses against the Jews, the Liberals, the students,—in a word, against everybody who would abolish the tyranny of the bureaucracy. Special proclamations are printed and scattered broadcast, urging the destruction of all who are fighting for a free Russia, yet the public makes no attempt to suppress such appeals to popular ignorance and prejudice. The following paragraph occurs in one of these proclamations, issued in Tambov, a stronghold of the Black Hundred:

We call upon all Russian men to arm with whatever weapons they may secure, and when the cry is raised for the destruction of those guilty of treason, to attack them by armed force. We, the party of Russian men, will point out to them all who should be killed here in Tambov, as well as in other places. Fear the Lord God. Defend our dear fatherland and its great autocratic Czar. Long live the autocracy!

Such is the cry of the Black Hundred, under whose banner the lawless elements of the empire are spreading destruction and anarchy in the important cities of European Russia and Siberia.

WHAT IS GERMANY AIMING AT IN POLAND?

IS Russia being driven into "a deplorable adventure by German influence and German court intrigues?" According to those who profess to know, the official Russian communication, published on November 13, committing the government against the concession of autonomy to Poland and menacing the Poles with dire pains and penalties unless they abandon their nationalist aspirations, was issued under the influence of Germany. It is pointed out in this connection that the Alvensloeben Convention of 1862 and the recent tacit agreement under which the Czar was enabled to denude his western frontier of troops for the war with Japan, alike stipulated that Russia should never grant autonomy to her Polish subjects. The communication of the Russian Government of November 13 has produced "a feeling of stupor and indignation in all the parties throughout the Russian empire that stand for progress;" and it looks, at the present moment, as if the action of the Government toward Poland would lead to final and absolute rupture between the Russian Liberals and the government. The League of Leagues has issued resolutions condemning the proclamation of martial law in Poland and declaring that the Polish liberation movement is part and parcel of Russia's

fight for freedom, thereby signifying that the cause of Poland will be taken up vigorously in Russia. The last Moscow congress, it will be remembered, decided in favor of Polish autonomy by a large majority. Speaking of Germany and the Russian Poles, the *Przeglad Wszechpolski* (the Pan-Polish Review of Cracow), says:

In general, Germany exploits the troubles of Russia, obtruding herself upon that unfortunate empire in the rôle of a friend and protector. It is plain that this friendship is not given gratis; the Muscovites frequently express the conviction that in the time of Alexander II. the good intercourse between Russia and Germany lay in the exploitation of the former by the latter. Germany would be very glad to revive those good times on a wider scale.

Now a new agent begins to enter into the reckoning of German statesmen, an agent which, under certain circumstances, may attain a position of primary rank. For several months Russia has been going through an internal crisis, the result of which cannot be foreseen. It may be that she will succeed in passing through the transitional period and in a few years be able to transform herself into a constitutional monarchy. It is easy to understand that such a change would be reflected deeply in the entire

foreign policy of Russia, and, consequently, in her relation to Germany, also. The more penetrative of German statesmen, continues the *Przeglad Wszepolski*, have long known,—and the war with Japan could solely confirm them in their conviction,—that “Czardom is not so positive a factor of the power of the Russian state as has been generally believed in Europe.”

Thanks to the traditional rôle of members of their race in the administration of the Russian state, and to the family ties between the dynasties of Russia and Germany, the Germans have been able, more easily than any other people, to peep behind the *coultisses* of Russia's governmental and military organization. To this end they did not spare other means, too; and Lieutenant Grimm, undoubtedly, had many a comrade who with impunity revealed to Berlin the inmost secrets of the Russian military organization. Czardom could, therefore, appear to German statesmen a power less formidable than had been universally proclaimed. What is more, the Czardom was not a power inimical to the German state. The long years of friendly intercourse, the participation in the partition of Poland, the frequent alliances, the numerous common political interests, had formed between St. Petersburg and Berlin many ties of communion and sympathy, on the basis of which much could be built by practical politics. To these there were added numerous family connections between the dynasties of the two states; on to-day's relations between Russia and the German Empire these still have an influence, the old traditional ties joining the Prussian court with the Russian court. Germany did not have special sympathy in the Russian nation; but then she could dispense with the sympathy of the nation, since she had obtained a strong position in St. Petersburg, at the court and with the government of the autocratic Czar.

GERMANY AND A CONSTITUTIONAL RUSSIA.

Now, however, “when there is not precluded the possibility of the metamorphosis of Russia into a constitutional state,” continues the Polish monthly quoted, “Germany feels on her eastern frontier, instead of the tried neighbor who has aided more than she has threatened Germany, a different Russia, which may become her stubborn and very powerful foe.”

If Russia succeed, speedily and prosperously, in going through the process of a radical reorganization on new foundations—if her social forces be adequate to the weight of the task—the regenerated state of the north will become a power greater by far than it has been hitherto. There is surely no need to expatiate long on the fact that Russia's present power corresponds neither with the number of her population nor with her extraordinary geographical conditions and the abundance of her material resources, that the nation has hitherto been able to exploit, in its entirety, neither the one nor the other. But would not the new Russia which may emerge from to-day's chaos be able to exploit them? With whatsoever difficulties the way to this end may bristle, howsoever improbable may be an easy and successful birth of the constitution, it is impossible to declare categorically that a constitution is

precluded, that Russia has not the conditions to become a flourishing constitutional state. This is enough to awaken apprehension in Berlin.

“It is well known,” recalls the Polish review, “that the connections between the Prussian and the Russian courts have by no means established corresponding sympathies in the Russian and German nations.”

Whenever there is perceptible in Russia a stronger national pulse, there is strongly felt an anti-German current, a protest against the German influences in the government, a protest against the bureaucracy, which is saturated with just those influences, a protest even against individuals bearing German names. This fact already gives a certain indication of the possible future relations between the neighbors. From more general considerations, moreover, constitutional Russia would have to assume a different position to the Slav world, and, consequently, to Germany. Here, then, emerges the Polish question, which is most closely bound as well with the possible transformations of the form of government in Russia as with the relation of Russia to Germany. It would be superfluous to argue that hitherto Prussia and Russia have reciprocally reacted on each other in an anti-Polish direction; the identical policy of these two states in the Polish question has been a guarantee, as it were, of their good intercourse, and every attempt in a conciliatory spirit passed, in the eyes of the other side, for an act of disaffection, for a threat betraying evil designs.

In constitutional Russia, sooner or later,—and, in all likelihood, in a very short while,—the Polish question must enter on the order of the day. Germany has reasons for desiring that Russia remain under absolutism. “No more will that government augment the power of the state; no more will it compensate with brilliant external conquests for the internal oppression.”

With the Czardom, Germany has old and tried relations, from which she has profited in no small measure; constitutional Russia is a new agent, bearing a succession of serious threats. Therefore, Berlin favors the Czar's government, and it would be willing to hasten, so far as lies in its ability, with many a service, in order to facilitate the situation for Russian autocracy. The St. Petersburg bureaucracy, also, has no inclination to give up the game. This situation forms a new tie of friendship between the German and the Russian governments, and a new cause of aversion between official Germany and the Russian constitutional opposition. From the lips of representatives of the latter one may frequently hear the opinion that a reformed Russia would in a short time be obliged to venture upon a combat with its western foe.

It would be impossible for the German Emperor to grant anything in the shape of an autonomous régime in German Poland, which would alone account for his anxiety over the prospect of Polish autonomy in Russian Poland, and for his readiness to march his troops across the frontier to assist the Russian Emperor in making “order reign in Warsaw.”

POLITICAL IDEAS OF THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE.

IF it be true that nations have the kind of government they deserve, then, says Mr. Alexandre Ular, writing in *La Revue*, the Russian people ought to have a political spirit most singularly complex. For their political ideas and methods of government are most singularly "mixed." The late Minister Plehve, Mr. Ular contends, was, in reality, the incarnation of Russian political ideas. Plehve, says this writer, was the purest incarnation of the autocracy which had become an oligarchy in the hands of unscrupulous grand dukes and great functionaries, and yet he regarded his *régime* as one which was in perfect accord with the political ideas of the people. To the end Plehve remained convinced that he was right, and in a conversation which he had with Mr. Ular the month before his death he said: "Revolutions are made by majorities, and the majority is with us. Something must certainly be done, but not the revolution you prophesy. We must simply undo what Witte has done, and restore tranquillity to agriculture by extirpating the disturbing elements which he called into existence."

PLEHVE'S POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY.

The clearest point in Plehve's argument was his disbelief in the idea that political revolutions are made by minorities. Plehve suppressed education and the press, and what appears as disinterestedness on the part of the majority of the muzhiks is in reality ignorance on the questions of government. The muzhik does not know the meaning of a constitution, a parliament, a democracy, or a republic. He has no idea of the complex questions or the great problems which an assembly representing tens of millions of individuals has to deal with, or of the interests and aspirations which make up the life of a nation. The muzhik is, therefore, unable to see

how a change in the form of government can influence the conditions of communal life. He does not feel that he is part of a nation. There is nothing to ally him mentally with other districts than his own. There is no cohesion among the *mirs*. The autocracy does not rule over a collective entity, but a number of isolated entities, and to designate it the word nation is never used. It is always the people that are spoken of. The Russian people have nothing but a local conscience, and for the rest they are no more than subjects. The Czar is their national conscience.

It is the Slavophil alone, Mr. Ular believes, who can interpret the political ideas of the Russian people. The centralization of the Russian Government, he says, is anti-Russian, and everything instituted during the past two centuries ought to be abolished. In the Middle Ages, princes were only prefects of police elected by the citizens. All public functionaries were elective. The Slav states were republican. There was no distinction of class. Mongol despotism has transformed the prince into an autocrat, while Peter the Great established social caste. But in spite of all this, the old Slav racial spirit is still alive, and is manifesting itself throughout the vast Muscovite literature.

THE PEASANT WANTS ABSOLUTE LOCAL AUTONOMY.

The peasant knows well enough what he wants, but he does not know how to formulate his demands. He conceives the state as an immense federation of *mirs*. He has no conception of parliamentarism based on direct suffrage with responsible ministers. He can only conceive a federative system, the village assembly which would send delegates to the district assembly. The district assembly, again, would name committees and form departmental parliaments, which would again delegate committees and constitute together a kind of national convention. It would not be ministries, but commissions, that would govern, while special functionaries would be elected to administer the land, the mines, etc., belonging to the communes. Local autonomy, even in budget matters, would be absolute, and the state as such would not have the funds to dispose of, except for services concerning the whole nation.

This assembly is evidently neither an autocracy nor a Socialist scientific republic. It would permit the existence of a czar, the symbol of national entity, who would preside over the National Convention; it would permit the survival of the Orthodox Church, which also was once



TWO RUSSIAN PEASANT VILLAGE MAYORS.
(Typical of the peasant M. P.s in the coming Duma.)

organized on the elective principle ; and, lastly, it would admit a diversity of institutions and a liberty of action which the Marxist Socialist republic could not guarantee. On the other hand,

it would not admit world-politics, or the too famous place in the council of the powers which we persist in considering the criterion of national greatness.

HOW SHALL JAPAN FIND MONEY FOR HER NEW ERA OF PEACE?

WITH the calming down of the excitement following on the heels of the peace conference at Portsmouth, Tokio has begun to consider soberly the question how Japan should meet the grave responsibilities entailed by the greatest of the wars in her annals. Count Okuma, the leader of the opposition party, has published his opinion on this question in several newspapers and magazines, but his article in the *Taiyo* (Tokio) is the most thought-provoking. In this article the Count dwells at considerable length upon the financial difficulties resulting from the war. "We have incurred," says this statesman, "a domestic loan to the amount of 480,000,000 yen [approximately \$240,000,000], while our foreign debt has risen as high as 820,000,000 yen, for the redemption of which we looked to an indemnity from Russia."

But now that we have failed to collect the expense of the war from our former antagonist, how shall we relieve ourselves of this heavy burden? In addition to this, we are compelled to bear no small expenditure for the withdrawal of the soldiers from the field of war, for the relief of the bereaved families of the unfortunate fighters, for the enlargement of our military equipment, and for the improvement and replenishing of our arms,—an expenditure not less than 400,000,000 yen by moderate estimate. Since there is no other means of meeting this new expenditure than by incurring further debt, our national loan will eventually amount to 1,700,000,000 yen, placing us under obligation to pay an annual interest of between 80,000,000 and 90,000,000 yen. This interest alone would result in a burden of 2 yen *per capita*. We must also take into account an inevitable increase in ordinary expenditure proportionate to the expansion of armament and the extension of the scope of administrative activities unavoidable after the war, as well as an increase in extraordinary expenditure as a result of the establishment of our protectorate over Korea, the lease of the Liao-tung peninsula, and the acquisition of the southern half of Saghalien. The increase in these expenditures will amount to between 50,000,000 and 60,000,000 yen, which will necessitate another burden of 1 yen *per capita*. In view of the fact that the people have already been taxed to the utmost in consequence of the war, it is extremely difficult to find sources of revenue adequate to satisfy such increasing demands.

Thus, it is necessary for Japan to consider, in the first place, how to raise some 60,000,000 yen for the increase of expenditure, and, in the second place, how to pay an enormous interest on

a loan amounting to 1,700,000,000 yen. These can be met, Count Okuma believes, by the careful adjustment of present taxation and the floating of other domestic loans.



COUNT OKUMA, LEADER OF THE JAPANESE PROGRESSIVE PARTY.

While Count Okuma does not favor the idea of floating further foreign loans, he by no means objects to the natural introduction of foreign capital. The necessary economic expansion of Japan following upon the war will naturally invite the investment of foreign capital along various lines of industry and trade. "Such wholesome investment on the part of foreign capital," says the count, "should be welcomed and regarded as an indication of the national growth of our country. But we should carefully avoid encouraging the introduction of foreign capital by unnatural, artificial means, the danger of which has been fully demonstrated by our unfortunate economic condition succeeding the Chino-Japanese War."

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN ROME.

A CURIOUS municipal problem is revealed by a leading article in *Italia Moderna* (Rome) written by Antonio Monzilli, the editor. Rome has not enough houses for her people. The situation was brought to a crisis by the sudden removal to the city of several hundred families of railroad men when the government took over the railroads and Rome became the railroad headquarters. Furniture storehouses are full, while disgruntled families search in vain for shelter. The city has had to lodge in municipal structures a number of poor families dispossessed to make room for tenants of higher class. An abandoned market has sheltered other unfortunates. The situation is the more singular in view of the fact that, ten years ago, after a building boom in the Italian capital, great houses stood empty for lack of tenants, or were occupied rent-free by vagabonds. While it is true that since then building has proceeded slowly, still new structures have been built in many quarters.

Signor Monzilli mentions three causes for the present increase of people,—the concentration noticed in all great capitals, which draw people from the whole country; the development and cheapening of international transportation, bring-

ing in an increasing number of tourists and foreigners, who make longer sojourns in the fascinating city; and the action of the Papacy, which has, since losing temporal power, drawn to its seat a larger number of representatives of all the religious orders to defend Catholicism and keep alive the faith among the people. Of the provincial immigration, the author remarks that, while in part of desirable elements, a considerable number go to Rome merely to look for any sort of employment, or merely to be in the capital, and these furnish the largest number of patients for the hospitals, prisoners for the jails, and recruits for the beggars' ranks. The "Catholic immigration" has been quite largely of nuns, who find in the shadow of the Papacy a congenial retreat. The expulsion from France has added greatly to this contingent. The tourist swarm must be considered permanent, and likely to increase. Natural increase of population and a growing number of public functionaries, doubled within thirty-five years, are other elements to swell the number of Romans.

The author blames the speculations of the "boomers" for the present condition. The boom created artificial land values, and raised the cost of materials and labor. The failure of builders left the houses in the hands of banks. There has been no temptation to capital to risk itself in new constructions. It was cheaper to buy houses from the banks, usually unable to get a good interest on the sums originally loaned. The constant offering of these bank properties has deadened the real-estate market, and will do so until all are in private hands. Rents must rise to make new building or purchase from banks profitable; but higher rents than at present would be serious to the large number of salaried employees. That rents have not been unduly raised is due to the moderation of the moneyed institutions. Private owners, on acquiring bank houses, usually raise rents from 20 to 50 per cent. If the liquidation of the banks and credit associations continues, living expenses will soon be too high to be borne by persons of small income. All alimentary products are higher in Rome than elsewhere in Italy. Prices are kept artificially high by combination, and by the great number of shopkeepers with small receipts, necessitating large profits. In the tourist season, meat is too high to be bought by natives. Last spring, lamb was twelve cents a pound, bone and fat included, while beef was three lire a kilogram (thirty cents a pound), and veal and the best cuts of beef from forty to fifty cents a pound. In thirty-five years



GYMNASTICS AT THE VATICAN.

(March of the athletic clubs of Rome before Pope Pius X., who is very much interested in developing social and economic possibilities in Italy.)

the only article that has cheapened in Rome is footwear.

While these phenomena have manifested themselves to some degree in other capitals, an actual shortage of houses has never resulted, and public authority has always done something to remedy matters. At Rome, nothing has been done except to put a small tax on unoccupied land. Owners, confident of a large increment in a few years, have paid this and not built it up. The societies for laborers' houses are not of sufficient scope to help the general situation.

Rome differs from all other cities in having no suburbs in which modest homes may be had. It is fifteen miles to the nearest commune over the desert Campagna, and access is neither easy nor cheap. Minister Ferraris has proposed a cheap commutation to enable railroad employees to dwell in outlying towns, and this offers a partial solution. It is necessary that the state step in to provide the accessible, healthy, outlying villages that are now lacking. It is to the government's interest to do this, else the salaries of all government employees must be raised. Signor Monzilli, then, proposes that the government expropriate land in healthy locations, near Rome, capable of supporting, say, ten

thousand people per commune. This land would be ceded to a private corporation at the same price, on condition that the corporation lay out the town, furnish streets and sewers, school, communal buildings, and church, and build houses whose maximum rent should be fixed, and which should be exempt from taxes for ten years. Tenants should have the right to purchase houses occupied for three years at cost price, with 10 per cent. added. A government commission should control the commune until there be enough inhabitants to elect a councilor, and should run the finances until a local budget could be established.

Signor Monzilli thinks that the first city could be ready in two years; that the private company could easily be formed, and would not require a capital of more than two million dollars, emitting $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. bonds, secured by the houses, to run seventy-five years unless sooner called in by sale of the houses. The state should participate to the extent of one-third in all profits over 4 per cent., and speculation in the bonds should be prevented by making them nominative and keeping them from the stock exchange three years. The writer sees no other solution possible, and some solution it is imperative to have promptly.

HEALTH AND ACCIDENT INSURANCE IN SCANDINAVIA.

A REVIEW of the whole subject of health and accident insurance in Scandinavia is contributed to *Social Tidskrift* (Stockholm) by the economist A. Rydin,—the compulsory system prevailing in Germany and the voluntary one introduced in Scandinavia. Both purpose to furnish medical attendance in cases where otherwise public aid would be necessary, thus preventing sickness and its consequences at an early stage and relieving hospital and charity care.

Legislation for Danish voluntary health and accident insurance was enacted in 1892. It does not establish rules as to formation, organization, and management of the leagues, which, nevertheless, are under public control. The sole restriction imposed on them is that they shall be confined to a certain locality or a certain trade. In case of sickness, children of the insurant under fifteen years enjoy the same privileges as the parents, while in Denmark the wife is generally counted as the insurant himself. Members receive, moreover, daily allowances of two-thirds of daily wages, yet not less than forty öre in cases of incapacity for work dur-

ing twelve successive months. The following statistics covering the period 1899–1903 will give an approximate idea of the practical utility of the voluntary system of insurance in Denmark.

	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.
Percentage of members to population	11.1	12.3	12.4	14.6	15.2
Percentage of women	49.0	49.0	49.5	49.7	51.1
Days of sickness per member..	5.4	5.4	5.2	4.9	5.0
Cash contribution per day in Scandinavian crowns.....	0.84	0.86	0.88	0.90	0.93

The relative expenditures incurred during the same five-year period are divided in the following manner :

	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.
Cash allowance, hospital care, etc.	46.7	46.5	45.7	44.7	45.4
Medical attendance.....	34.3	33.9	33.6	35.3	35.2
Medicine	12.0	12.1	13.2	12.5	12.2
Cost of management and other expenses	7.0	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.2

Just as in the German system, medical attendance and medicine compose a considerable portion of aggregate expenses, the former amounting to one-third the latter, 12 per cent. of the whole expenditures. The contribution granted Danish legions out of the public treasury depends in part on the number of members, in part on the premiums paid by the same. Two crowns are thus added for each member, and one-fifth of each premium paid. If the annual premium of the legion, for instance, be 7.50 crowns, the public contribution will be 2 crowns, 1.50–3.50. The support granted by the Danish state has recently proved sufficient

to cover the expenses of the entire medical attendance.

The first account of Swedish health and accident insurance we meet in 1884, when 124,000 members were registered. In 1897, the insured persons in percentage of the entire population were 2.7, and in 1901, 5.7. The reason why comparatively such a small percentage has joined the Swedish voluntary legions will be found in the limited contributions of the state, which decrease in proportion to the number of members. Registered legions receive, thus, annually 1.50 crowns per member up to 100, while those with 1,000 members or more get only 0.50 crowns.

THE FIGHT AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS IN EUROPE.

A GREAT deal has been accomplished in Germany in the last twenty-five years in the way of combating the dread consumption. The means employed are described in quite an exhaustive article in the *Deutsche Revue*. Following is an abstract of the main features of the movement:

With the discovery of the provocative of tuberculosis by Robert Koch, in 1882, begins the era of the modern combat against it. The proof adduced by Koch, that tuberculosis is an infectious disease and not one peculiar to certain individuals, a constitutional ailment, exercised a truly magical effect upon all classes of people. The whole nation felt as if a tremendous, oppressive weight had been lifted from their hearts, for the thought flashed upon every one that now it would be possible to successfully combat a foe which attacked the body from the outside. After the existence of bacilli in all varieties of tuberculosis had been demonstrated, the source of its dissemination was found to be all secretions and excretions containing bacilli of consumptive people and animals; primarily, the sputum of those suffering from pulmonary consumption, and the meat and milk of tuberculous cattle.

Upon closer study, Cornet, a disciple of Koch, came to the conclusion that the chief danger lay in the sputum, scattered everywhere by the consumptive, which, after drying and being disseminated in the air, enters the lungs of the healthy. The extirpation of cattle-tuberculosis, so important economically, is, as far as human infection is concerned, of comparatively small weight, since it is, apparently, only in rare cases that consumption is caused by the bacilli of cattle. The rational means of fighting tuberculosis, therefore, was to isolate the invalid, but the wide prevalence of the disease, its long continuance, and the fact that sufferers from it are for so long a period capable of bodily and mental activity, made this prime requisite an impossibility. Efforts had to be directed, therefore,

toward obviating the evils caused by the sputum,—above all, toward preventing its becoming dry, and thus scattered in the air. Regulations to that effect were issued in 1889 and 1890 by various authorities, and the Prussian minister of education promulgated a decree, couched in admirably clear terms, whereby preventive measures were to be employed in schools, barracks, prisons, hotels, railroads, provision stores, and factories. Providing spittoons, forbidding expectoration on the floors, cleaning with wet cloths, regular disinfection of vessels containing the sputum, and the instruction of people regarding the dangers attendant upon that discharge were the essential measures recommended in the decree.

In some portions of Germany the law prescribes that in case a person dies of consumption, or if one having that disease moves to new quarters, the fact must be made known to the authorities; also, if such malady occurs in public or private institutions.

Prophylaxis received a tremendous stimulus through Koch's epoch-making discovery of tuberculin.

He demonstrated that a sprinkling of tuberculin,—the culture-liquid in which tubercle-bacilli are artificially raised,—creates, even in the smallest tuberculous centers, a local reaction and a general characteristic feverish state, so that the disease can be diagnosed at an earlier stage than by any other means. He also held out the hopeful prospect that tuberculin would be able to cure such incipient cases, and thus prevent their reaching the infectious stage. The declaration that consumption is curable stirred people perhaps even more profoundly than the discovery of the bacillus. The intense enthusiasm was, not long after, followed by a strong reaction; the healing powers of tuberculin, and even its value for diagnosis, were totally denied, on the strength of numerous though hasty experiments, in spite of many well-authenticated favorable results of

its use. But once more the facts that tuberculin is the proper test for incipient cases and its curative quality are gaining recognition. Through it the existence of consumption can be determined before the patient has reached the stage of ejecting bacilli.

When the reaction set in, the people turned to other sources of relief. Brehmer, Dettweiler, and others had achieved considerable success in private institutions by following the hygienic-dietary treatment, taking patients at an early stage of the disease. If what was claimed was true, the thing to do was to establish sanitariums, particularly for the poor.

This could not have been accomplished on a great scale without the powerful, effective assistance of those grandest of modern institutions, the public workmen's insurance societies. The alarmingly large percentage of consumptives among their members, and the fact that more than half of the invalids suffered from that malady, led to the project of erecting sanitariums in accordance with the hygienic-dietary treatment. The Red Cross and other societies coöperated with the state in giving most effectual aid. Thanks to the active efforts of the highest authorities of the realm, of the different states of the empire, of eminent men in every field, and of the people in general, the work has proved so successful that in less than a decade the whole of Germany has been covered by a network of splendidly equipped sanitariums; in more than one hundred of these about thirty thousand patients can be treated annually. The practice, too, of isolating consumptives in hospitals, and providing them with arrangements used in sanitariums, has been steadily increasing.

Further scientific investigation revealed another source of danger of the dissemination of bacilli,—the speaking, and particularly the coughing, of the consumptive. The chief danger lies not so much in the sputum as in the fine particles emitted by the patient when speaking or coughing. Fortunately, experiments show that the evil effects thus produced can be easily avoided by simply holding a handkerchief before one's mouth or wearing a thin veil or something of the kind. It appears, too, that the infectious particles fly but a short distance, and that by separating a consumptive workman by a partition from the other workmen infection is warded off.

The Anti-Consumption Campaign in France.

Dr. J. Héricourt, writing in *La Revue*, discusses the problem, and suggests measures much more drastic than any which specialists have yet ventured to advocate. His article refers naturally to tuberculosis among the poorer classes in France.

To begin with, Dr. Héricourt says, we have no reliable statistics of the number of persons suffering from tuberculosis. In France, we are

told that the annual mortality from tuberculosis is one hundred and fifty thousand, and in Paris alone tuberculosis claims about one-fourth of the deaths. These figures are repeated thousands of times, but it is certain they do not make the slightest impression. In any case they are very misleading, for they refer merely to the mortality from the disease, and give no idea of its morbidity. For one death how many sufferers are there? Neither hygienists nor doctors can answer this question. What we require to know is what proportion of the total population of a country or a city may be described as suffering from tuberculosis. Without this knowledge it is impossible to institute any comparison as to whether the number of cases is excessive or not. To ascertain something, accurate statistics may be a formidable task, but it is the only basis on which the work of dealing with the disease must rest.

WHAT CONSTITUTES TUBERCULOSIS?

Here, however, a new difficulty arises. Some doctors do not pronounce cases as tuberculous until all the symptoms of the disease are written in capital letters; others apply the term tuberculosis to the first and often insensible manifestations of the malady. In the latter category would be included many anæmic and neurotic persons showing as yet no local signs of the disease. The proportions would therefore be somewhat disconcerting, according to the different views taken by the various specialists making the enumeration, but the writer thinks it would be well to include all possible cases, no matter in what stage, marked or otherwise, for he is of opinion that tuberculosis is more common than is generally admitted. It would then be realized that scarcely a family exists without one case, though it may be the victims very often have the appearance of good health, that in large cities tuberculosis in a contagious form exists in almost every house, and that in certain poor *arrondissements* of Paris all the people may be pronounced tuberculous. Perhaps public opinion would be moved to recognize that it needs something else than conferences to deal with the problem when it is revealed that houses in which articles of clothing are made are inhabited by tuberculous persons whose clothes, handkerchiefs, and hands spread contagious expectoration, just as bread is also made and distributed by a large number of persons with the disease.

The Behring Discovery.

In outlining the work of the recent anti-tuberculosis congress at Paris, the London *Graphic* gives a synopsis of Professor von Behring's pa-

per on his discovery. Professor von Behring stated that during the last two years he had come to recognize with certainty the existence of a curative principle completely different from the anti-toxic principle described by him fifteen years ago. The new curative principle plays the essential part in the immunizing portion of his "bov-vaccine," which had proved successful in dealing with tuberculosis in cattle. Very briefly stated, says the *Graphic*, the principle consists in breaking up the tuberculosis virus.

The mischievous essence, which he calls "T. C.," is first isolated and then stripped of three allied substances, each differently soluble. What remains is the pure bacillus, and this, Dr. von Behring affirmed, could be so denaturalized as to form a curative substance new to science. He has made no experiments on human beings, but only on animals, and its value to human beings has yet to be tested. It was generally felt that, when Dr. von Behring asked the world to wait until next August for the full explanation of the discovery, he would have been better advised to have kept back the

whole of his statement until then. British and French scientists do not like discoveries revealed piecemeal, and there was some disappointment felt at the absence of details in the statement. At the same time, all the experts paid unstinted tribute to Professor von Behring's knowledge, talent, and previous achievements, so it is hoped that one day the value of his discovery will be fully demonstrated. It must, of course, be remembered that what the professor announces that he has found is not a definitive cure for consumption, but what he believes to be the process by which the cells of the human body endeavor to resist the germ of tuberculosis, and the antidote which they produce in that process. He believes, further, that his discovery will lead to methods of stimulating the production of this antidote artificially. It will be seen that we are as yet a long way from a "cure for consumption." But if von Behring's theory is right, then we are a step nearer on the road, long road though it may be, by which we shall be able to protect the body against the onset of tuberculosis; and there is an added hope. Since we know that in some cases Nature does cure herself of the tuberculous germ, there must be a process of cure which some day we shall find, and find how to stimulate artificially.

AMERICAN HYGIENE.

IN an address delivered at the late Portland, Ore., meeting of the American Medical Association by Dr. John S. Fulton, the chairman of the section on sanitary science, which is published in full in the association's *Journal* of the 21st of October, that gentleman says:

"Of the notable faults in American hygiene, one owes its bad eminence equally to politics and to medicines. I refer to the abject, disgraceful, ignorant poverty of American hygiene in fundamental data of the subject. A country which swells its population by admitting a flood of immigration, with no more than a show of caution about the physical and moral results to the country, cannot be expected to care about the minutiae of loss and repair in its native population. A country which offers citizenship on the simplest conditions to any uncouth outlander is not likely to learn, save in the shadow of disaster, the value of a son born in the land and nourished in its institutions for twenty-one years before he may become a sovereign citizen."

The United States census reports on population and vital statistics excite the doctor's derision, and are referred to as follows: "And such reports, better than formerly, but beginning in 1900, as in 1890 and 1880, with an apology for 30 or 40 per cent. defectiveness of the mortality evidence on this point or in that locality: loaded with asterisks which mean 'data insufficient,' expressing a most reasonable doubt whether nine jejune pages on births ought to be printed at all,

—these reports express Columbia's sense of business responsibility for seventy-eight million lives. People are cheap; worth less than the cost of acknowledging the beginning and recording the end of life. Faster than disease, accident, and crime can diminish their numbers the land can be replenished by opening the gate to cheaper people."

The author contends that politicians have come to regard vital statistics as a kind of medical arithmetic, and expresses the conviction that "it is, at least, doubtful whether the vital statistics of this country would improve very rapidly if wholly committed to the medical profession." In Alabama, we are informed, the whole subject of sanitary government is, and from its inception has always been, in the hands of the State medical society. Yet the author avers that no State in the Union is more ignorant of its population, no State more destitute of the fundamentals of sanitary organization.

The consent of the people to systematic registration of vital data may not be easily obtained; but after that is done, Dr. Fulton maintains, the consent of the medical profession will still be necessary in order that the will of the people may be effective. "If in certain parts of the country the total neglect of vital registration is a vice of politics," he says, "in those States and cities where registration laws are in force the unsatisfactory results of registration are chargeable against American medicine."

Dr. Fulton does not assent to the view that the records of a health department are public in the liberal sense which obtains with respect to other official records, and it seems to him vital to the sound development of our sanitary anamnesis (past history of disease) that very close privacy should surround these personal memoranda. He thinks, however, that precautions sufficient to prevent abuse of the records need not be so stringent as to make them less serviceable for legitimate purposes.

We dare not limit the scope of registration to the subjects now included under that head, he tells us; the particulars concerning population, marriages, births, and deaths are by long custom established as necessary sanitary memoranda. The registration of the graver infectious diseases, though generally provided for, is not generally practiced. It is notorious that the notification laws in most American cities are practically inoperative, and the common explanation is that people who enacted these laws do not want them enforced. Those who assume to know the real state of public opinion are the medical practitioners, and these, indeed, the author in-

sists, do truly represent the opinions of the citizens on whom, for the time being, the notification laws are brought to bear. The consent of the well can always be counted in favor of notification, and up to this time the opposition of the sick can be as confidently expected. "This," Dr. Fulton says, "brings up the humiliating reflection that the American people still expect public health to be protected by punishing the sick. It is hardly less humiliating to reflect that the medical profession, perfectly able to represent us truly to the distrustful public, suffers this medieval view to persist."

It is stated, however, that some boards of health are able to operate their notification laws with very little friction, and these have found that the opposition of the public has disappeared as fast as the confidence of the medical profession was won. Where cities have made adequate provisions for infectious diseases, where the relations of boards of health to the afflicted are altogether helpful, and, above all, where the organization of the health department is not subject to the vicissitudes of party politics, there notification laws are effective.

THE EFFECT OF RADIUM ON DISEASE.

ACCORDING to the results obtained by several European investigators, small animals are killed by the emanations from radium. To what extent radium exerts a similar destructive power on bacteria, which are microscopic plants, is a question of great interest on account of its important bearing on the treatment of germ diseases.

The last number of the *Zeitschrift für Hygiene und Infektionskrankheiten* (Leipzig), edited by Dr. Koch, gives an account of experiments carried on by three scientists to determine the action of radium emanations upon pathogenic bacteria.

In making the experiments, small flasks containing solutions of different activities of radium combined with barium chloride were used, and the apparatus was so arranged that the flasks could be connected by means of glass tubes with other sterilized flasks containing the cultures, and air could be forced from one to the other in a closed circuit having no communication with the outside air.

The typhus bacillus was chosen for most of the experiments, because, on account of its rapid growth, decisive results are quickly obtained. Culture tubes inoculated with typhus were placed in circuit with the radium tubes, and air charged with emanations from them

forced through for ten or twelve minutes twice a day, and the process repeated for two or three days.

Eleven experiments of this sort showed the same results. While in the control cultures kept for comparison, made in the same way, and kept under the same conditions except that they were not exposed to the action of the radium, a strong growth was noticeable within twenty-four hours after inoculation, the test cultures exposed to air charged with radium emanations showed only a slight growth, or none at all.

Even when the cultures were removed from connection with the radium tubes and placed in the incubator for four days, no trace of typhus colonies could be found.

Other experiments were made upon cholera and diphtheria. Agar inoculated with the cholera vibrio showed no growth even after an interval of four days, although the condensed vapor in the tube became cloudy. Diphtheria on agar, kept at 36° C. for two days, did not grow at all in one case, and in another showed only weak development as compared with the normal culture kept for comparison.

Many other tests were made, all giving the same result of growth either retarded or else entirely inhibited.

RADIUM A DISCOURAGER OF BACTERIA.

In some of the tests the active substance was sealed in a thin-walled glass tube that allowed only the B-particles and Y-rays to act, and excluded the A-particles. The tube, resting on a fine wire ring, was placed on a culture kept at room temperature for five days. At the end of that time the culture kept for comparison showed colonies of bacteria growing all over the surface, but in the test culture there were no colonies near the radium tube, and only small scattered colonies in the parts farthest away from it. This is somewhat suggestive of experiments made by Dr. Novy, who laid small metal bars on flat cultures, and found that no colonies grew

near the metal, although a few developed around the edges of the dish.

The writers believe that the radium emanation itself acts like an inert gas, but passes through a series of changes, at first sending out what they term A-particles, later on B-particles and Y-rays. The A-particles form the most powerful component of the energy of the radio-active substance, but they have less power of penetration, they cannot act through a glass tube, and a film of aluminum .005 mm. thick will intercept half of them. Since they produce only a slight effect upon a photographic plate, it is doubtful whether they have much bactericidal action. The B-particles have more power of penetration, and the Y-rays are probably least powerful.

ALCOHOL AND CRIME.

WRITING in the *Hilfe* (Berlin), Dr. Otto Juliusburger analyzes the influence of alcohol on crime. There is no doubt, he says, that the main source of crime is to be found in the excessive use of alcohol. Statistics prove this. The results, for instance, obtained by the municipality of Zurich, Switzerland, are striking. In 1891, 116 persons were sentenced for inflicting bodily injuries. The deeds were committed on Saturday by 18, on Sunday by 60, on Monday by 22, and on each of the other days by 4 persons. Similar experiences are reported from other places. In the city of Edinburgh, the arrests for intoxication between 8 o'clock Sunday morning and 8 o'clock Monday morning were, during two years, 1,357. This was before the closure of saloons on Sunday. After the closure, the arrests were 328, and in 1896-97 only 223, in spite of the increased population. In Ireland, the imprisonments on Sundays in 1877-78 amounted to 4,555, before the compulsory Sunday closure, but from 1885 to 1886 only 2,500 arrests were made, though the law was only effectual in part.

Commenting on the English military stationed in India, Sir Richard Temple states that if the soldiers only could stop drinking they would be practically free from crime and military faults. The chief surgeon of the Swiss army states, on the same line, that if it were possible to eliminate alcohol from the garrisons the military courts also could be removed.

The Swedish writer, Dr. Helenius, in his celebrated work on "Alcoholism," proves minutely the influence of alcohol on crime. Among 954 criminals condemned to the penitentiary, 60.2 per cent. were drunkards; but among backslid-

ers, sentenced the second time, the percentage was still larger. The writer found, in penitentiaries for men, among 5,655 sentenced for the first time, 49.8 per cent.; among 4,733 oftener sentenced, 55 per cent. In prisons for men this percentage was much larger, but still more among women, where he found 17 per cent. out of 570 sentenced for the first time, and 46 per cent. out of 534 condemned several times, for crimes committed under the influence of alcohol.

In view of those facts we will first thoroughly understand the words of the famous criminologist, Liszt: "Our penalties do not improve nor frighten criminals; they do not at all prevent crime, but work the other way, strengthening it." This argument induces Dr. Juliusburger to suggest an entirely new method of fighting the evil. One of the chief prejudices for alcoholic drinks, he says, is the belief in their value for nourishment and strength. The moment these idols fall to the ground the diffusion of crime will cease. Public schools should finally begin to teach upon this most important subject. Moreover, society should change its attitude toward those sentenced for acts committed while under the influence of alcohol.

If we simply shut up the delinquents, and only remove the alcohol for the time being, we will not obtain an essential improvement of their nature. The penitentiary or prison penalty should be supplanted by a thorough and serious education. The victims must learn that alcohol is their destroyer, but any one-sided moralizing method of teaching should be avoided. Instead, they must, according to capacity, be led into a knowledge of the effects of alcohol and equipped with all the weapons of science.

THE MERITS AND FAULTS OF FRENCH LIBRARIES.

AN elaborate study of French libraries is contributed to the current number of the Norwegian monthly *Samtiden* (Christiania), a periodical devoted to literature and politics. The writer, who signs himself Erik Lie, outlines from personal study the conditions of French libraries as they are to-day. He introduces the subject by objecting to the idea that libraries should be a cemetery for all kinds of literary and scientific productions. It may have been so in former generations; but far from being the silent cemetery, the library nowadays should rather be compared with the frequently visited fresh-air sanitarium. America is the land of libraries. Millions upon millions are spent for the erection of library palaces in the smallest towns, and even in the country. With England and Germany at the head, Europe is in a fair way to follow the example of the Americans. France, also, is getting ready "to bridge the distance between ancient and modern time."

France is the country of exaggerated administration, and it will take some time before her libraries are arranged according to modern ideas. In France, everything depends on the secretary of state, and "protection," therefore, has full sway. Some time ago, for example, the able director of the National Library of Paris, Léopold Delisle, was served with a notice of dismissal. He had filled his responsible position for fifty years, and had to give place for a man whose knowledge of library work was in direct contrast to his friendliness with the government. French librarians are men of an all-around education. They are, as a rule, graduates of the *École Nationale des Chartres*, founded by the Duke of Champagne, the learned minister of the interior under Napoleon I. The course lasts for three years, and is of a practical as well as of a theoretical character. Particular attention is given to the study of old manuscripts and documents. Lectures are also given on different kinds of printing and the changing character of this throughout the countries. Bookbinding is also taught. Pupils are received after an exam-

ination, and are then exempt from military service. The academy is located in the beautiful new Sorbonne, and enjoys public support.

Passing to a consideration of the activities of French libraries, the writer finds that in the matter of cataloguing France is behind. The catalogue is the thermometer of the library, and reflects its general condition. The abridged catalogue used in French libraries does not fill the gap, and when it is being fully elaborated the work proceeds so slowly that it amounts to little more than stagnation. The aggregate number of books and manuscripts in the National Library require two hundred and thirty volumes to enumerate. The printing of these was begun in 1898. To date twenty-one volumes have been finished, up to and including the letter C. If the same speed be maintained, it will take from sixty to seventy years to accomplish the entire work. In the reading-rooms all books, except manuscripts and rare volumes, are loaned to everybody without restriction. Rare books must be read in a special room known as *la réserve*. As to taking books home, there are many formalities. Foreigners must have recommendations from the ambassadors of their countries, and natives must present letters from the authorities. Periodicals, dailies, dictionaries, charts, manuscripts, and the literary classics in most demand are not allowed to leave the library.

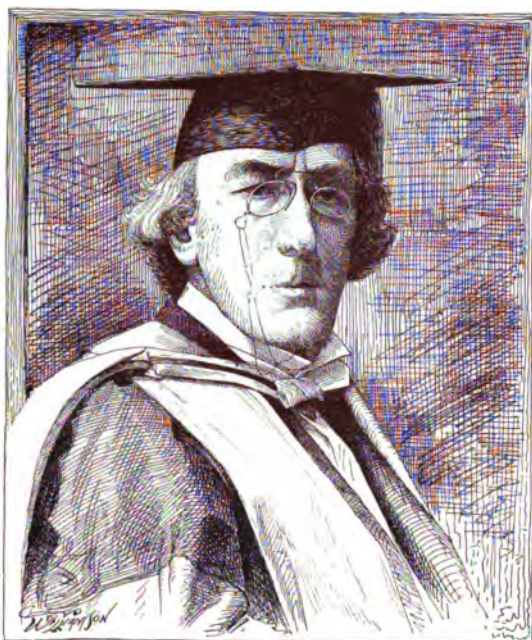
The principle that the library exists for the sake of the public, and that a book which is not read is a dead object, has still to be learned in France. The National Library is closed at 4 o'clock in winter time and at 5 o'clock during the summer. The Sainte Geneviève Library closes 3 P.M., and opens again at 6 P.M., when the public is going for dinner. French librarians, however, are among the best educated in the world, and their activity calls for nothing but praise.

SIR HENRY IRVING AS ONE CRITIC SAW HIM.

PERSONAL reminiscences of Irving performances make up a good part of the articles on the late English actor in the current magazines and reviews. Mr. L. F. Austin, who knew Irving well, had completed an article analyzing the actor's career and merits but a few days before his own sudden death, and the *North American Review* had intended to publish it on the occasion of the late Sir Henry's visit to the United States next year. The article now appears in the review for November. Speaking

of Irving in *Hamlet*, Mr. Austin becomes enthusiastic. He says:

Cradled in melodrama, his ambition aspired to the lawful line of succession in Shakespearean acting, as though he had been born in the purple. It was not so much that he offended the memory of some particular *Hamlet*. But *Hamlet* was a classic, shrined in tradition, guarded by the embattled phalanx of the old school. Here was an actor who put life into the revered abstraction, made the heart of its mystery glow with a romantic flame, interpreted the play of intellect and the depth of passion with equal mastery; and was,



SIR HENRY IRVING IN HIS ROBES AS LL.D.

in fine, the veritable *Hamlet*, in his dignity, his melancholy, his humor, his blasting irony, in all that was lovable in his nature.

Of Irving's *Shylock*, this writer quotes Fanny Kemble as saying: "If Shakespeare could only see this, he would rewrite the part."

For the actor's calling, Sir Henry Irving, Mr. Austin continues, did more than any of his great predecessors. He continues (the reader will understand the tense of the verb when he remem-

bers the circumstances under which this article was written):

None of them ever watched over its interests with his jealous care. He has combated prejudice with so fine a temper, and pursued his art with so true a service, that the public on both sides of the Atlantic has come to rank him high among its worthies, and people to whom the theater makes no appeal hold his name in honor. The personal magnetism of any remarkable man is best attested by its influence upon his eminent contemporaries. In Henry Irving's case, it is illustrated through some of the foremost men of his age. The Emperor William, when he met the actor, betrayed a certain preparation for the occasion; before a word could be said by way of introduction, he launched into an eloquent exposition of Shakespeare, which, I am told, threw a dazzling light on several obscure problems. Mr. Gladstone was attracted in a different way. At one period, when he was not burdened by the cares of office, he was fond of watching the performances at the Lyceum from a chair in the "wings." One night, when the stage was set for the opera ball in the "Corsican Brothers," his curiosity led him into one of the boxes for spectators in the scene. Up went the curtain; Mr. Gladstone was at once deserted by the pit and greeted with shouts of joy, which caused him hastily to withdraw. This was his first and only appearance in the drama, outside of the dear old "legitimate" at Westminster. The magnetic influence of Irving induced him to give a singular performance even there. He took the actor to the House very late one evening, put him under the gallery, and sat with a grim, impassive air on the treasury bench. Suddenly, without apparent reason, he leaped to his feet, and delivered an impassioned speech, set off with all the expressive and dramatic gesture for which he was so famous. The House seemed surprised; members looked at one another, and murmured, "What is the old man up to now?" They thought it was some deep, political game. But, a week or two later, a friend of Irving's, encountering Mr. Gladstone, mentioned the actor's visit to the House, and Gladstone eagerly inquired: "What did he think of my speech? *I made it for him!*"

THE REAL SECRET OF DRAMATIC ART.

TOMMASO SALVINI, the illustrious Italian tragedian, contributes a brief article to the *Deutsche Revue*, in which he speaks of the compensations and drawbacks of his art, and endeavors to explain the real source of the fame and influence of a great actor. He begins his remarks by citing the fact that so many artists, singers, and actors, after a brilliant career and equally brilliant receipts, become instructors in some music or dramatic school,—glad to obtain even such positions,—while others, of like fame, have to resort to their colleagues for assistance or become burdens upon charitable institutions. The roving life, the thousand acquaintances made in various lands, the flattery, and so on, incident to an actor's career, readily account for his light-

mindedness and lack of foresight. It takes an earnest, steady character to withstand such a host of temptations, but, as Salvini says, consequent ill-fortune should not be imputed to fate or to special mischance.

The great Italian actor lays special stress upon a man's personality as regards histrionic success. He thinks that if an actor betrays lack of culture in social intercourse it will militate against him as an artist. The general public, consciously or unconsciously, with or without justice, as a rule, confounds the two, the artist and the man.

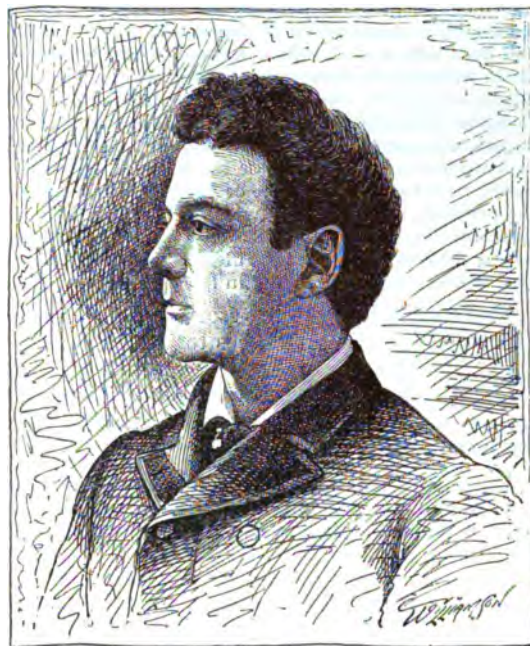
It is not sufficient to have one's self heralded as a skillful artist and to elicit flattering criticisms in order to interest the public; one must

arouse their enthusiasm. How that is to be achieved we cannot say; for that no rules can be laid down, and it is doubtful whether any school of declamation could produce the desired result.

It depends simply and solely upon the native talent of interpreting character, a special gift of communicating emotions by the aid of play of features, expression of the eyes, gestures which fitly convey the given thought, in conjunction with clear, precise, and emphatic utterance, and an organ, penetrating and capable of modulation; finally, the ability to throw the more important members of a sentence into bold relief.

Sustained by such means, the artist attains absolute control over his audience, which acknowledges him a genius. A mutual, tacit sympathy is awakened between public and actor, a magnetic attraction which reacts upon both and carries them away with irresistible force. "A desire, consequently, is aroused in the public to witness plays more frequently in order to experience anew sensations which, stamped upon mind and heart, thus become irresistible and enduring." But, alas! exclaims the great tragedian, how fleeting is the actor's renown.

What does he leave to posterity of the gifts with which genius has endowed him? Nothing! This thought is a constant sting to the artist who loves and respects his art. Be his contemporaries ever so lavish toward the elect in applause, material gifts, or evidences of honor, they cannot indemnify them for the fact that they practice an art which leaves no trace, no example, no model to be imitated,—and therein lies its disconsolateness. And yet they devote themselves to it conscientiously, passionately. It arouses so many exciting,



TOMMASO SALVINI.

joyous emotions, which, though fleeting, fall to the share of those only who dedicate themselves to the stage. But when the actor is compelled to leave the scene of his triumphs he is overcome by a profound depression. The plaudits cease, and with them the artistic stimulus which somewhat tempered the ever-haunting thought that with his passing all would be over. This thought ages him before his time, disheartens him, leaving him a body without animating force.

"THE BLACK WASHING OF DANTE."

WHILE no living being who knows Dante "at all denies that he is a great poet, and that by his position among great poets he must be judged, yet," says an iconoclast, writing in the *Contemporary Review*, at the same time Dante is "fantastic, irrelevant, gross, prosaic, and unnecessarily illusive." This writer, Mr. Howard Candler, in the article under the above title, admits Dante's greatness in many respects.

Dante was a strong man and a brave man; a stern, melancholy, silent exile, who would not even buy back his return to his beloved Florence at the price of his honor or his conscience. A great patriot and a lover of liberty at any price. Pell-mell into hell he tumbled pope, priest, and emperor who stood in the way of liberty as he understood the word. A great poet, and as great a master of prose.

Nevertheless, "Homer, we know, nods; but Dante nods and has exceedingly bad dreams.

Does he 'nod?' This does not represent the fact. Dante is wide-awake and pursues this course of set purpose because he intends it." Dante, of course, he admits, must be judged and measured by his surroundings, his country, and his times. It is not surprising, therefore, he continues, that, "in an age when it did not strike any one as either unjust or silly to condemn men to the tortures of hell, Dante should have done the same." Many names which are now famous stand for the same thing. But Dante was a power beyond them all in his influence over his fellow-men.

He threw the glamour of his imagination and the power of his intellect as a viscous net over the intelligence of mankind, and ensnared them in his fatal web, enslaving them to the yoke of medieval Christianity. It was bad enough that he created hell so artificial, so disproportioned, so ineffably inept; it was far worse

that men accepted his descriptions without demur as a reasonable representation of eternal verities. If Dante had been only a *philosopher* known to the learned in Latin writings, no great mischief would have ensued; but he was a *poet*, whose words had long fingers, whose thoughts held possession in the hearts of common men. He sat in the seat of the mighty as a master in Israel, as a teacher in the counsel of the highest. He was a power on the threshold of the cottage and the hearth of the peasant, whose cantos were recited through the streets of the cities. And, as the angel of the Apocalypse bound the devil, so Dante used his mighty power to bind Christendom with a great chain for a thousand years.

Commenting on the life-story of Dante in the light of the poet's references to his own experiences, Mr. Candler refers to Dante's great love for and exaltation of Beatrice Portinari, and castigates the great Italian for his lapses from strict morality. Continuing, he says:

If ordinary men like Shakespeare, Goethe, and Sophocles were guilty of sins of the flesh, at least they did not represent that they were conducted through the

portals of heaven into the presence of God. It sufficed St. Paul that he was caught up into the third heaven where the words that he heard were unspeakable. He did not proceed, like Dante, to the tenth heaven and detail the order of the hierarchies. Dante not only knows all about it, but he explains that Gregory, the great saint and doctor of the medieval Church, was quite surprised to find, when he got to heaven, that he was entirely wrong in correcting "Dionysius the Areopagite," to whom the truth had been revealed.

One cannot wonder, says this writer, in conclusion, at the disordered anarchy of Florence, when Dante was an exemplar of her greatest and most patriotic citizens. This critic's parting characterization of the great Italian is given in these words:

The mighty personification of medievalism and scholasticism, the last apostle of unquestioning faith in the figments of tradition; without a single lesson for the future, and utterly unmoved by any free breath of that skeptical spirit which ushered in the Reformation and the modern world.

NEW LIGHT ON THE DRUMMING GROUSE.

HOW and why does the grouse drum? Many naturalists have tried to answer this question, but few of the answers have been based on actual observation. Prof. C. F. Hodge, of Clark University, has determined to get first-hand information on the subject, and for that purpose has reared grouse from the egg in order that he might observe the drumming process more carefully than it had ever been observed before. The results of his long series of observations are given in the *Country Calendar* for November, accompanied by some remarkable photographs of a grouse cock in the acts of "strutting" and drumming.

Professor Hodge concludes from his observations, aided by the camera, that the drumming of the ruffed grouse is made solely by the wings striking the feather cushions of the sides, and that it is purely a mate-call. Following is his account of the actions of his tame grouse, "Ruffer":

My grouse began strutting, or ruffing, early in September of the first year, and I lived in daily expectation of hearing them drum. The strutting continued well into November, and began again about the middle of February, but when March passed, and half of April, I was nearing the conclusion that my birds might not drum without instruction from their kindred in the woods. As spring drew on, one cock began persecuting the other, so that I put the aggressor off in a separate pen some distance from the others. I hoped this might serve the double purpose of starting the cocks to drumming and of indicating their motive in the performance. If the lone cock drummed, it might be a mate-call, a challenge, or both. If the cock which was left

with the hens answered, it would suggest, at least, the male challenge. But the weeks passed and nothing happened. The lone cock was a bird that had been captured the October before. The other had been reared from the egg, and for convenience I will refer to him hereafter by his proper name, "Ruffer."

THE DRUMMER CAUGHT IN THE ACT.

Finally, as a last experiment, I took all the hens away from Ruffer, 5 o'clock A.M., April 14. Instantly he was all excitement, and ran about the inclosure eagerly looking and stopping to listen. A minute or two of this served to satisfy him of his loss, and, springing on to a bit of stone wall, he immediately straightened himself up and began to drum, but lost his foothold, and finished his first *revellie* on the ground. Within fifteen minutes I had seen him drum on a stone wall, on the ground, on a log, and on a dry-goods box. The sound was not so loud as is commonly heard in the woods, but Ruffer was not a year old, and had not used his wings so much as the wild birds. I could not hear that the support—after the manner of a sounding-board—made any difference with the sound. While the mood was on, he would drum every three minutes, the performance itself lasting about twelve seconds. Before long he had settled on a certain spot on the drumming-log and I had four cameras focused on the spot. He was perfectly tame, so that I could walk about within four feet of him and press all four of the bulbs during a single drumming act. Fortunately, I obtained about forty negatives the first two days, because after that Ruffer grew so pugnacious that he was too much engrossed in fighting to drum when any one was about.

Ruffer continued to drum, whenever the hens were sequestered, for about three weeks. After he had ceased drumming, the other began, and kept up the performance for a like period. The two birds, one reared from

the egg in confinement, the other taken at maturity from the woods, drummed in precisely the same manner. Had the woods bird drummed first, we might have been inclined to think that he had possibly instructed Ruffer in one of the characteristic reactions of the species. Professor Scott has proved that certain song birds develop a song which has no resemblance to that of their

species if they are reared without the opportunity of hearing their parents sing.

In this respect birds resemble children, who, it is well known, learn any other language as readily as that of their parents. Drumming would thus seem to be a more fundamental reaction than song, and is definitely inherited.

NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL RAIN-FORMATION.

IN an article in a recent issue of the *Illustrirte Zeitung* (Leipsic) that makes no claim to stating new facts, nor to making new suggestions, but that is, nevertheless, a clear and very convenient *résumé* of present knowledge on the subject of rain-formation, Professor von Schiller-Tietz says :

According to the theory of the Scottish physicist, John Aitken, for the formation of fog, clouds, or rain there is unconditionally needed a solid body on whose surface the aqueous vapor may precipitate itself in fluid form, and it is this purpose that is served by the dust everywhere present in the air in greater or less quantity. When it is lacking in the atmosphere, no cloud-formation takes place. In this way Aitken explains also the frequent rising of the fogs of England, especially in the large cities, in which the coal smoke takes the place of the dust. The long familiar fact, that the denseness of the London fog decreases the farther we withdraw from the city, seems to corroborate Aitken's theory, which may be greatly strengthened, also experimentally, in the following manner : We take two exactly similar glass receptacles ; exhaust the air from one of them, and allow it afterward to flow slowly in again through a cotton stopper. This air is, consequently, free from particles of dust. Outwardly, the two receptacles in nowise differ. We now allow aqueous vapor to flow into both receptacles by means of an India rubber tube ; there forms in the first a fog, while the other, with the filtered air, remains perfectly transparent. Right here there is wanting a solid body (dust) on which the aqueous vapor could precipitate itself in fluid form. This agrees with the formation of sky clouds repeatedly observed over great fires. These are not to be confounded with smoke clouds, but are true *cumuli*. They arise from the atoms of dust pushed up by the heated air in large quantities to the upper air-strata, around which then the aqueous vapor precipitates itself (as the American meteorologist, Ward, has shown). At the center of hailstones also are found, corresponding to their origin from drops of water, grains of dust. Indeed, Norden-skjöld observed, in 1884, in southern Sweden hailstones that contained, imbedded, bits of quartz up to six grains' weight.

COÖPERATION OF ELECTRICITY.

Continuing, this article says :

Against the theory by which the rain merely arises through the contact or mingling of colder and warmer currents of air, whereby the moisture content of the warmer stratum is condensed and precipitated, W. Hentschel assumes the coöperation of electrical tensions and currents. He relies upon the phenomenon,

well known to the natural philosophers, of Zöllner's capillary fountain ; in which a small jet of water, issuing from little tubes as fine as hairs, sprang into innumerable little scintillating drops. If we approach this Scotch mist with a stick of sealing-wax (rubbed, and so the source of a very weak electrical current), the innumerable atoms of spray suddenly coalesce into single thick drops, which fall like heavy raindrops. Accordingly, Hentschel assumes that the electrical tension disperses the little bubbles of water, and that it needs only the access of an insignificant equalizing quantity of electricity to stimulate the atoms of spray to the formation of drops. A similar observation may be made with soap-bubbles. Hentschel now assumes that electrical currents go along on the surface of the earth on the one hand, and on the air-strata saturated with moisture on the other. When it comes to an equalization of these tensions, then arises rain ; when this equalization is prevented (perhaps by too dry intervening air-strata) then no rain can form, although the upper stratum be richly saturated with moisture. By this theory is explained why in dry summers many times for weeks no rain falls, although over and over again cloud-strata rise above the horizon, and the sky often for several days at a time is covered with thick vapor. But if once the equalization of the electrical tensions is brought about, then just as frequently the rain does not know when to stop.

Still another phenomenon finds its explanation in Hentschel's theory. Why do not thunderstorms like to cross rivers, but often are interrupted at comparatively small water courses, so that brooks and rivers at once show rain-sheds ?

The electrical currents which always go along on the surface are interrupted and arrested by an expanse of water, because the water is a poor conductor of electricity. By the check to the terrestrial current the parallel-going electrical current of the cloud-strata also is arrested, and so the thunder-storm departs along the river rather than over it.

THE ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF RAIN.

It is a very old observation that a downpour of rain, as a rule, follows a clap of thunder, temporarily increasing with each flash of lightning. Plutarch tells us that the ancient Persians and Greeks brought down rain by their battle-cry. Historical records show that after almost all the great battles since the discovery of gunpowder heavy rains have ensued. It has been noticed, too, that severe volcanic eruptions, extensive blasting, and even the discharge of fireworks on

a large scale are usually followed by a change in the weather and abundant rain. From the knowledge of such facts as these the idea early arose, and has kept recurring, that jarring the air somehow releases the rain. The engineer, Edward Powers, who wrote a book on "War and the Weather," seems to have been the first to propose a complete theory of and a definite plan of utilizing these facts. His idea was to condense at will the aqueous vapor contained in the air to raindrops by the systematic and repeated discharge of heavy artillery. Congress took up the matter in 1874; but, owing to the expense connected with making the proposed experiments, it fell through.

SOME RECENT ATTEMPTS.

Von Schiller-Tietz, writing in the article already quoted from in the *Illustrirte Zeitung*, continues the history. He says:

Then arose in 1876 a German farmer in New Zealand, by name Ferdinand Hattermann, declaring that he had a formula for the manufacture of rain; he had even, in fact, obtained a patent on it. Hattermann wanted to bring the rain into the cloud-strata in question by exploding bombs, which were to be taken up in balloons. Neither in this case was a trial reached. Gen. Daniel Ruggles, of Virginia, appropriated this idea, and in 1880 likewise took out a patent on producing rain by dynamite and oxyhydrogen gas. For ten years he worked upon public opinion in favor of his project, till, in 1891, Congress voted nine thousand dollars for the undertaking of the experiments leading to it,—with whose performance Gen. Robert Dyrenforth was intrusted. He suggested, instead of attaching bombs to the balloons, filling them with explosives.

Public interest was extensively drawn to this government commission, which in the summer of 1891 repaired to Texas, and there made three formal attempts to produce rain. The last seems to have been the most nearly convincing; but, on the whole, no very definite or widely benefi-

cial result followed. The same may be said of similar attempts at El Paso, Texas, in October of the same year; in India and in England, in 1893.

ALLEGED DOWNFALL OF THE THEORY.

Von Schiller-Tietz claims to have "put out of the question . . . further artillery performances for the purpose of producing rain." Here is what he says:

The true causes which give the first impulse to the formation of rain,—*causa movens*,—are to-day not yet incontestably established; no more has the strict proof been furnished that by concussions of the air (*e.g.*, say by cannon-shooting or explosions) rain can be produced. Prior condition for the occurrence of rain is the percentage of water in the atmospheric air. This is never quite dry, not even in the Sahara, but contains always more or less aqueous vapor. (According to Dalton, altogether about seventy trillion tons,—each equivalent to one cubic meter of water, which about equals the water-mass of the Lake of Geneva.) Rain arises when the air, saturated (tense) with aqueous vapor, is cooled and condensed. In consequence of the lessening of volume thereby produced, a corresponding percentage of superabundant aqueous vapor is emitted and falls as rain. On the other hand, however, the air also may be oversaturated with aqueous vapor and remain in this condition for some time, absolute quiet being presupposed; just as, under the same conditions, water may be cooled down to below zero without freezing. The uneasy quiet before a thunder-shower,—the silence before the storm,—suggests the possible existence of such conditions of quiet in the mobile atmosphere. It is now very easily thinkable that a concussion of air-strata so oversaturated may disturb their unstable equilibrium and then rain be produced, just as the water cooled down below the freezing-point at the slightest concussion at once stiffens into ice. In order artificially so to produce rain, before all things an atmosphere saturated or oversaturated with aqueous vapor would be necessary. If this be wanting, all bombarding avails nothing; for the reason that the air lacks the requisite water, no rain can fall. But where the fluid element is present in sufficient quantity in the air, there in all probability it will rain even "of itself."

WHO SHALL OWN AMERICA?

THE old American principle of individual proprietorship is threatened on the one hand by the aggressions of the great corporations, and on the other by the advancing wave of socialism. How to restore to the individual citizens of the country that which was originally theirs and was taken from them under the cloak of law, is the great problem now before our publicists and economists. To point out a possible solution of this problem is the purpose of an article contributed by Justice Peter S. Grosscup, of

the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, to the *American Illustrated Magazine* (formerly *Leslie's Monthly*) for December.

After referring to the fact that the fiscal operations of the federal government are exceeded every year by the receipts and disbursements of either of two giant corporations, each of which is the creature of one of our States, and to the further fact that at the present time the transactions of corporations greatly exceed in magnitude all other business transactions put together,

Judge Grosscup proceeds to analyze what he terms the great central fact in the industrial life of the twentieth century—the domain of property covered by the corporation.

Judge Grosscup finds in the distribution of our landed domain into individual proprietorships the chief cause of our national prosperity. It may be truthfully said of the farms of America that they belong to the people. This is largely due to the preëmption and homestead laws of an earlier generation. It is a matter of regret that the same statesmanship that dealt so wisely and advantageously with the public landed domain was unable to cope with the problem of corporate ownership. From an economic point of view, consolidation is justified, but the values created by the new corporations went almost exclusively to the few who exploited the resources formerly held and controlled by many individuals.

One result of this concentration of ownership was the money madness that seized our people in the presence of the rapid accumulation of private fortunes. "Grab was preached as the legitimate gospel of the times. Another effect was the exclusion of the laboring man from part proprietorship in the property of the trade to which he is attached. Moreover, the people's savings remain uninvested in productive enterprises to a surprising extent. The whole wealth of the country, distributed *per capita*, has grown in the past twenty years about 11 per cent., while the uninvested deposits have grown about 500 per cent."

Judge Grosscup finds, however, that the wealth on which the corporations are sustained is still in the hands of the people in the ordinary walks of life, who own the largest portion of the national, State, municipal, and local bonds, as well as a large proportion of the railroad and other corporation bonds, and have immense sums invested in insurance and trust companies.

NATIONAL INCORPORATION VERSUS FEDERAL LICENSE.

As to the preliminary steps to be taken toward a reform of corporation evils, Judge Grosscup is unqualifiedly in favor of a system of na-

tional incorporation, as opposed to the principle of federal license, by which it is proposed to regulate prices. On this point he says:

I am for national incorporation as against federal license, not because the two are nearly alike, as some people suppose, but because in the end to be attained they are wholly unlike,—national incorporation being the only method that will directly and effectively go to the root of the disease, the *peopletization* of the ownership of the new domain. I would have the corporation of the future deal fairly with the people in the matter of prices. But I set above that, as the supreme object to be attained, this other thing,—that the people of the country be brought back into the ownership of the property of the country. And to attain this, the nation must have its hand, not simply in the guidance of existing corporations, but in the *construction* of the new corporation.

Contributory to this work of reconstruction, a few general principles may be suggested, the first of which is, that the new corporation must be constructed on lines of simplicity.

Judge Grosscup would have some such supervision exercised over corporations as the government now holds over the national banks. He believes that by this means public utility corporations, deriving their existence from the United States, could be made to obey those laws that look to the giving of equal opportunity to all. Recalcitrant corporations could be taken in charge by the government and dealt with just as recusant national banks are now dealt with. Another feature of the proposed system would be provision for a government exchange, or a private exchange under government supervision, through which the securities of national corporations could be bought and sold. A line would thus be drawn between the securities of national corporations and the securities of corporations that should refuse to nationalize. It would soon be clearly understood that the former class included all corporations willing to be faithful trustees of the stockholders, and faithful in their duties to the general public. The latter class would be marked as having ulterior designs. In Judge Grosscup's opinion, this differentiation would in time lead every corporation engaged in interstate commerce voluntarily to incorporate under the national law.



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Jottings of Travel and Description.—Those features which are now accepted as the traditional distinctions of the "Christmas numbers" of so many American magazines,—namely, short stories and an abundance of pictures,—predominate in the issues for December, 1905. Attempts at color and tint illustration are possibly less elaborate this year than last, and the proportion of serious articles is somewhat larger. The travel sketches are numerous and of unusual interest. Nothing that the American magazines have brought out for some time equals in intrinsic interest Miss Katharine Carl's account in the *Century* of her stay at the court of the Empress-Dowager of China, to which we alluded last month. In the December installment, Miss Carl initiates us into some of the mysteries of the court, particularly the etiquette of different audiences, the part played by cushions at audiences, the sacred quality of the imperial person, the *kowtow*, the ceremony of a reception, and other matters heretofore unknown by Occidentals except by hearsay.—In *Scribner's*, Mrs. Elizabeth Washburn Wright gives an impressionist view of the Suez Canal. Her paper is illustrated by Jules Guérin.—"Kairwan the Holy," the most sacred Moslem city of the West, is described in the *Metropolitan Magazine* by Charles Wellington Furlong. Several striking drawings in color accompany Mr. Furlong's article.—In *Harper's Magazine*, Mr. Henry W. Nevins continues his account of the slave trade of to-day, following the old slave route from the Zambesi Basin to Benguela and thence to the sea. Mr. Nevins shows that one result of the slave trade in Portuguese Africa is cheap chocolate and cocoa for England and America.—In *Everybody's Magazine*, the famous Mohammedan pilgrimage to Mecca is described by Ibn Jubayr Ali, of Bandar Abbas. The photographs accompanying this article are the first official representations of this most dramatic of religious spectacles, from which all unbelievers are excluded. The photographs are from negatives made at the personal command of the Sultan of Turkey. Needless to say, it was not anticipated that a set of prints from these negatives would get into infidel hands, and ultimately be published in an American magazine.—*Appleton's Booklovers Magazine*, notable as usual for its descriptive articles, gives a good illustrated account of "Algiers in Transition," by Dr. Maurice Baumfeld. The same magazine gives Caroline Baker Kuehn's description of "Taormina the Beautiful," in Sicily, and also an extremely readable paper on Montmartre, the Bohemian quarter of Paris, by Alvan F. Sanborn.—"Gun and Camera in African Wilds" is the title of an illustrated article in the *World's Work* by C. B. Schillings.—Among the minor descriptive papers in the December numbers are: "The Russian Players in New York," by Florence Brooks (*Century*); "The Language of the Trails," by Ernest Harold Baynes (*Harper's*); "The Heart of the Schwarzwald," by M. H. Squire and E.

Mars (*Metropolitan*); and "An Eventful Tiger Hunt," by A. Evans Gordon (*Pearson's*).

Art Features.—These, as already noted, seem less conspicuous than in preceding years, although this may be due in part to the fact that we are coming to take color and tint work in the magazines more as a matter of course than formerly. A series of four color drawings of Shakespeare's heroines, by Henry Hutt, in the *Metropolitan*, is especially worthy of note.—In the *Century* we have a Christmas hymn by Alfred Domett, printed on tinted and embellished pages and beautifully illustrated, in color, by Leyendecker.—*Harper's* opens with a pirate story by Howard Pyle, entitled "The Fate of a Treasure Town," illustrated with Mr. Pyle's drawings in color.—The December numbers have found room for only two art studies,—a criticism of Holbein, illustrated with reproductions of his paintings, by Kenyon Cox, in *Scribner's*, and a survey of the work of Robert Reid, by Royal Cortissoz, in *Appleton's Booklovers*. Mr. Cox votes Holbein one of the greatest painters of all time, simply on the score of faultless drawing and absolute truthfulness. He declares that the most evident of Holbein's claims to immortality is simply the possession of a wonderful eye.—Writing of the decorative work done by Robert Reid, Mr. Cortissoz dwells particularly on Reid's unerring perception of beauty, which has been shown especially in his mural decorations for the Congressional Library at Washington, the Appellate Court of New York, and the renovated State House at Boston. He comments, also, on this painter's successful handling of historical themes.—Two drawings by C. Weber Ditzler, reproduced in full color, accompany Bliss Carman's poem, "The Princess of the Tower," in the *Booklovers*.

Biography and Autobiography.—The "Reminiscences of a Long Life," by the Hon. Carl Schurz, in *McClure's*, holds first place in the current literature of its class. Few living writers have so much to tell that is intrinsically interesting, and it is the marvel of all his friends that Mr. Schurz is able, through the medium of an acquired tongue, to give the facts so good a setting.—The *Century* begins this month the publication of an important account of Lincoln's career as a lawyer by Frederick Trevor Hill. These papers are largely based upon examination of the court records and other personal investigation in the old Eighth Illinois Circuit, over which Lincoln traveled.—"The Facts About Shakespeare" are presented in an entertaining article, by John Corbin, in *Munsey's*.—An American whose career certainly deserves honorable mention in the annals of the nation was Joseph, chief of the Nez Percés, whose life is related by W. H. Kirkbride in *Pearson's*.—Among the men of the day whose characters are depicted in the current magazines are Senator Beveridge,

of Indiana (by George H. Lorimer, in *Appleton's Booklovers*); Mayor McClellan, of New York (by Hartley Davis, in *Munsey's*); Governor Folk, of Missouri (by William Allen White, in *McClure's*); and Frederick MacMonnies, the sculptor (by French Strother, in the *World's Work*).—A reminiscent paper on Sir Henry Irving, by Talcott Williams, appears in the *Atlantic Monthly*.—The story of Henry B. Hyde and his remarkable success in building up the fortunes of the Equitable is told by "Q. P." in the *World's Work*.—In *Everybody's Magazine*, Juliet Wilbor Tompkins brings to a close her series of articles on Ella Rawls Reader, the financier.

Economic Discussions.—The first of a series of papers by Charles Edward Russell, entitled "Soldiers

of the Common Good," appears in the December number of *Everybody's*. The first paper is entirely devoted to a study of coöperation in Great Britain. Mr. Russell shows how coöperation began in England among the flannel weavers and has spread and flourished until to-day it bids fair to absorb the entire trade of the nation. He shows its effect in the transformation of the lives of workingmen.—In his series of papers in *Appleton's Booklovers*, Harold Bolce discusses "Our Inevitable Competition with Yellow Labor."—Mr. Ray Stannard Baker contributes to *McClure's* a thoroughgoing study of railroad rebates, based on investigations covering a period of many months in many commercial centers.—In *Tom Watson's Magazine*, Ernest Cawcroft gives an instructive account of public ownership at Bradford, England.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Humanism as a Religion.—Mr. R. Christie contributes to the *Contemporary Review* (London) for November a very thoughtful study of "Humanism as a Religion." The main features of the creed are that the supernatural is not necessary to the moral ideal; that goodness is not an end, but a means to an end,—the end being the greatest balance of pleasure over pain, or the fullness of life. The good to be realized is the good of the social whole. With this go a persistent appreciation of the individual and an intense social optimism. Mr. Christie points out that the naturalistic basis of life is irrational; that biology does not support the idea that a new environment for a century or two can transmute the aggregate of hereditary qualities; that there is no proof that when we have ceased to collide in the economic sphere we shall collide nowhere else, for "the more socialism is a success, the more will the economic drop out of consciousness altogether." The humanistic ideal is derived from a deeper source than either economics or evolution. The solution of our present social problem would give naturalistic humanism its death-blow.

Farming as an International Interest.—The Marchese Raffaele Cappelli, late foreign minister for Italy, describes in the *Fortnightly Review* (London) for November the International Institute of Agriculture, which was formed by an international conference at Rome. He says that this institute will raise the standard of life in the nations, will increase means of subsistence faster than the increase of the human race, will rapidly diffuse knowledge of technical improvements in the economics of production, will coördinate the efforts of many coöperatives scattered throughout the world, will promote the economics of distribution, and also give an approximate idea of the stock in hand of each kind of produce.

An Italian View of the Russo-Japanese War.—In the November number of the *National Review* (London) appears an article by an Italian statesman on the influence of the far-Eastern war on the European situation. He deplores the Anglo-German animosity, claiming both England and Germany as friends of Italy. Yet the action of France in repudiating the efforts of French capitalists to obtain a concession in Tripoli will compel Italy, in the Morocco conference, to side with

her at all costs, even at the risk of losing German friendship. He hopes that the weakening of Russia will not be overestimated, and also that Italy may help Russia and Great Britain to a more satisfactory understanding in the Balkans and elsewhere.

"Municipal Trading" in England.—In the *Independent Review* (London) for November, Mr. Edwin Cannan discusses the principle of municipal trading. He rebuts the charge of socialism by saying that capital is not, as a matter of fact, deprived of its share of income. And furthermore he asks, Who is the community to which the municipal enterprises belong? Not the people of the locality, but the proprietors of land and other property. He says: "Streets and parks, schools, waterworks, tramways, belonging to the local community, are really mere adjuncts of the real estate within the locality, and shares in them are transferred along with each parcel of real estate which is bought and sold." Neither does municipal trading do away with interest. Then why is it so furiously opposed? "The real root of bitterness is to be looked for, not in any change in the ownership of capital or in the distribution of wealth, but in a change of management." The electors govern, though they do not own.

The Effect of the Simplon Tunnel.—In the *Contemporary Review* (London) for November, Mr. J. S. Mann discusses the new trade routes in Europe which have been suggested by the opening of the Simplon Tunnel. He mentions the project of piercing the Col de Faucille, the depression in the Jura above Gex, which would involve only three long tunnels of four, seven, and ten miles, nine other tunnels of less than a mile each, which would reduce the distance from Paris to Geneva by about seventy-two miles. The time from Paris to Milan would sink to twelve hours, from London to Milan to twenty-one hours, from London to Brindisi to forty hours instead of forty-five. The French minister of public works has proposed the tunneling to Mont Blanc from Chamounix to Entrèves, eight and one-half miles in length. Mr. Mann also mentions the railways in course of construction which bring Salzburg and South Germany into closer connection with Trieste, and so strengthen German-Austrian influence in that city. South German seaward traffic will thus be diverted from Hamburg, which is 700 kilometers from Munich,

to Trieste, which is less than 400. Mr. Mann refers to the protectionist paradox which leads France and Switzerland, while spending four or five millions sterling in shortening the running time from Paris to Geneva by two and one-half hours, to lose half an hour on every journey by the customs examination.

Naval Capture of Private Goods.—In the *Nineteenth Century and After* (London), for November, Mr. Edmund Robertson, late civil lord of the admiralty, makes a strong plea for the abolition of the rule of international law which permits of naval capture of private property. He points out that the rule, though fallen into discredit, has been maintained mainly by the refusal of Great Britain to consent to its abolition. The right would be, he says, of no great value to her, but would result in the transferring of a large portion of her carrying trade to neutral fleets. It has been once more challenged by the United States Government in its proposals for the new Hague conference. Though the Commission on the British Food Supply in Time of War refused to recommend the abolition of this obnoxious rule, it considers that the first duty of the government is to extirpate the *origo mali* altogether, and so most effectually provide for the safety of supplies of food from abroad.

British Woodlands.—Sir Herbert Maxwell occupies sixteen pages of *Blackwood's* (London) for November with a review of Dr. Nisbet's treatise of British forestry, and with a lament over the present parlous position of forestry in the islands. Of all European countries, he says, the United Kingdom has the smallest proportion of woodland,—3.9 per cent., as compared with Germany's 25.8, and France's 17.7 per cent. There is likelihood of a timber famine or, at any rate, such a rise in price as will tell seriously on Great Britain's leading industries. Planting timber trees is an investment, Sir Herbert Maxwell thinks, which would pay handsomely in the end, judging from foreign statistics, and judging also from the balance-sheet of the Novar Woods in Ross-shire, which shows a considerable annual profit. To the argument that England has state forests already on which there is a heavy deficit, Sir Herbert Maxwell replies that that is because they are run on entirely wrong principles.

The Cape to Cairo Telegraph.—In the *Pall Mall Magazine* for November, Mr. Howard Henson gives an account of the erection of the telegraph wire from the Cape to Cairo, which it is hoped will be completed in 1907. In May, 1903, it had reached Ujdjidi, in German East Africa. Then there was a pause, for the country northward as far as the Sudan was *terra incognita*, and it was necessary to make an accurate survey of it. In the meantime the line already erected was got into proper working order, and, considering its length and the country which it traverses, this was an affair of no small magnitude. The distance from Salisbury, in

Mashonaland, the starting-point, to Abercorn, at the foot of Lake Tanganyika, is about 1,635 miles, and Ujdjidi is 293 miles farther north,—nearly 2,000 miles in all.

French Approval of British Indian Policy.—A long and careful analysis of Great Britain's policy in India, by Paul Mimané, appears in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. M. Mimané declares that the French idea in colonization is assimilation;—the English idea, adaptation. Frenchmen, he continues, wish to make of their colonial possessions simply "an extended France." The English, on the other hand, try to administer their possessions in the interests of the people themselves, taking into account the native mind and traditions. The results are,—in French possessions, a rigidity of administrative processes, and almost complete abdication of metropolitan predominance; in English possessions, a fine elasticity and delicacy in the official yoke, which permits of the maintenance of absolute European supremacy. This is all shown, he maintains, in the British rule of India,—a rule which is successful because it does not attempt to make another Britain out of Hindustan, but to govern without interfering with native customs, ideas, and traditions.

Wretched Condition of Russian Jews.—In the Russian review *Obrazovante*, there is a paper by one Niemanov on the economic situation of the Jewish proletariat in Russia. At the present time, the writer of this article reminds us, there are somewhat over 6,000,000 Jews in Russia. Ninety-five per cent. of this population is herded in the Pale,—that is to say, in the governments of Poland and several other provinces in the southwest. The condition of these Hebrews has been described many times. This writer declares that the description of their life has not been exaggerated. Their misery is simply incredible. Take, for example, the case (which is quite typical) of a spinner in one of the "lower governments." He gains one ruble and a half to two rubles a week (75 cents to \$1), and his family, which is almost always composed of five or six persons, must subsist on this. Thousands of these families have nothing to eat but dry bread bought from beggars, and water. The great mass of the Jewish working class,—that is to say, five-sixths of the entire Jewish population,—concludes this writer, is progressively but surely degenerating in the matter of physique, and little by little becoming extinct.

The Japanese Yellow Press.—A very strong article on the yellow press of Japan appears in the Tokio monthly *Koye*. The writer bewails the fact that not only are the readers of these yellow journals increasing, but the number of the journals themselves is being constantly augmented. These publications, he declares, are depraving the country, and the subject calls for serious consideration on the part of Japanese statesmen. He sees no escape from a severe censorship.



SOME NOTES ON THE NEW BOOKS.

NEW WORKS ON PAINTING, MUSIC, AND ARCHITECTURE.

AN ambitious, finely illustrated volume of the reminiscences of George Frederick Watts has been issued by the Macmillans. It is the work of Mrs. Russell Barrington, and is the first complete volume of Watts' reminiscences we have had. The work is based chiefly on letters and papers left by the artist, each of which is considered as an essay, so methodical and careful was Watts. Mrs. Barrington and her husband, the late Russell Barrington, were for many years close personal friends of Watts', and this volume, while perhaps not exhaustive, is certainly accurate. The illustrations are in tint.

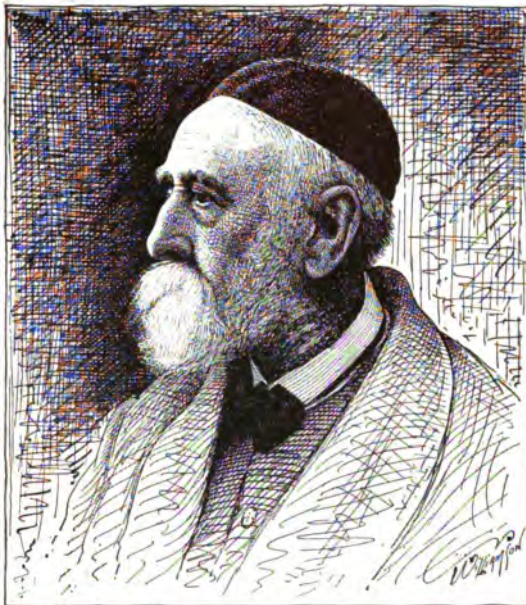
The fourth volume of in the "Popular Art" series, being issued by the Baker & Taylor Company, is Mr. Russell Sturgis' "The Appreciation of Pictures." The purpose of this series of hand-books is to present all the great arts of design from one and the same standpoint. In this volume, which is appropriately illustrated, Dr. Sturgis attempts to do for painting what he did for architecture in a volume issued some time ago.

"Old Masters and New" (Fox, Duffield) is a practical book of art criticism by Kenyon Cox. It ought to be helpful to novices in art appreciation. The volume is illustrated.

The tenth book of Charles Dana Gibson's famous drawings has appeared. This is entitled "Our Neighbors," and is published by the Scribners. More than usual interest attaches to this collection, as it is the last of Mr. Gibson's work in line, he having decided to devote himself henceforth to the study of color-work.

A modest little interpretation of a few of the best-known ideal conceptions of "Womanhood in Art" (Paul Elder) has been written by Phoebe Estelle Spalding. The authoress has taken a number of the most famous artistic creations of history depicting womanhood, and interpreted the meaning of the artist. The paintings considered are: Da Vinci's "Monalisa," Reni's "Beatrice Cenci," and Sanzio's "Madonna of the Chair" and "Sistine Madonna." The works in sculpture are the Venus of Milo and the Eve of Ernest Dagonet.

In two charmingly written volumes, Mr. Gustav Kobbé has given us the love-stories of famous musicians. "The Loves of Great Composers" (Crowell) is really a series of informal biographies, showing the inner life of Mozart, Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Chopin, Liszt, and Wagner, by reciting the love-story and giving us an insight into the heart affairs which swayed



GEORGE FREDERICK WATTS.

or molded their genius. In his other work, "Wagner and His Isolde" (Dodd, Mead), Mr. Kobbé has treated more at length of the love-story of the great composer. This volume is really a condensed translation of the monumental work in German recently issued, comprising the love-letters which passed between Wagner and Mathilde Wesendonk. Both volumes are illustrated and satisfactorily printed.

Another Wagner book of the season is J. Walker McSpadden's "Stories from Wagner," in the "Children's Favorite Classics" series (Crowell). The stories considered in this little volume are: Four from the "Ring" dramas, also "Parsifal, the Pure," "Lohengrin, the Swan Knight," "Tannhauser, the Knight of Song," "The Master Singers," "Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes," "The Flying Dutchman," and "Tristan and Isolde."

A rendering in English verse of Wagner's "Lohengrin," by Oliver Huckel, to accompany the same author's versification of "Parsifal," has been issued by Crowell. The verse is smooth and dignified.

The Macmillans have issued No. 4 of their "New American Music Reader," which has been edited by Frederick Zuchtman.

Mr. Charles Herbert Moore, author of "The Development and Character of Gothic Architecture," has written another volume, "The Character of Renaissance Architecture" (Macmillan), handsomely printed and illustrated in tint.

A history of biblical art, under the title "The Bible Beautiful," has been prepared by Estelle M. Hurl (L. C. Page). This is an analysis of the motives which have influenced painters in their conceptions of biblical char-



GUSTAV KOBBE.

acters and constitutions. Many of the works of the great masters of all ages have been reproduced to illustrate the text. It is an attractive piece of book-making.

ON RELIGIOUS AND PHILOSOPHICAL SUBJECTS.

When Mr. W. H. Mallock has anything to say on philosophy or religion, he always commands a most respectful hearing. In his latest volume, "The Reconstruction of Religious Belief" (Harpers), Mr. Mallock attempts to aid "the thoughtful man of to-day," either "in justifying his old belief by supplying it with new foundations, or in building up some new belief which may possibly take its place." Mr. Mallock demonstrates that, when science has said its last word, it inevitably leaves us in some region outside itself in which "an intellectual solution of the contradiction between scientific and religious principles must be found."

Among those recent books which attempt to deal with religious conditions as distinguished from theological systems, one of the most interesting and stimulating is the volume of lectures, entitled "The Universal Elements of the Christian Religion," by President Charles Cuthbert Hall, of the Union Theological Seminary (Revell). President Hall's qualifications to treat of so broad a theme as the Christianization of the world have been reinforced by recent observations made by him during a journey to India and the far East. Few Christian theologians of our time have made a broader study of the essential elements of non-Christian religions. This fact makes his logic the more convincing and his conclusions more worthy of credence. President Hall occupies a distinct place among the present-day constructive theologians. He gives due recognition to the best results of modern criticism, but the main purpose of his work is not controversial. He is more deeply concerned with the problems of sectarianism and the efforts to reconstruct the Christian Church on broader lines. It is interesting to note that the lectures included in this volume were delivered on the Cole Foundation at Vanderbilt University, under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

Another book which has to do with present-day religious conditions is Dr. Lyman Abbott's volume on "The Christian Ministry" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The book is not, as one might be led to suppose from the title, addressed to clergymen alone, but is rather an attempt to interpret in a broad way the tendencies of religious life, and especially to inquire into the real motive of church attendance and other religious observances. Dr. Abbott has been impressed by the results of the census recently taken in New York City, which showed that approximately half of the population above school age is accustomed to take part in some form of religious service every week. Far from being discouraged by the fact that half the people fail to go to church at all, Dr. Abbott is inclined to regard the phenomenon of church-going as a remarkable one, and even to be surprised that so many of the community persist in the habit.

Turning now to the more strictly theological treatises of the year, we find in "The Prophets and the Promise," by Dr. Willis Judson Beecher, of Auburn Theological Seminary (Crowell), the product of many years of study, a concentrated restatement of the Christian tradition, which will be regarded as essentially orthodox or unorthodox, according to the reader's point of view. The author himself, however, is concerned

primarily with the search after the truth without regard to formal creeds.

A book which very fairly represents the present drift away from dogmatism in American theology is Prof. Olin Alfred Curtis' volume, entitled "The Christian Faith" (Eaton & Mains). The author of this work holds the chair of systematic theology in the Drew Theological Seminary, but he disclaims any ambition to become "the recognized authority of any church, or of any school, or of any man." The spirit of his book is certainly an encouraging sign of modern liberty in theological writing.

Dr. Amory H. Bradford's little book, entitled "The Inward Light" (Crowell), is a plea for self-revelation and individual conscience. It is based on the proposition that there is in every man light sufficient to disclose all the truth that is needed for the purpose of life. Dr. Bradford provides no ready-made doctrinal system for any man to follow, but makes an appeal entirely to the individual conscience, although in no sense antagonizing dogmatic Christianity.

A stimulating volume, consisting of quotations from the works of the late Max Müller, collected by his wife, appears under the title "Life and Religion" (Doubleday, Page). Most of the paragraphs appearing are from the unpublished writings of the late genial German philologist and philosopher.

Dr. Henry van Dyke's "Spirit of Christmas" (Scribners) is a series of prayers and sermonettes in both prose and verse.

"Christianity and Socialism" is the title of a series of five lectures by Dr. Washington Gladden, (New York, Eaton & Mains). The subjects of these lectures, which were delivered before the students of the Drew Theological Seminary, are as follows: The Sermon on the Mount as a basis of social reconstruction, labor wars, the programme of socialism, the true socialism, and lights and shadows of municipal reform. Dr. Gladden's attitude on most of these topics has been made known in earlier works. It has been his endeavor, as he states in a prefatory note, to bring Christianity and socialism into "more intelligible and more friendly relations."

HOLIDAY EDITIONS AND REPRINTS.

In his sumptuous holiday book of love-stories, entitled "The Line of Love" (Harpers), Mr. James Branch Cabell has given us a collection, told in exquisite poetical way, of some of the most picturesque but less-known love-stories of history. Love, says Mr. Cabell in his dedicatory epistle, addressed to Mrs. Grundy, "is all illusion, if you will; but always from this illusion alone has the next generation been rendered possible." Therefore, "any love-story is of gigantic signification." To these love stories, mostly of the Middle Ages, Mr. Howard Pyle has lent the vigor and artistic skill of his brush, and the illustrations in color are very striking.

A decided novelty in the book line is the five-volume edition of Irving which the Crowells have gotten out,—so small that the whole set in its case can be carried in one's coat pocket. This miniature edition, bound in limp green leather and printed on India paper, includes selections from "The Sketch Book," "Christmas Sketches," selections from "The Alhambra," selections from "Bracebridge Hall," and "The Tales of a Traveler." The typography was done in Scotland, and the paper is excellent.

Among new and attractive editions of standard works which have come to our notice this month, are:

Volume II. of the complete Shakespeare, which Thomas Nelson & Sons are issuing in six volumes; the complete poetical works of Byron (1,050 pages) in the Cambridge edition, which is being so carefully edited and attractively brought out by Houghton, Mifflin; three of the Century Company's exquisite little gift books, known as the "Thumbnailed" series; Mrs. Browning's "Sonnets from the Portuguese," Dickens' "Chimes," and "Washington," a series of selections from great writers; John R. Howard's "One Hundred Best American Poems," and "Selections from the Writings of Benjamin Franklin," in the Handy Volume Classics issued by Crowells; a handsome illustrated edition, in one volume, of Dickens' "Christmas Carol," and "The Cricket on the Hearth" (Baker & Taylor), with illustrations by George Alfred Williams; and a sumptuous presentation of Bret Harte's famous poem, "Her Letter" (Houghton, Mifflin), with pictures in color by Arthur I. Keller.

"The Romances of Old France," by Richard Le Gallienne (Baker, Taylor), is a very handsomely printed and illustrated collection of love-stories of ancient and medieval France.

A new edition of Joel Chandler Harris' latest Uncle Remus book, "Told by Uncle Remus; New Stories of Old Plantation," has been issued by McClure, Phillips, with illustrations by A. B. Frost, J. M. Conde, and

Frank Verbeck. It is the same old Uncle Remus, and the same old marvelous tales of animal lore, full of gentle humor and kindly negro wisdom.

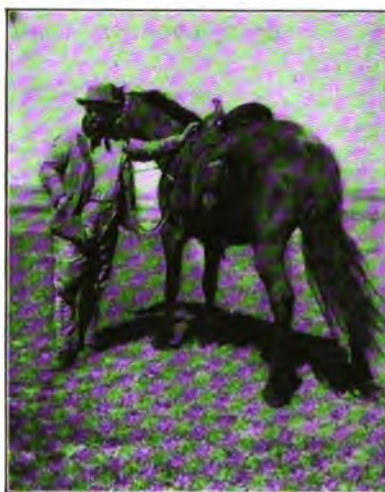
Among handsome new editions of works which have already found the favor of the reading public this season, are: Dr. Henry van Dyke's "Fisherman's Luck" (Scribners), illustrated; Kipling's "The Seven Seas" (Appleton), illustrated and with marginal decorations; and Gilbert Parker's "Seats of the Mighty" (Appleton), illustrated.

OUT-OF-DOOR BOOKS.

"Outdoor Pastimes of an American Hunter," by Theodore Roosevelt (Scribners), is one of the very few instances of a book written by a President of the United States and published during his term in office. A portion of the material included in this volume ap-



"A BIRD IN SIGHT."
(Frontispiece of Burroughs' "Ways of Nature.")



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"THE BIG D COW PONY."

(Illustration from "Outdoor Pastimes of an American Hunter." Photograph by W. Sloan Simpson.)

peared, it is true, some years ago in the publications of the Boone and Crockett Club. In its present dress, however, it appeals to a far larger portion of the American public. Other chapters relating to the President's bear and wolf hunts of the spring of 1905 are just now coming out in the current issues of *Scribner's Monthly*. Mr. Roosevelt's literary method in treating of outdoor subjects is well known. It is characterized by a thorough-going purpose to do something more than merely narrate the author's personal adventures. The real groundwork of all Mr. Roosevelt's writing on these subjects is the broad, scientific method of the naturalist; and a naturalist Mr. Roosevelt preëminently is, as was clearly pointed out in an article by Mr. Grinnell in the November number of the *Country Calendar*. Interest in his present book will no doubt be heightened by the fact that many of the illustrations are from photo-

graphs taken by the President himself or by members of his family.

The new book by John Burroughs, "The Ways of Nature" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is largely taken up with the subject of animal intelligence. Mr. Burroughs, as is well known, has deemed it his duty to offer a vigorous protest against the current tendency to humanize animal life, especially in stories and other forms of literature designed for children's reading. More than two years ago, this protest was voiced in the paper entitled "Real and Sham in History," which Mr. Burroughs contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly*. That paper is not included in this new collection of Mr. Burroughs' essays, but some of the results of the widespread discussion which followed its publication are embodied in several chapters of the present work. The whole discussion is pervaded by Mr. Burroughs' well-known charm of style and clearness of statement.

In "Arizona Sketches" (New York: The Grafton Press), Dr. Joseph A. Munk gives much interesting information about that wonderland of our great Southwest. He describes not only the Grand Cañon of Colorado, with which we are all more or less familiar from former accounts, but also such little-known phenomena as the Meteorite Mountain and the oddities of desert vegetation. He shows, for example, that within a radius of twenty-five miles there are seven distinct zones of vegetation, in which he declares that the variety of life cannot be duplicated anywhere else on the globe. There are also interesting chapters on the structures of the Cliff Dwellers, and entertaining accounts of the habits and customs of the snake dancers, the modern Moquis. The book is profusely illustrated from photographs.

In "Sporting Sketches," by Edwyn Sandys (Macmillan), there are many readable bits of description, as well as fascinating tales of wild-life, hunting reminiscences, and all in all a choice collection of out-of-door lore, such as only a born sportsman could accumulate.

TRAVEL SKETCHES.

A notable exception among the published impressions of the United States written by distinguished foreign visitors is the volume entitled "In the Land of the Strenuous Life," by Abbé Felix Klein, of Catholic University of Paris (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). This is the author's translation of a book that has already had much popularity in France. We say that this is an exception among books of its class in that the writer's conclusions are almost invariably favorable to American institutions. The abbé protests, in a vein of pleasantry, that the only Americans whom he encountered in his travels in the United States two years ago were honest people, and possibly the best of the nation. On his next journey, he hopes to meet at least a few individuals of another class. The abbé natu-



Illustration (reduced) from "New Creations in Plant Life."

rally met many of the representatives of his own faith, and especially priests and bishops interested in Catholic education. His book contains, therefore, quite a fund of information regarding the Catholic colleges and universities of the United States. There are also interesting chapters on Chicago, St. Louis and the World's Fair, New York, Washington, and other American cities.

The first full and authoritative account of the life and work of Luther Burbank, concerning whom so much has appeared of late in American magazines, has been written by W. S. Harwood, under the title of "New Creations in Plant Life" (Macmillan). The American reading public has shown its disposition to read with avidity everything published about this wonderful man, and we have no doubt that the present exposition of his methods will meet with popular favor. Mr. Harwood has had exceptional opportunities to familiarize himself with Mr. Burbank's remarkable work in California, and all who read his descriptions of the various aspects of that work may rest assured that they are based on accurate observation, authenticated by Mr. Burbank himself.

Mr. William J. Long's studies of animal life in the far North—"Northern Trails" (Boston: Ginn & Co.)—affords the author an opportunity to explain somewhat more fully than he had done in earlier works his views on the question of animal instinct. Mr. Long believes that the word instinct is often used to cover our own blindness and lack of observation. The motives governing an animal's action he believes to be often much like our own, but more simple and natural than ours. The life of the higher animals he believes to be directed



Cover design (reduced).

by nothing less than a "very wide-awake intelligence." Mr. Long's illustrations, drawn from the animal life of Labrador and Newfoundland, are extremely interesting—the more so because these animals are comparatively unfamiliar to most American naturalists. The illustrations of the present volume, like those of Mr. Long's earlier series, are from drawings by Charles Copeland.

Mr. William E. Curtis' "Egypt, Burma, and British Malaysia" (Revell) is another of his descriptive, informational volumes, so many of which have already come from the pen of the same author. Mr. Curtis tells of things he has seen, and garnishes his narrative with a great deal of historical and descriptive information which makes very interesting reading. There are a number of excellent illustrations in this volume.

In "A Wanderer in Holland" (Macmillan), Mr. E. V. Lucas records a series of personal impressions of Holland and the Dutch people, gathered during three extended visits, "together with an accretion of matter, more or less pertinent, drawn from many stories old and new." A number of excellent illustrations, some of them in color, add interest to the volume.

It has been reserved for an American girl, Miss Katharine A. Carl, to be the first foreign guest since



MISS KATHARINE A. CARL.

Marco Polo in the palace of a Chinese sovereign. Miss Carl was entertained for several months in the palace of that very remarkable woman, Tze-Shi, the Dowager-Empress of China, while she painted four portraits of the Empress, one of them for the St. Louis Exposition. In her book, "With the Dowager Empress" (Century), Miss Carl tells the story of her experiences. In text and picture, she relates how she lived, what the Empress did and said, and also describes many of these

social customs and religious rites. Of this sovereign lady, Miss Carl says: "I found her majesty by far the most fascinating personality it has ever been my good fortune to study at such close range."

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE.

Mr. Edward Stanwood's life of James Gillespie Blaine begins the second "American Statesmen" series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which will be devoted to the lives of men most prominent in American statecraft since the Civil War. Mr. Stanwood is the author of a well-known "History of the Presidency" and "American Tariff Controversies." He is a native of Maine, and has been acquainted all his life with the State which Mr. Blaine so long and ably represented. Even leaving out of account the interest which attaches to so vigorous a personality, the scenes and events through which Mr. Blaine moved in the most stirring years of his life are now matters of history, and a clear-cut biography such as Mr. Stanwood has written makes a capital medium through which the younger generation of American



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THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON.

readers and students may be made familiar with the *post bellum* period of our politics. Mr. Stanwood gives especial attention to those episodes in Blaine's career which were most frequently represented by his enemies as more or less discreditable. Mr. Stanwood makes an able defense of Blaine against the attacks of his political opponents.

Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson has written several volumes of reminiscences and autobiography, none of which is more entertaining than his last book, entitled, "Part of a Man's Life" (Houghton, Mifflin), in which he expresses his views upon public questions and literary subjects in the form of essays which partake largely of history and autobiography. The race question, "The Aristocracy of the Dollar," and "The Cowardice of Culture" are among the topics treated. There are also pleasant references to New England transcendentalism, to the American popular lecture system once known as the Lyceum, and to several English literary themes. Surely such observations as these of Colonel Higginson on the intellectual and social developments witnessed in so long a life as his are well worth while.

In the series of "American Crisis Biographies" (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.), Mr. John Randolph Spears contributes a life of Admiral Farragut. This is by no means the first time that this typical American sailor's life has been written, but the well-known accuracy of Mr. Spears' writing on historical subjects insures in the present volume a painstaking regard to the facts of history. Among other materials heretofore unpublished, Mr. Spears has been enabled to utilize hundreds of documents, gathered from both Union and Confederate sources, which are to appear in the "Official Records of the Union and Confederate

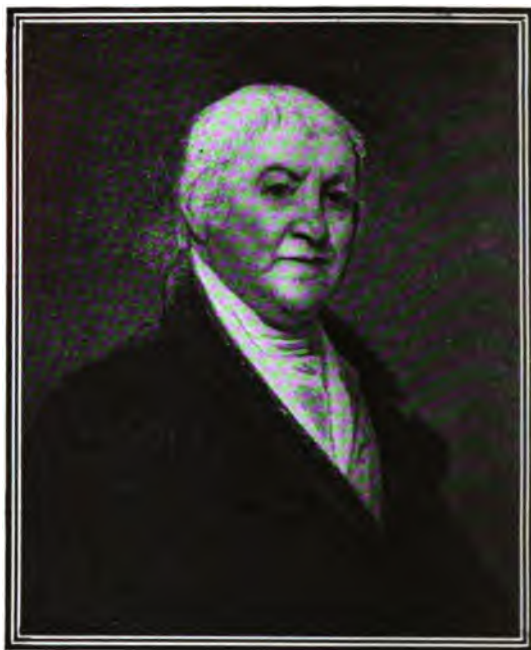
Naves." Admiral Farragut was a rugged character, whose memory is revered by thousands of survivors of the Civil War.

A new biography of Captain Myles Standish, by Tudor Jenks (Century), makes short work of some of the popular traditions that have gathered around the personality of the only military character in the annals of our Pilgrim fathers. The story of the courtship of Priscilla by John Alden, acting in behalf of Standish, as related by Longfellow, is one of the delightful tales thus cruelly disposed of. But the facts in the career of this sturdy defender of the Pilgrim faith which have been disclosed by Mr. Jenks' researches more than atone for the loss of a few unsupported traditions. Myles Standish was not only commander of the little military force that did battle with the Indians on behalf of the Pilgrim settlers, but he served also in the capacity of magistrate, as engineer, explorer, interpreter, merchant, and even as a physician. None among the Plymouth settlers did more to secure the ultimate success of the colony against great odds than did this modest soldier. It is to be hoped that Mr. Jenks will continue his studies of these pioneer worthies in our country's history, begun so auspiciously with his life of John Smith, which was published a year ago.

Mr. Charles Ferris Gettemy has written "The True Story of Paul Revere" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). This book gives all the important incidents in the life of this American hero, including his midnight ride, his arrest and court-martial, and his later important public services. The real value of the book lies in the light which it throws on local Revolutionary history, and especially on the alliance with France and the adoption of the Constitution. There is a full account included of the Penobscot expedition.

Appropos of the centennial of the birth of William Lloyd Garrison, a brief selection of "The Words of Garrison" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has been compiled, chiefly from the four-volume life of Garrison written by his children. There is added a biographical sketch, with a list of portraits, bibliography, and chronology.

In "Washington and the West" (Century), the father of his country appears in the character of the first great national expansionist. This book contains Washington's diary of September, 1784, kept during his journey into the Ohio basin in the interest of a commercial union between the Great Lakes and the Potomac River. A commentary upon the diary is furnished by Mr. Archer B. Hulbert, the author of "Historic Highways of America." The diary, with the accompanying notes, throws much light on the attitude of Washington toward the development of the West after the close of the Revolution. It also shows Washington's practical position on the question of internal improvements.



PAUL REVERE.

War-time reminiscences of Southern women seem to have been gaining vogue of late. One publishing house in particular,—that of Doubleday, Page & Co.,—has brought out a number of volumes of this character. The latest is entitled "A Southern Girl in '61," and gives the recollections of a Confederate Senator's daughter, Mrs. G. Giraud Wright. Mrs. Wright, at the outbreak of the Civil War, was Miss Louise Wigfall, the daughter of Senator Louis T. Wigfall, of Texas.

She lived with her father in Washington, just before the war, and from the early stages of the conflict to its close she saw much of the home life of leading Southern statesmen and their families, and was familiar with the trials and sufferings of the Southern people. "The feminine spirit of the Confederacy," which has been made one of the chapter titles of this book, is cleverly interpreted by this writer, who was actually a part of the stirring scenes which she narrates.



Frontispiece (reduced) from "A Southern Girl in '61."

A revised and enlarged edition of Mrs. Roger A. Pryor's "Reminiscences of Peace and War" (Macmillan), which appeared something over a year ago and was noticed in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS at that time, has recently been issued. This is one of the best and most readable books of its class.



WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON.

A REVIEW OF THE SEASON'S FICTION.

A GOODLY number of readers, no doubt, are puzzled by the lists of "best selling books" which from time to time are given out by the retail venders of literature. It is certain, however, that among those thus perplexed there are a number who at last conclude such lists to indicate some sort of superiority in the works mentioned. In reality, the books so distinguished are merely the most popular books, and therefore sold by the largest quantities, in the market of literary novelties,—though, from the critical point of view, they might be the best, the worst, or an assortment of mediocrity. We believe it would be unusual for the reviewer of a season's symposium of fiction himself to make up a list of what he considered *ought* to be the best-selling novels; nevertheless, the present writer, with the interest of good literary taste at heart, and desirous of aiding and abetting meritorious scribes, is willing to assume a moderate risk. So that for the benefit of those honoring us with a patient ear, we give, in alphabetic order, the names of half-a-dozen works of fiction seeming to us especially laudable. These are: "The Divine Fire," "The Edge of Circumstance," "The Garden of Allah," "The House of Mirth," "Iole," and "Kipps." Of course, however, we are not hereby issuing a pontifical proclamation of infallible choice.

NOVELS OF NATIONAL AMERICAN IMPORT.

Treating the eighty odd volumes under notice in convenient classification, let us begin with the books of national, that is to say American, import. By far the finest novel of the year dealing with American life is "The House of Mirth," of which the author is Edith Wharton, and which Charles Scribner's Sons have done so admirably well to enroll among their publications. "The House of Mirth"—ironical title!—is, so to speak, the memoir of a soul doomed to degradation. Lily Bart was born and bred in affluent surroundings, in the center of that thoughtless comfort, that extravagant ease, that large luxurious life believed by every woman of America's plutocracy to be her natural right. Tasteful in her habits and wasteful in gratifying them, restless in her moods and reckless in their unreined, unrestrained expression, Lily Bart could not stop when prudence might yet have saved her. Jewelry, flowers, handsome gowns, costly laces, constant travel, gambling debts, depleted resources which at last were reduced to a mere pittance when a certain legacy went the wrong way. Meanwhile, a married male friend sees her impending plight, "advises" her in the matter of "investments," brings her ample profits—from his own pocket. Though disliking this man, she must conciliate, must cozen him—so that the flow of gold may continue. Then she discovers that he has been *giving* her money—and that he wants a *return*. The only escape from poverty is marriage, and after failing to entrap a rich, respectable bore, Lily must demean herself to tolerating a rich, repulsive cad. Him she misses too, while at the same time her relations with other wealthy friends become disrupted, and Lily,—helpless, futile parasite,—is turned upon an impassive world to make her livelihood. But she is tragically unfit to survive a struggle for existence entailing laborious pertinacity, self-denying thrift, unflinching hardiness. One can but feel relieved at

her liberation by death from the ultimate shame that falls upon penniless handsome women whose god is pleasure. We have touched only the main theme, which, like the whole story, is worked out in a manner to stamp the writer a genius, and give her name a place in the history of American literature.

Unluckily for David Graham Phillips, his novel, "The Deluge" (Bobbs-Merrill), contains a situation analogous to that of Lily Bart and one of her prospective husbands. The palpable coarseness, the repellent obtru-

sion, of a blatant, unscrupulous upstart, Mrs. Wharton paints in their real aspect, Mr. Phillips, on the other hand, attempting to produce a picture of great moral strength with these same colors. No wonder he fails! Turning to "Miss Bellard's Inspiration" (Harper), we find no such young mistake committed as the distortion of human characteristics from their true significance. For in Mr. Howells' literary art all persons



DAVID GRAHAM PHILLIPS.

of high taste and educated intellect do rejoice. "Miss Bellard's Inspiration," though but a slight love tale, embodies a maturity of conception, a surety of view, a subtle phraseology, an exquisite use of irony, and, withal, a sedate, appeasing dignity. Quite without art appears, by contrast, Robert Herrick's crude "Memoirs of an American Citizen" (Macmillan.) A boy named Edward Harrington comes to Chicago with a few cents in his pocket, secures work, and by dint of those qualities which bring worldly success, after amassing a fortune in business, pushes his way to the Capitol as Senator from Illinois. The author attempts to maintain the "local atmosphere" of Chicago by much reference to railroad conspiracies, stock speculations, the industries of lobbying and meat-packing, the World's Fair, the anarchist riots of the Haymarket, etc. "Noble" sentiments are scattered across the pages in profusion. But one thing Professor Herrick has achieved in spite of himself: he has somehow put,—no, hammered,—together a rough image of the American self-made man; has forcibly, though clumsily, exhibited his energy and enterprise, his fertile initiative and huge activity, his love of money, his ruthless truculence, his barbarous scorn of everything that does not conduce to material prosperity.

A far more skillful book lies before us, called "The Long Day" (Century Company). This half-romantic, half-sociological, autobiography reveals most faithfully all that three hundred pages could expose concerning the lodging, nourishment, dress, occupations, amuse-

ments, manners, morals, even the very vernacular of the New York working-girl. Who the author is we do not know, but are able to declare her endowed with extraordinary powers of observation. Joined to an effective capacity for description, this anonymous writer owns a deep sympathy with the class she knows so well. One so gifted evidently never was a working-girl.—the publisher's specious announcement on the title page notwithstanding,—except for the purpose acknowledged by herself (on page 274): "When it came to me to write this little book I voluntarily labored, a week here, a week there, at various trades;" and her record of the result makes a story that is nothing less than fascinating.

TYPES OF AMERICAN LIFE.

Besides the above, there have been issued a dozen or so works of fiction, touching other national subjects, which, though not of world-convulsing power, may be suitably enumerated here.

That the country newspaper affords grave preoccupation to its subscribers and unseemly mirth to those who dwell in Babylon, Eugene Thwing is fully aware, himself endowed with a neat sense of humor. One could have wished, however, that "The Man from Red Keg" (Dodd, Mead) had been restricted to this, a sufficient issue. Too many cooks,—words, we mean,—spoil the book. Glorification of the cowboy as a splendid



Frontispiece (reduced) from "Curly," by Roger Pocock. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.)

hero (full of whiskey and valor), whom men fear and women love, still captivates misinformed urbanites. Had they ever lived with "Curly" (Little, Brown) or "Ben Blair" (McClurg) in a filthy "shack" on some dreary, monotonous plain of Arizona or South Dakota, they would feel disposed to write as follows to the authors, Messieurs Pocock and Lillibridge: "Kindly say whether by *adventure* you generally mean hunting for fleas." Adventures of that sort may possibly have befallen some of the Southwestern "Road Builders" (Macmillan), who, according to Samuel Merwin, live a succession of wondrous, thrilling deeds while occupied at laying rails and ties.

Manual labor receives more rational description at the hands of Octave Thanet and Arthur Stanwood



MARGARET SHERWOOD.

Pier; both "The Man of the Hour" (Bobbs-Merrill) and "The Ancient Grudge" (Houghton, Mifflin) treat of the mechanic's position as worker and striker. "The Divining Rod" (Little, Brown), by Francis N. Thorpe, takes one back to pioneer days in the Pennsylvania oil fields; Robert Barr—that clever Scot—provides a volume of Frenzied Finance under the title of "The Speculations of John Steel" (Stokes); Elliott Flower's "Best Policy" (Bobbs-Merrill)

recommends you to insure your life. "The Debtor" (Harper), "The Coming of the Tide" (Houghton, Mifflin), and "Rose o' the River" (Houghton, Mifflin) are simple, quiet stories of New England, told by three well-known lady romanticists,—Mary E. Wilkins, Margaret Sherwood, and Kate Douglas Wiggin.

Every-day life in a small community of Indiana might not appear a magnet for the romancer's pen; at all events, Booth Tarkington's "Conquest of Canaan" (Harper) is a very dull novel. And let us end these remarks by asking: If your life were saved by a scoundrel, ought you to betray him, supposing the happiness of a woman you loved were at stake? For Maud Wilder Goodwin's solution go to "Claims and Counterclaims" (Doubleday, Page.)

BRITISH AUTHORS AND SUBJECTS.

Vast in area, population, and activities, the British dominions offer unlimited scope for story-telling. To begin with a remote spot of that ever-spreading empire, let us quote from G. B. Lancaster's "Sons o' Men" (Doubleday, Page), which has to do with sheep-ranching: "You'll see the New Zealander in the rivers. They tear out a way for themselves, skip ahead, and ride down to the sea with a strength and reckless you-be-damnedness that is entirely their own. They go their own lonely ways through the country, and if you interfere with 'em, they'll undermine your supports and leave you in a muddle of shingle. You can't sail a boat on many of our rivers; they are too untamed." Sharp

yet graphic outline of this style makes "Sons o' Men" lively reading—and informative as well. Doings more than lively—tempestuous—may be contemplated as having passed of yore in Bonnie Scotland, recounted by S. R. Crockett under the title of "The Cherry Ribband" (Barnes), while across the water Canon Sheehan finds inspiration to write "Glenanaar." Not often does a Roman Catholic priest compose a novel, and it is therefore interesting to note that the steady old house of Longmans, Green & Co., which half a century back gave its imprint to Cardinal Newman's "Callista" (depicting the persecution of Christians in third-century Rome), to-day puts out "Glenanaar." The reverend canon relates how one Terence Casey, who went to America to seek his fortune, returned after twenty years to seek a bride,—his unforgotten sweetheart,—but how he married her daughter instead.



CANON SHEEHAN.

A small community of Cornwall, at that parlous time when invasion was threatened by Bonaparte, had among its most doughty defenders-to-be "The Mayor of Troy" (Scribner), shown by A. T. Quiller-Couch as an important official, not only tremendous in arms, but funny,—though he knew it not,—on many occasions. "Starve-crow Farm" (Longmans), numbering about four hundred pages, and coming from the hand of Stanley J. Weyman, of course, bristles with multitudinous adventures.

Anthony Hope's "Servant of the Public" (Stokes) seems to prove that nature never intended actresses to become wives and mothers. The histrionic heroine of this novel bubbles and sparkles like the alluring, insidious beverage she quaffs with such gusto,—causing you to ponder, next morning, the substantial virtues of the domestic teapot. "He and Hecuba" (Appleton), by the Baroness von Hutten, through its hysterical staging reminds one somewhat of that eminent social melodramatist Miss M. C. Another lady of melodramatic propensities, Katherine Cecil Thurston, hands "The Gambler" to the Harper Brothers for publication. Clodagh has inherited her father's passion for gaming,—thereby losing herself in a labyrinth of troubles, as the ultimate escape from which she elects suicide. But just as Clodagh is about to leap off the precipice into the sea, a nice, kind old woman hastens up, waving a telegram. Even death must retire before an unopened telegram; after reading it, Clodagh changes her mind. Deciding not to jump down among those nasty, clammy, uncomfortable rocks, she suddenly,—without reference to anything whatever,—screams aloud: "Hannah! There is a God, after all! There is a God!" Curtain—applause—recessional by the band.

Very differently writes May Sinclair, and if "The Divine Fire" (Holt) spring from anything but a divine afflatus, then is the moon really made of green cheese. We do not assert "The Divine Fire" to be a great narration,—Mrs. Thurston tells a story better

than Miss Sinclair,—but, though a mediocre piece of construction, marred by diffuseness and irrelevancies, this novel should be read for its splendidly successful character studies. Of these, Flossie,—nicknamed "the Beaver,"—a selfish, calculating, mean-spirited little middle-class Philistine, quite incapable of penetrating her poetic lover's noble code of honor, will perhaps gain the most suffrages. But to some readers Jewdwine, the smug, infallible, pedantic London editor, patronizing talents far above his own, always shifting and shunting his vaunted literary principles to suit the expedient hour,—to some readers this Jewdwine, this pompous literary sham, will seem the book's dominant psychologic creation, fit, moreover, for the pages of a Meredith. And half-a-dozen minor personal sketches could be mentioned, delightful,—as Miss Sinclair's sense of humor is besides,—to the cultivated appraiser.

"Kipps" (also a Scribner book) is another triumph in the art of presenting character. H. G. Wells has taken a simple son of the people, apprenticed him to a draper at Folkestone, allowed him an inheritance, and launched him upon aspirations of gentility. The ambitious but "h"-less Kipps, 'opelessly battling with *Rules and Manners of Good Society*, perspiring for spiritual light at the Anagram Tea, hiding a pair of purple-slippered feet from an assembly of metropolitan diners-out—scenes like these would make Moses laugh.



MAY SINCLAIR.

Yet all through Mr. Wells' clever study in stupidity one sympathizes with Kipps while smiling at him. That egregious British snobbery, so palpably displayed and flayed by Mr. Wells, finds a no less formidable, indeed an actually ferocious, chastizer in Bernard Shaw, whose "Irrational Knot" (Brentano's) will, no doubt, enjoy a large circulation. Those, however, expecting a moral to adorn the tale may suffer disappointment. If

there be any moral (or immoral—according to your point of view) inferable, it might appear thus: one whose life is devoted to art or science should not marry. Swinburne, at all events, has never taken unto himself a partner,—she might have prevented his publishing "Love's Cross Currents" (Harper), the poet's only novel, whose fame will perish unechoed by the walls of time. A tale in the epistolary form, "Love's Cross Currents" scarcely draws attention except through the letters of Lady Chayne, curiously commingling old ideals with new ideas.

FROM AND ABOUT OTHER FOREIGN LANDS.

Once more we speed across the sea, to other foreign lands, where "The Garden of Allah" (Stokes) inspires Robert Hichens to the high endeavor which crowns his literary career. Beauty and power,—these are nobly conspicuous in Mr. Hichens' tale, so loftily free from the small or paltry, so fervently reciting a grievous fault, a great love, a grand renunciation. Sahara—the scene of action—is a big place, and none but a big talent

could reveal its wondrous, stupendous magic. W. H. Hichens' deep pathos is to some degree shared by the Sardinian, Grazia Deledda. Her own country yields a romantic pen copious themes, but "After the Divorce" (Holt) touches one rarely heard of among Italian peasants, though not at all strange to the plutocratic denizens of "The House of Mirth." Costantino, unjustly jailed for murder,—the law permitting divorce in this case,—upon being released finds his Giovanna wedded to a drunken wife-beater. Fortunately, the sot succumbs to his vice; Costantino and Giovanna are reunited. It is a seizing story,—strong, direct, dramatic. The elegant society gathering at a villa in the Sabine Hills,—see "The Passport" (Harper), by Richard Bagot,—affords a different opportunity to investigate Italian life of to-day, while Maurice Hewlett's romance, "The Fool Errant" (Macmillan) opens early in the eighteenth century at the famous seat of learning whence a certain Doctor Bellario dispatched a beardless substitute to plead before the Doge at Venice. Battle, murder, and sudden lovesuit the Fool's taste better than studious meditation, so that his fights, amours, banishments, imprisonments, allow no drowsiness. He is a glowing idealist, and likewise a complete ruffian,—consequently, a dangerous fool. A fourth Italian story—much inferior to these three—comes to hand from Lippincott's: "The Vortex," by Thomas McKean; place, the Lake of Como; time, the present.

Travelers to France may observe what a state of perfection the hideous art of advertising has been brought to in that country. Duty and necessity compel a young Italian gentleman to display himself before the Parisian public with an advertisement painted upon his shorn skull. "A Beautiful Lady" (McClure) sees and pities. And Booth Tarkington tells the story. He tells it, too, with the fine artistic flavor distin-



Illustration (reduced) from "The Beautiful Lady."

guishing his "Monsieur Beaucaire." Irrepressibly fertile, and still faithful to the house of Macmillan, Marion Crawford now publishes "Fair Margaret," his fortieth (?) novel; nice little college misses are very fond of Marion Crawford's novels. Academical housemaids will perforce enjoy Gertrude Atherton's excursion to Spain, called "Traveling Thirds" (Harper), since that elegant

classic says about a perfect lady: "An English aristocrat, handsome, charming, a guardsman—her heart ached with the romance of it." Nowise sublime, either, can we pronounce the anonymous "Trident and the Net" (Harper), a very long Breton tale, relieved, how-



MÈRE VAILLANT.
(The village sick nurse.)

Illustration (reduced) from "The Trident and the Net."

ever, by a few effective water-color plates of the author's own doing. In "Sawdust" (The Winston Company), Dorothea Gerard has given us a good story of the timberlands in the Polish Carpathians. It is a well-told romance, in which figure a materialistic, business-driven German sawmill owner, a broken-down Polish count, some stupid but fascinating Polish peasants, and some designing, long-suffering Galician Jews. *Noch ist Polen nicht verloren*, Rupert Hughes seems to hope; certainly, "Zal" (Century Company) irradiates warm compassion for Polish musicians coming to the new world in quest of bread and butter. We should say that Jews remaining in the Czar's domains needed all the philanthropy a novelist could suscite, and from the humane point of view we would therefore commend Ezra S. Brudno's "Little Conscript" (Doubleday). But, though no doubt partly veracious, this shocking tale of bigoted brutality meted out to Hebrew conscripts under Nicholas I. is well mixed with imaginary crimson. As for Russia's late vanquisher, Japan, only one story-writer, this season, goes far enough below the surface to probe the national spirit, Alice Mabel Bacon, author of "In the Land of the Gods," issued by the sponsors of Lafcadio Hearn's enchanting books—Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

SATIRE AND HUMOR.

Skipping boldly, now, from Japanese ancestor-worship to contemporary satire, we hail Robert Chambers prince of the last half-year's production. "Iole," issuing from the Appleton house, constitutes a highly droll burlesque upon certain fads excrescent from the

plastic and literary arts. Fat, solemn Clarence Guilford, garrulous apostle of *L'Art Nouveau*, has builded unto himself The House Beautiful,—not a beautiful house,—amid sylvan purlieus, where his eight fair young daughters, unspoiled by contact with civilization, disport themselves in guileless freedom and pink pajamas. In the hall of The House Beautiful "there was absolutely nothing but a small table, on which reposed a single daisy in a glass of water." Guilford explains: "Simplicity,—a single blossom against a background of nothing at all . . . the concentration of composition; the elimination of complexity; the isolation of the concrete in the center of the abstract; something in the midst of nothing. It is a very precious thought,"—proving, with the remaining pages, how Mr. Chambers has no present superior at magnificent nonsense.



Illustration (reduced) from "Concerning Belinda."

"A clever and genial satire on society" is the publisher's just announcement respecting "Mrs. Radigan" (Scribner). One easily guesses what type Mrs. Radigan represents when she says, referring to the Nocasle-Bumpechus marriage: "The duke looked dreadfully decomposed at his wedding. . . . It is much more interesting to be an unhappy duchess than a happy common person." Strong at the grotesque, Nelson Lloyd imagines one Bishop Bumble, "who, over his cognac, discoursed at great length on his new scheme for a church race-track." Mrs. Radigan, we subjoin, was manageress of a Home for Aged But Respectable Unmarried Women.

After such excellent fun as Mr. Chambers' and Mr. Lloyd's, "Minerva's Manoeuvres" (Barnes), an attempted travesty of the Simple Life, Nature-study, and so on, falls desperately flat; and almost as un-hilarious as Charles Battell Loomis do we find Opie Read, with his "Old Lim Jucklin" (Doubleday, Page), a supposed village humorist, but an actual bore, dispensing the mildest of stale jokes. Somewhat more inci-



Part of cover design (reduced) from "Mrs. Raffles."



Frontispiece (reduced) from "Iole."

tive to mirth are the reminiscences of several friends, exchanged over pipe and bowl before "The Wood Fire in Number Three" (Scribner), and recorded by F. Hopkinson Smith,—whereas John Kendrick Bangs chronicles the adventures of an amateur crackswoman, widowed "Mrs. Raffles" (Harper), at Newport. Whatever humor is exhibited in this parody consists of the author's proving how easy it was for Mr. Hornung to fabricate the renowned "Raffles" exploits. "Concerning Belinda" (Doubleday, Page) affords livelier diversion, especially the episode "Adelina and the Drama;" a girl's boarding school in New York forms Eleanor Hoyt's humorous occasion.

HISTORICAL FICTION.

In this department mediocrity prevails. Charles Major once more shines through brilliant incapacity when he attempts "Yolanda" (Macmillan), a romantic version of the events surrounding young Hapsburg Maximilian's betrothal with Princess Mary, daughter to Charles the Bold. The duel between Calli and Maximilian would alone condemn this writer for a completely feeble rhetorician; surely, the very first demand upon the historical romancer is an impressive style.

Under the Revell imprint appears a painstaking, but incredibly adventurous novel of the Fifth Crusade,—"Raoul," by James M. Ludlow. H. B. Marriott Watson essays reincarnating the eighteenth-century *beau* by means of Sir Piers Blakiston's supercilious personality—see "Twisted Eglantine" (Appleton). "Respectable, though uninspiring," were a benign verdict upon five efforts made to induce consideration of American history. Robert Chambers elects the Revolutionary War—see "The Reckoning" (Appleton); and four scribes devote volumes to the Civil War, as follows: George Cary Eggleston, "A Daughter of the South" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard); Charles Egbert Craddock, "The Storm Centre" (Macmillan); Mrs. Burton Harri-

son, "The Carlyles" (Appleton); Jeannie Gould Lincoln, "A Javelin of Fate" (Houghton, Mifflin). Nobody who has heard of Bonaparte need be told what adventure underlies "The Hundred Days" (Appleton), which Max Pemberton has indited; nor will anybody start at learning that another, Baroness Orczy, has lit upon the French Revolution—employed for "The Scarlet Pimpernel" (Putnam). Less habitual recourse is taken by novelists to the tragedy of poor Emperor Maximilian, so shamefully deserted by Napoleon III. According to Eugene T. Lyle, Jr., a certain "Missourian" (Doubleday, Page) wandered down to Mexico, and there drifted into that sorry imperial tanglement, but (because a brave hero in love with a beautiful lady) came out safe again.

We deplorably prophesy a far larger sale for the trivial "Yolanda" than for Allen French's book, "Heroes of Iceland" (Little, Brown), the dignified result of scholarship, research, poetic imagination, lingual efficiency, and love of the task for its own sake. Mr. French's volume loses nothing through being a confessed adaptation, since more perspicuously than the original transcription does it present the great Icelandic *Njal saga*, germane by substance to the *Niebelungenlied*. Brighter financial favor may await Frankfort Moore's new novel, "Love Alone is Lord" (Putnam). The subject selected is Byron's infatuation for his cousin Mary Chaworth. After her marriage, Byron persuades elopement, thus to insure their mutual

(un)happiness forever. Yes, Mary, all will congratulate you on fate's frustration of my Lord Byron's design. No wonder, though, if with such talkers as Lord Holland and Madame de Staël, such wits as Tom Moore and Sheridan, these pages brim the smartest sort of vivacious repartee. Byron's character is sketched sans

prudishness by an author whose every book guarantees a few hours' lively entertainment. But, oh! those funereal tales of war! By all means, let us hasten from their neighborhood to some other ground.

TALES OF FANTASY.

Here, at once, we meet an old friend. Rider Haggard published "King Solomon's Mines" twenty years ago; since then he has often been accused

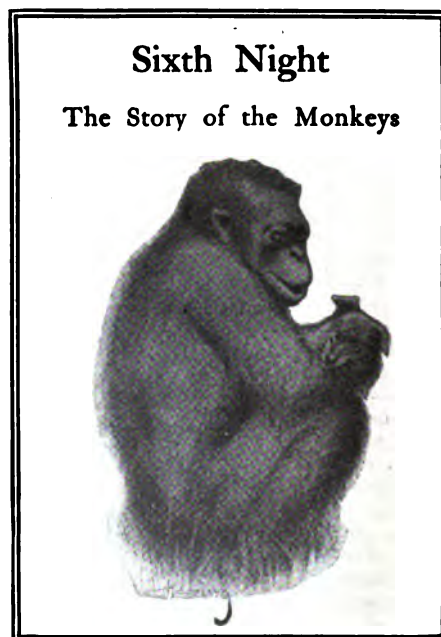
of cock-and-bull stories, but never of dullness. Nor have the destroying years touched his perennial vigor and imagination. "Ayesha" (Doubleday, Page), continuing "She," betokens no weariness and no decay. Whether you like Rider Haggard or not, you must allow him the true, the telling gift of romantic narration.



Cover design (reduced).



Illustration (reduced) from "Ayesha."



Chapter title (reduced) from "Sa'-Zada Tales."

Beside his work, that performed by George Barr McCutcheon appears like a schoolboy's; and when one thinks of really fine achievement,—“The Garden of Allah,” or “The House of Mirth,”—“Nedra” (Dodd, Mead) can evoke nothing but derision.

Dodd, Mead & Co. offer atonement by affixing their trade-mark to Melvin L. Severy's “Mystery of June 13th,” which, though overloaded with superfluous details and unnecessary complications, stands out as a “detective story” belonging to the highest class,—after Poe's. Geographically, the plot is hatched in two places,—New Zealand and New Jersey. The main theme is the defrauding of a life insurance company by a man who claims to be his own brother, after having had himself ostensibly murdered, and having had said brother silenced by an awful threat. Mystery, too, hovers above “The Image in the Sand” (Lippincott), E. F. Benson dividing his practice of the occult between London drawing-rooms and the Lybian desert.

ANIMAL AND SEA STORIES.

Such tales constitute a department, this season, yielding pleasure almost unalloyed. High skill is the average here. Naming Joel Chandler Harris' “Told by Uncle Remus” (McClure), and Ernest Thompson Seton's “Animal Heroes” (Scribner)—merely naming them announces two successful works. Mr. Seton's comic drawings alone invite praise. Equally pleasant will be discovered W. A. Fraser's richly illustrated “Sa'-Zada Tales” (Scribner); one of the most amusing describes a monkey who got ill from eating “the little berries that

grow on the sticks that cause fire,”—namely, matches. Chas. G. D. Roberts contributes the biography of a “Red Fox” (L. C. Page), and good reading it makes, too. “The Black Spaniel” (Stokes), by Robert Hichens, combats vivisection. Edwin Carlile Litsey lends a drastic pen to the struggle for existence among predatory beasts. One might call him the apostle of the Strenuous Life for the animal kingdom. His “Race of the Swift” (Little) is written with evident enjoyment and no small ability.

Read one or more of these books, and you will see how much the beasts of the field have in common with you; what profound similarities of feeling, thought, and action exist between you and them; why they should be treated with decent care and kindness.

For the protection of fishes and mollusks, San Francisco maintains a “Fish Patrol” (Macmillan); Jack

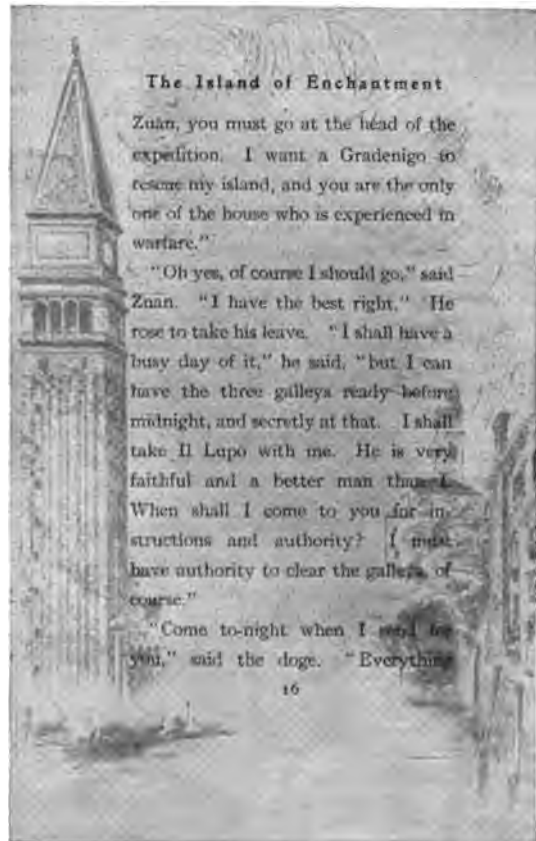
London knows about that. He also, under the same imprint, will tell you things about “The Game”—that strictly human diversion of fighting with doubled claws and no excuse, not even hunger or anger. To go back to the water, Edward Noble's “Edge of Circumstance” (Dodd, Mead) must be set down a sea-story quite exceptional in vivid strength and well worth perusing.

GIFT BOOKS.

Among the season's novels are two that might be properly designated as gift books, for in point of artistic decoration, handsome covers, fine paper, choice typog-



Cover design (reduced).



Page (reduced) from “The Island of Enchantment.”

raphy, attractive pictorial matter, the Lippincott and Harper firms offer good value when they publish, at \$2.50 and \$1.75, respectively, “Miss Cherry-Blossom of Tokyo,” by John Luther Long, and “The Island of Enchantment,” by Justus Miles Forman. The external merits of either volume can best be appreciated through inspection at a book shop, but fairness to Mr. Long bids us tell him that we shrink from writing down our critical opinion of his literary performance. “The Island of Enchantment” is a tale of medieval Venice, illustrated by Howard Pyle. But “Animal Heroes” or “Sa'-Zada Tales” will also bear considering from the Christmas shopper's point of view.

THE SEASON'S BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

IN the books that come to the review table for this season, we note a large number of sentences like the following:

"Mamma *don't* need us. Hannah *can* do everything for the few of you left, *couldn't* she, mamma?" . . . "Seems rather small, *don't* it?" . . . "*Quickly* she tied her dust cloth around the broom, and reaching up *lifted* me and my house *down* . . . when she *shook* me gently off."

And yet the book from which the last quotation was taken is ultra-didactic. In it the child reader is taught "that the microbe lurks in the dish-rag hanging all wet beside the sink;" it is taught that the dust and dirt must be taken from each step of the hall stairs, so that no dust will be raised; that the coal scuttle must stand upright by the hearth, and the kindling wood must not be "chopped on the doorsill."

Why is it that these writers of juveniles are ever ready to preach tidiness, exactness, law, and order in regard to the child's deportment in studying and playing, eating and working, and yet sometimes they themselves have not the mental discipline to marshal their English into idiomatic order? Is it that their slovenly sentences accuse them of slipshod methods of thought? Or should we admit that English is very difficult to write correctly. Even Stevenson is caught napping (if the Scribner reprint is reliable) in the quotation we give, when he writes, "*For there's very few children!*" And even when their sentences conform to the laws of rhetoric, there is often a striving for the picturesque adjective and for the forced simile that is so out of place in a juvenile.

It is a relief to find among this year's books new editions of Miss Alcott's "Under the Lilacs," Stevenson's "Child's Garden of Verses," and Mrs. Burnett's rewritten story of Sara Crewe, entitled "A Little Princess." In these volumes the authors set up a standard of writing for childhood that is supreme because it is natural. In them the fantastical, dramatic, or sentimental point is brought out because it is relieved against a background of simplicity, while the average writer frequently loses her points because she (the juvenile author is usually a woman) is straining at every stroke of the pen.

In her introduction, Mrs. Burnett tells us of the genesis of "A Little Princess" (with illustrations in color by Ethel Franklin Betts; published by Charles Scribner's Sons):

"I do not know," she says, "whether many people realize how much more than is ever written there really

is in a story,—how many parts of it are never told,—how much more happened than there is in the book one holds in one's hand and pores over. When I wrote the story of 'Sara Crewe,' I guessed that a great deal more had happened at Miss Minchin's than I had had time to find out just then."

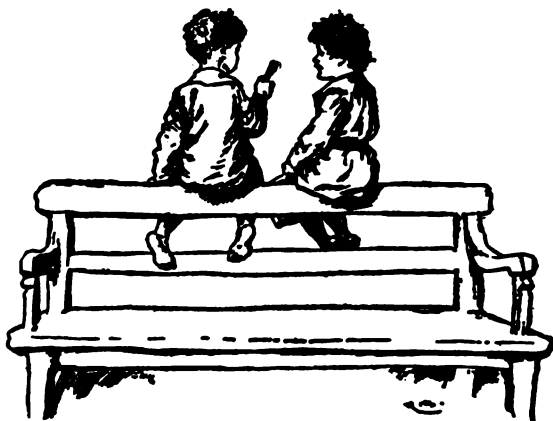


Illustration (reduced) from "Sir Toady Crusoe."

After "Sara Crewe" was published, and the play of "A Little Princess" was produced, her publishers asked her to rewrite Sara's story "and put into it all the things and people who had been left out before," and Mrs. Burnett has done this in a manner that should be a *vade mecum* for all story-writers.

In their flamboyant methods they are always anxious to search for the telling adjectives and for striking similes, but Mrs. Burnett uses the methods of Addison, Lamb, and Wordsworth, and choosing the most direct language possible, allows her subject-matter to paint the picture. How much more graphic is the following:

"If Sara had been a boy and lived a century ago," her father used to say, 'she would have gone about the country with her sword drawn, rescuing and defending every one in distress; she always wants to fight when she sees people in trouble.'"

than if Mrs. Burnett had written: "She would have traversed the country like a feminine Quixote, with a sword ever ready to rescue imprisoned duennas and defend damsels in distress. She straightway waxes beligerent on encountering affliction." Yet this latter style is the one nearly always selected by the writer of mediocre talent.

Could two lines give a more vivid picture than these?—"Miss Amelia stumbled up from her knees with a heavy sigh, Lottie's fat little legs kicked as hard as ever." In this whole scene between Miss Amelia, Lottie, and Sara Crewe, there is not the slightest effort on Mrs. Burnett's part to select telling adjectives: situation and contrast of characters alone are made to tell.

Of course all this clear writing would count for little if it were not that Mrs. Burnett chooses characters that are so worthy of being put into story books, and that she is able to sustain these characters with a firm touch from the beginning to the end of her story. "A Little Princess" is the leading child's book of the year.



Illustration (reduced) from "A Little Princess."

DOMESTIC DRAMAS.

And now at last the sun is going down behind the wood, | And I am very happy, for I know that I've been good.—STEVENSON.

Two attractive volumes are, "The Boynton Pluck," by Helen Ward Banks, illustrated by Clyde O. Deland (Penn Publishing Company), and "How Barbara Kept Her Promise," by Nina Rhoades, illustrated by Bertha Davidson (Lee & Shepard). Both these stories are told with directness, so that interest is kept up from the first page to the last.

"Marion Harland" follows the success of her "When Grandmother Was New" by "When Grandmother Was Fourteen" (illustrated by Etheldred B. Barry; published by the Lothrop Publishing Company). Mrs. Terhune, a veteran with the pen, writing of things she herself has seen, gives us vivid pictures of home-life in Virginia before the war.

Edwin L. Sabin writes in short paragraphs, with plenty of dialogue, so that his volume is easy reading, and while the story of "The Beaufort Chums" (illustrated by Charles Copeland; published by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.) is one of rather commonplace adventure, there are some true descriptions in its pages. The description of the imprisoned dog deserted in the house half-flooded by the rising Mississippi is exceedingly graphic: "He barked and whined, and crouched and stretched, one end willing and the other end afraid; and on the very brink he always balked."

S. R. Crockett adds this year to the reputation he

has won, through "Sweetheart Travelers" and "Sir Toady Lion," as a Dickens-like depicter of child-life, by giving us a truly humorous, good long story about the further adventure of Sir Toady Lion, whose new alias, "Sir Toady Crusoe," in these adventures gives the name to the book. There have been written, almost since the Ark's surroundings were described, descriptions of lakes that lay "smooth as mirrors" and rivers that wound through valleys "like silver ribbons,"



Illustration (reduced) from "The Pleasant Tragedies of Childhood."



Illustration (reduced) from "A Child's Garden of Verses."

and so on in stereotyped language, but we know that Mr. Crockett thinks for himself when we read, "The 'Lake' of Creed spread away to the north and south, steel-gray and glimmering like the blade of a new knife." The volume is illustrated by Gordon Brown (Frederick A. Stokes Company).

The tenth volume of the "Little Pepper" series is entitled "Ben Pepper," illustrated by Eugenie M. Wireman (Lothrop Publishing Company). The author, Margaret Sidney, writes of Ben: "He is the eldest-born of Mother Pepper's brood, and her mainstay after the father died,—the quiet, 'steady-as-a-rock boy,' as the Badgertown people all called him; with lots of fun in him, too, because he could not help it, being a Pepper,"—was worthy of a book to himself.

"The Family on Wheels," adapted from the French (why not give credit to the author?) by J. MacDonald Oxley, illustrated by E. Boyd Smith (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), is a sweet story of a tabloid circus,—one most sagacious elephant, one horse, one curly dog, and a family of four lovable child performers, all well worth telling a story about.

From the Lothrop Publishing Company come "Laura in the Mountains," by Henrietta R. Eliot, and "Dolly's Double," by Ethel Wood.

From Lee & Shepard come "The Children of Bedford Court," third volume of the "Janet" series, by Grace Le Baron; "Cordelia's Pathway Out," by Edna A. Foster, editor of the Children's Page in *The Youth's Companion*;" and "My Little Lady-in-Waiting," by Louise E. Catlin, with excellent illustrations by E. Pollak.

An author who, like Marion Harland, is a popular favorite is "Pausy"—Mrs. G. R. Alden. Her earlier books, numbering more than one hundred, were mainly for young children. This year's story, however, "David Ransom's Watch," illustrated by Ernest Fosberg (Lothrop Publishing Company), is more fitted for youths and adults. The characters are plain people, and the hero, Ransom, a fellow of sterling worth.

The "Little Colonel" is no longer the quick-tempered baby that stamped her tiny foot at her grandfather, but she has grown into a miss of sweet sixteen, to be admired "from her broad silk shoelaces to the pink tips of her carefully manicured finger nails!" (What would Miss Alcott's Bob, Betty, and Miss Celia



Illustration (reduced) from "Under the Lilacs."



Cover design (reduced) of "When Grandmamma Was Fourteen."

have said to the manicured finger nails?) And she goes to "a first-class boarding-school," cycled "Warwick Hall," where they have peacocks and a "London butler." About all of which her friends, and they are legion, may learn from reading Annie Fellows Johnston's, "The Little Colonel's Christmas Vacation" (illustrated by Etheldred B. Barry; L. Page & Co.).

REPRINTS.

If two may read aright | These rhymes of old delight.—STEVENSON.

Two leading books among the reprints this year are "A Child's Garden of Verses," by Robert Louis Stevenson, illustrated by Jessie Willcox Smith (Charles Scribner's Sons), and "Under the Lilacs," by Louisa M. Alcott, illustrated by Alice Barber Stephens (Little, Brown & Co.).

It is not likely that any one will ever illustrate Stevenson as sympathetically as did the brothers Robinson in England, and a great many have tried. But the poems themselves are so precious that we can never have too many new editions, whether the artists wholly succeed or not. The many designs by Miss Smith are uneven in quality; sometimes the children in the picture are decidedly modern, and other times they wear the habiliments of Stevenson's boyhood. But they are most effective, especially the colored designs. The grace of draftsmanship, for example, in "The Land of Counterpane," the atmospheric effect in "Looking Glass River," and "My Shadow" is rarely excelled in story-book pictures, while the print of the child ensconced among the hollyhocks, accompanying "The Flower," is a veritable triumph of the colored illustration.

We cannot help but respect the sincere note in Miss Alcott's writings, and the homely scenes she describes in "Under the Lilacs" still have their counterpart in the rural districts of the country, though they are now less typical of American life than they were when written a quarter of a century ago. It is also true that her literary style harks back to the methods of Irving, Hawthorne, and George Eliot, and seems a trifle strained alongside of the simple and less be-adjectived method of Mrs. Burnett. The illustrations by Mrs. Stephens are far too few—only eight. Her problem was a difficult one,—the sympathetic rendering of characters we respect in the old-fashioned costumes of the seventies.

BOOKS FOR BOYS.

Where shall we adventure, to-day that we're afloat | Wary of the weather and steering by a star? | Shall it be to Africa, a-steering of the boat, | To Providence, or Babylon, or off to Malabar?—STEVENSON.

The veteran writer for boys, W. O. Stoddard, begins a new Revolutionary series with "Dan Monroe," a story of Bunker Hill (Lothrop Publishing Company), introducing Paul Revere and "Old Put."

The imprint of Lee & Shepard is found upon the title pages of "The Gregory Guards," by Emma Lee Benedict, a story telling how a wealthy New Yorker influences the lives of six boys whom he has taken away

for the summer; "The Scarlet Patch," the tale of a patriotic boy in the Mohawk Valley, by Mary E. Q. Brush; and Edward Stratemeyer's "Dave Porter at Oak Hill," an addition to his colonial series.

L. C. Page & Co. publish "The Young Section Hand," by Burton E. Stevenson and "The Rival Campers," by Ruel P. Smith. From the Bobbs-Merrill Company comes "Pipetown Sandy," by John Philip Sousa.

From the Penn Publishing Company come "Fighting King George," by John E. McIntyre, exceptionally well illustrated by J. A. Graeber; and "A Plebe at West Point," by Capt. Paul B. Malone, U. S. A.

"Winning His Degree" is a typical college story from the pen of Everett I. Tomlinson, a college man and a successful teacher. It is illustrated by Frank McKerman, and published by the Griffith & Rowland Press.

There is a great deal of horse-play chronicled in "Plucky Perkins, Just a Boy" by Capt. Harold Hammond, U.S.A., illustrated by George Varian (The Century Company), and older readers will find its humor somewhat conventional.

The authors on Harper & Brothers' list are such as to guarantee that their books are written in well-considered English and that the subject-matter is wholesome. Kirk Munroe's "For the Mikado" gives us a story of a Japanese middy in action, and narrates some of the most exciting encounters in the late Russo-Japanese conflict. A new Jimmy Brown book, "Jimmy Brown in Europe," a sort of Mark Twain-and-water product, comes from the facile pen of W. L. Alden.

FOR THE LITTLE FOLKS.

Children, you are very little, | And your bones are very brittle.—STEVENSON.

Mrs. Gabrielle E. Jackson, in her "Wee Winkles and Wideawake," published by Harper & Brothers, uses very meager subject-matter,—the child making a birthday cake, children at the sea-shore, etc.,—so that perhaps children of ten or twelve will feel disappointed on reading the book; but to the little folks of six to nine, the stories being plainly told, will appeal more directly.

Gertrude Smith, the author of "Roggie and Reggie" stories, also tells a tale in "Little Mother and Georgie" (Harper & Brothers) of very simple every-day happenings, but the author's style is so fluent that the rhythm of the text will be sure to soothe the little ears.

A book for very small people is "The Denim Elephant," with a paragraph and a picture on every page; it is illustrated in color by Emily Carter Wright. This



Illustration (reduced) from "An Island in the Air."



Illustration (reduced) from "Tige—His Story."

is one of the "Christmas Stockings" series; as is also "Con the Wizard," a longer story, with illustrations in color by Edward R. Little and in black and white by Oliver Herford (Frederick A. Stokes Company).

PICTURE BOOKS.

How am I to sing your praise, | Happy chimney-corner days, | Sitting safe in nursery nooks, | Reading picture story-books?—STEVENSON.

The folio type page of "Verses for Jock and Joan," by Helen Hay, pictures by Charlotte Harding (Fox, Duffield & Co.), is particularly attractive in its compo-



Illustration (reduced) from "Verses for Jock and Joan."

sition, and though the printing of the colored illustrations is not all that could be desired, being at times provokingly foggy, especially in the flesh tones and eyes, the pictures themselves belong to the class of the refined and artistic, gaudiness being conspicuous by its absence. The verses are not without point, but are entirely lacking in that "turn of the phrase" which makes the verses of Stevenson or Lewis Carroll dwell in the memory of a child.

Virginia Gerson is the author and illustrator of "More Adventures of the Happy Heart Family," and her drawings, which are printed on almost every page, either in sepia or in full color, have all the vivacity and spontaneity of the drawings of Caldecott, which is giving them the highest praise, for Caldecott was the illustrator *par excellence* of humorous books for children.

Frances Trego Montgomery, the author of the "Billy Whiskers" series, possesses the knack of preparing books for young people. There is always plenty of action in her stories, and in "Frances and the Irrepressibles at the Buena Vista Farm," this year's volume, even if the text should fail to interest, there is so much of life and American local color in the hundred or more half-tones from photographs that the young reader will find more than a day's delectation in examining the pictures of "Carl in Indian Costume," "Where Regis Fell in the Milk," or the "Tally-ho Sally Rode In."



Illustration (reduced) from "More Adventures of the Happy Heart Family."

As is usual for each holiday season, we have books written about children rather than for children. Foremost among these is "Pleasant Tragedies of Childhood" (pictures by F. Y. Cory, verses by Burges Johnson; published by Harper & Brothers). Miss Cory is a born caricaturist, and her pictures are exceedingly mirth-provoking. Some of the verses are very witty.

"The Peter Newell Mother Goose," by Carolyn S. Bailey (Henry Holt & Co.), has a goodly number of Peter Newell's pictures that children will look at more than once, there is so much to them.

Two "Buster Brown" books come from F. A. Stokes Company. "Tige and his Story," which we like the better, because in it Mr. Outcault's drawings are in simple black and not besmudged by vulgar colors (the crude yellow in the other volume is most offensive). There is a regular story in this book, while "Buster Brown's Pranks" is a reprint of the pictures that have appeared in the *New York Herald*. The child reader will probably not agree with us, but will like the picture book the better, for Mr. Outcault certainly understands how to combine his drawn pantomimes with enough verbal humor to enhance the comedy a hundred-fold. However much one may disagree with him on the question of good taste (in regard to his subject-matter), no one can deny Mr. Outcault's supremacy as a child entertainer.

BOOKS OF ADMONITION.

A child should always say what's true | And speak when he is spoken to, | And behave mannerly at table, | At least so far as he is able.—STEVENSON.

Charlotte Grace Sperry, in "Teddy Sunbeam," endeavors to interest the little reader in things inanimate about the household, and in a rather original series of little fables, teaches the infantile housekeeper why she should not waste the soap, and how to take spots of paint off of little brother's "pants." The pen sketches accompanying these fables are crisply drawn by Albertine Randall Wheelan; the publishers, Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco, deserve condemnation for the disagreeable yellow tint that is printed over the page. The brown and orange of the cover and the fainter yellow of the lining paper are much more refined. The lining paper is, by the way, cleverly designed, consisting of dust brooms, dust pans, spoons and dish pans a-dancing all in a row.

FAIRY BOOKS.

Armies and emperors and kings, | All carrying different kinds of things, | And marching in so grand a way, | You never saw the like by day.—STEVENSON.

The reputation of L. Frank Baum, the inventor of "The Wizard of Oz," is so great that it is likely that his 1905 volume, "Queen Zixi of Ix," illustrated by Frederick Richardson (The Century Company), will be one of the most popular books of the season. The story follows the lines of his previous books, and is full of fairy lore and burlesque. The illustrations are numerous and fairly well drawn, but the color-printing is very slovenly done, and such as the publishers should be ashamed of. They look as though they had been daubed by an infant in the nursery.

It seems a pity that a single frontispiece and three page decorations should be all the illustrations that Blanche Ostertag should contribute to "Fairy Tales Every Child Should Know" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), and Hamilton Wright Mabie should have seen to it that each tale was attributed to some source, as Mr. Lang arranges in editing his multi-colored fairy-lore series. How unjust, for example, to forego the opportunity of introducing the name of Hans Andersen to the child by printing the "Ugly Duckling" without his signature!

This season's Lang book, "The Red Romance Book," with its many illustrations, eight beautifully colored, by H. J. Ford (Longmans, Green & Co.), presents a more attractive appearance than does the Mabie volume.



Illustration (reduced) from
"Queen Zixi of Ix."

BOOKS ABOUT ANIMALS.

The friendly cow, all red and white, | I love with all my heart: | She gives me cream with all her might, | To eat with apple-tart.—STEVENSON.

"The Runaway Donkey," by Emilie Poulsson, illustrated by L. J. Bridgeman (Lothrop Publishing Company), contains a group of stories in verse delineating for the most, the idiosyncrasies of the denizens of the animal world. It is always a valuable link in a child's education when he is made to sympathize with the doings of his four-footed friends; so Miss Poulsson's book should be a welcome addition to every child's library.

"Neddy, the Autobiography of a Donkey," edited by Charles Welsh, comes from the H. M. Caldwell Co., as does "Yoppy, the Autobiography of a Monkey."

"Captain Jim Crow Tales," by Burton Stoner, illustrated by Carl B. Williams (The Saalfield Publishing Company), contains the type of animal stories that Kipling and Thompson-Seton have made popular. Though what Kipling may have accomplished with his consummate art and Thompson-Seton with his enthusiasm as a naturalist, their followers frequently fall short of, both as regards the depth of their insight into nature

and their mastery of the Anglo-Saxon tongue. But as we said, by all means give the children plenty of animal books, and thus widen their sympathies.

USEFUL BOOKS.

But of all my treasures the last is the King, | For there's very few children possess such a thing; | And that is a chisel, both handle and blade, | Which a man who was really a carpenter made.—STEVENSON.

The "Arts and Crafts" movement and manual training as taught in the public school has stimulated a fair

interest in the handicrafts, so that many parents cannot look upon a book like A. Neely Hall's "The Boy Craftsman," illustrated by N. P. Hall (Lee & Shepard), as a series of hints for mere childish pastime, but rather as a text-book of serious study.

"The Scientific American Boy," by A. Russell Bond (Munn & Co.), tells how to build everything connected with a camp.



Illustration (reduced) from
"Frances and the Irrepressibles."

BOOKS OF TRAVEL.

The world is so full of a number of things, | I'm sure we should all be as happy as kings.—STEVENSON.

Ernest Ingersoll is such a practiced writer of popular science that he is well able to introduce descriptive sentences into, "An Island in the Air," a story of singular adventures in the Mesa country (illustrated by William A. McCollough; The Macmillan Company) that give such local color to the scenes so that the boy reader will be pretty sure to think the story true.

Much above the average in the variety and excellence of its illustrations (from stereographs by Under-

wood & Underwood; F. A. Stokes & Co.), they are some six by eight inches, is "Jogging Round the World,"—riders and drivers with curious steeds or vehicles, in strange lands and at home,—by Edith Dunham. The child would be dense indeed who could not widen his intellectual horizon by the perusal of this book.



Illustration (reduced) from
"The Boy Craftsman."

Uniform with the foregoing is "Children of Other Days,"—notable pictures of children of various countries and times, after paintings by great masters,—by N. Hudson Moore (F. A. Stokes & Co.).

The story told in "Shipwrecked in Greenland," by Arthur R. Thompson, illustrated from photographs (Little, Brown & Co.), is founded upon facts.

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American review of reviews.

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